

The WSIPP benefit-cost analysis examines, on an apples-to-apples basis, the monetary value of programs or policies to determine whether the benefits from the program exceed its costs. WSIPP's research approach to identifying evidence-based programs and policies has three main steps. First, we determine "what works" (and what does not work) to improve outcomes using a statistical technique called meta-analysis. Second, we calculate whether the benefits of a program exceed its costs. Third, we estimate the risk of investing in a program by testing the sensitivity of our results. For more detail on our methods, see our [Technical Documentation](#).

Current estimates replace old estimates. Numbers will change over time as a result of model inputs and monetization methods.

State and district early childhood education programs Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated December 2013.

Program Description: In this analysis, we include pre-kindergarten programs funded by states or school districts that are universal or that target low-income students. Comparison students could have received any other child care options available in the community, including care by family members, another preschool program, subsidized or unsubsidized child care, or Head Start.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:

Taxpayers	\$13,501	Benefit to cost ratio	\$5.74
Participants	\$19,721	Benefits minus costs	\$34,398
Others	\$10,142	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$1,707)	benefits greater than the costs	90 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$41,657</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$7,259)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	\$34,398		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Crime	\$0	\$1,783	\$3,913	\$887	\$6,583
Labor market earnings associated with high school graduation	\$19,365	\$8,794	\$8,860	\$0	\$37,020
K-12 grade repetition	\$0	\$290	\$0	\$144	\$434
K-12 special education	\$0	\$819	\$0	\$408	\$1,227
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$578)	\$2,123	(\$2,303)	\$1,057	\$299
Costs of higher education	(\$1,003)	(\$1,186)	(\$328)	(\$591)	(\$3,108)
Subtotals	\$17,784	\$12,624	\$10,142	\$1,906	\$42,456
From secondary participant					
Labor market earnings associated with employment	\$1,936	\$879	\$0	\$0	\$2,815
Public assistance	\$1	(\$3)	\$0	(\$1)	(\$2)
Subtotals	\$1,937	\$877	\$0	(\$1)	\$2,812
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$3,611)	(\$3,611)
Totals	\$19,721	\$13,501	\$10,142	(\$1,707)	\$41,657

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²“Others” includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³“Indirect benefits” includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

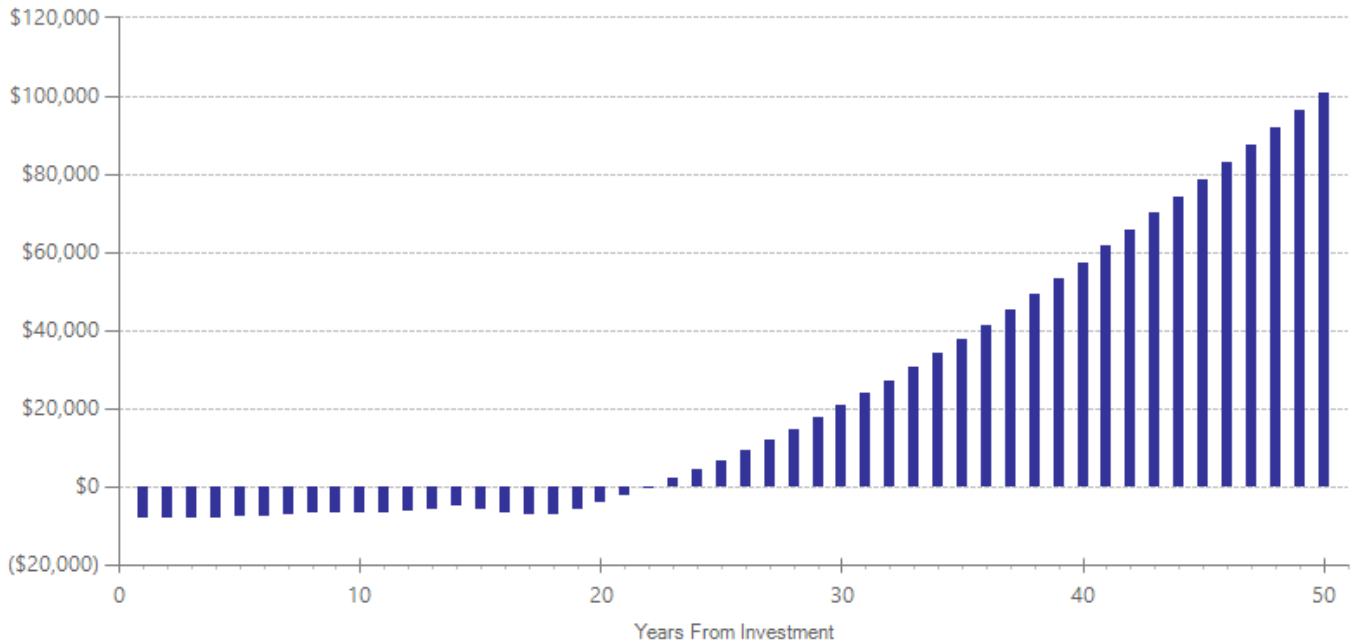
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$6,934	2012	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$7,259)
Comparison costs	\$961	2012	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

Our per-participant estimate reflects the total cost of Washington State’s Early Childhood Education and Assistance Program (ECEAP), including administrative costs per slot plus the amount of state-subsidized child care subsidies distributed to kids in ECEAP (http://www.del.wa.gov/publications/partnerships/docs/ECEAP_HS_Profile_2012.pdf). Comparison group costs reflect the range of other options that low-income children in Washington might receive, including state-subsidized child care and Head Start. Comparison group costs were calculated by dividing the amount of state-subsidized child care subsidies distributed to ECEAP-eligible families who did not participate in ECEAP by the number of children (30,936). The number of eligible students includes all Head Start (HS) students; while HS eligibility is up to 130% of the federal poverty line (FPL), students under 100% FPL are given first priority (http://www.del.wa.gov/publications/partnerships/docs/ECEAP_HS_Profile_2012.pdf and personal communication with Nicole Rose, Department of Early Learning, Early Learning Management System on December 4, 2013).

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	Primary or secondary participant	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
				First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
				ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Crime	Primary	1	902	-0.251	0.174	26	-0.251	0.174	36	-0.251	0.149
High school graduation	Primary	2	1184	0.231	0.091	21	0.231	0.091	21	0.231	0.011
K-12 grade repetition	Primary	4	2023	-0.351	0.068	12	-0.351	0.068	12	-0.351	0.001
K-12 special education	Primary	3	1670	-0.118	0.193	14	-0.118	0.193	14	-0.118	0.544
Test scores	Primary	17	10799	0.303	0.029	4	0.064	0.031	17	0.303	0.001
Earnings*	Secondary	1	5253	0.024	0.042	33	0.000	0.000	34	0.024	0.566
Employment	Secondary	1	5253	-0.003	0.017	33	0.000	0.000	34	-0.003	0.851
Public assistance	Secondary	1	5253	0.000	0.040	33	0.000	0.000	34	0.000	1.000

*The effect size for this outcome indicates percentage change, not a standardized mean difference effect size.

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Barnett, W.S., Frede, E.C., Mobasher, H., & Mohr, P. (1988). The efficacy of public preschool programs and the relationship of program quality to efficacy. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 10*(1), 37-49.
- Barnett, W. S., Jung, K., Youn, M., & Frede, E.C. (2013). *Abbott preschool program longitudinal effects study: Fifth grade follow-up*. New Brunswick, NJ: National Institute for Early Education Research.
- Frede, E., Jung, K., Barnett, W. S., Lamy, C.E., & Figueras, A. (2007). *The Abbott Preschool Program longitudinal effects study (APPLES): Interim report*. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University, National Institute for Early Education Research.
- Gormley Jr, W. T., & Gayer, T. (2005). Promoting school readiness in Oklahoma: An evaluation of Tulsa's pre-k program. *The Journal of Human Resources, 40*(3), 533-558.
- Gormley, W. T., Jr., Gayer, T., Phillips, D., & Dawson, B. (2005). The effects of universal pre-k on cognitive development. *Developmental Psychology, 41*(6), 872-884.
- Gormley, W. T., Jr., Phillips, D., & Gayer, T. (2008). Preschool programs can boost school readiness [Supplemental material]. *Science, 320*, 1723-1724. doi: 10.1126/science.1156019.
- Hustedt, J.T., Barnett, W.S., Jung, K. & Thomas, J. (2007). *The effects of the Arkansas Better Chance program on young children's school readiness*. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University, National Institute for Early Education Research.
- Hustedt, J.T., Barnett, W.S., Jung, K., & Figueras-Daniel, A. (2009). *Continued impacts of New Mexico pre-k on children's readiness for kindergarten: Results from the third year of implementation*. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University, National Institute for Early Education Research.
- Lipsey, M.W., Hofer, K.G., Dong, N., Farran, D.C., & Bilbrey, C. (2013). *Evaluation of the Tennessee voluntary prekindergarten program: End of pre-K results from the randomized control trial*. Nashville, TN: Vanderbilt University, Peabody Research Institute.
- Malofeeva, E., Daniel-Echols, M., & Xiang, Z. (2007). *Findings from the Michigan School Readiness Program 6 to 8 follow up study*. Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Educational Research Foundation.
- Peisner-Feinberg, E.S., & Schaaf, J.M. (2011). *Evaluation of the North Carolina More at Four Pre-Kindergarten Program*. Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina, FPG Child Development Institute.
- Quay, L.C., McMurrain, M.K., Minore, D.A., Cook, L., & Steele, D.C. (1996). *The longitudinal evaluation of Georgia's prekindergarten program: Results from the third year*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Atlanta, GA.
- Reynolds, A.J., Temple, J.A., White, B.A., Ou, S.R., & Robertson, D.L. (2011). Age-26 cost-benefit analysis of the child-parent center early education program. *Child Development, 82*(1), 379-404.
- Reynolds, A.J. & Temple, J.A. (1995). Quasi-experimental estimates of the effects of a preschool intervention. *Evaluation Review, 19*(4): 347-373.
- Schweinhart, L., Xiang, Z., Daniel-Echols, M., Browning, K., & Wakabayashi, T. (2012). *Michigan Great Start Readiness Program evaluation 2012: High school graduation and retention findings*. Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Educational Research Foundation.
- Vance, B.J. (1967). *The effect of preschool group experience on various language and social skills in disadvantaged children: Final Report*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University.
- Weiland, C., & Yoshikawa, H. (2013). Impacts of a prekindergarten program on children' mathematics, language, literacy, executive function, and emotional skills. *Child Development, 84*(6), 2112-2130.
- Wong, V.C., Cook, T.D., Barnett, W.S., & Jung, K. (2008). An effectiveness-based evaluation of five state pre-kindergarten programs. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management, 27*(1), 122-154.

Becoming a Man (BAM) with high-dosage tutoring

Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated May 2015.

Program Description: Becoming a Man (BAM) is a high school behavioral program that offers non-academic intervention to disadvantaged and at-risk males through exposure to prosocial adults and skill training based on cognitive behavioral therapy. The program focuses on teaching character and social-emotional skills including considering another person's perspective, evaluating consequences ahead of time, and reducing automatic decision-making. Participants attend weekly one-hour group sessions offered during the school day. The program included in this analysis combines BAM with individualized math tutoring conducted for one hour each day in groups of two students.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$9,686	Benefit to cost ratio	\$7.89
Participants	\$20,031	Benefits minus costs	\$31,203
Others	\$8,139	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$2,122)	benefits greater than the costs	72 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$35,735</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$4,532)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	\$31,203		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$20,691	\$9,396	\$9,167	\$0	\$39,254
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$221)	\$808	(\$885)	\$403	\$105
Costs of higher education	(\$438)	(\$518)	(\$143)	(\$258)	(\$1,357)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$2,267)	(\$2,267)
Totals	\$20,031	\$9,686	\$8,139	(\$2,122)	\$35,735

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

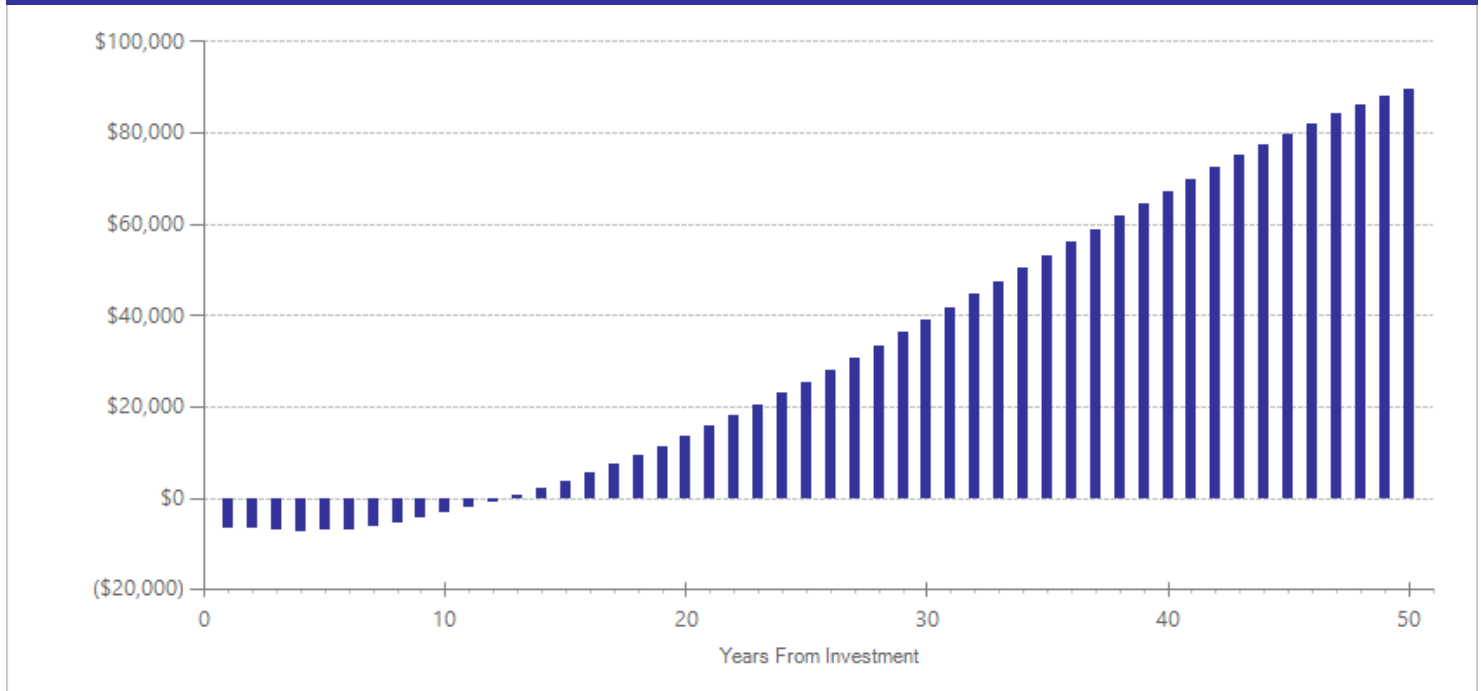
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$4,400	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$4,532)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

The intervention in this analysis occurred over one school year. The estimated cost for BAM with high-dosage tutoring is \$4,400 per student as reported in Cook, P.J., Dodge, K., Farkas, G., Fryer, R.G., Guryan, J., Ludwig, J., ... Steinberg, L. (2014). The (surprising) efficacy of academic and behavioral intervention with disadvantaged youth: Results from a randomized experiment in Chicago (NBER Working Paper 19862). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Grade point average [^]	1	72	0.350	0.210	16	0.350	0.210	16	0.350	0.095
Office discipline referrals [^]	1	72	0.073	0.208	16	0.073	0.208	16	0.073	0.726
School attendance [^]	1	68	0.352	0.221	16	0.352	0.221	16	0.352	0.111
Suspensions/expulsions [^]	1	68	-0.210	0.220	16	-0.210	0.220	16	-0.210	0.338
Test scores	1	60	0.217	0.251	16	0.208	0.276	17	0.217	0.387

[^]WSIPP's benefit-cost model does not monetize this outcome.

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

Cook, P.J., Dodge, K., Farkas, G., Fryer, R.G., Guryan, J., Ludwig, J., ... Steinberg, L.. (2014). *The (surprising) efficacy of academic and behavioral intervention with disadvantaged youth: Results from a randomized experiment in Chicago* (NBER Working Paper 19862). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.

Consultant teachers: Literacy Collaborative Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated January 2018.

Program Description: Literacy Collaborative is a comprehensive teacher professional development model that uses coaching for teachers as a primary strategy to improve instructional practices and student outcomes. The program provides up to 35 days of training at university sites to literacy coaches before placement in schools, as well as on-going training and support. Coaches provide professional development and work one-on-one with classroom teachers with a focus on the specific instructional strategies in the Literacy Collaborative model. The evaluation included in this analysis measures the impact of the model on students in grades K–2 after three years of implementation.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$6,515	Benefit to cost ratio	\$33.90
Participants	\$13,512	Benefits minus costs	\$24,721
Others	\$5,710	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$264)	benefits greater than the costs	100 %
Total benefits	\$25,473		
Net program cost	(\$751)		
Benefits minus cost	\$24,721		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$13,853	\$6,291	\$6,196	\$0	\$26,341
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$104)	\$382	(\$416)	\$192	\$54
Costs of higher education	(\$237)	(\$157)	(\$71)	(\$79)	(\$544)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$377)	(\$377)
Totals	\$13,512	\$6,515	\$5,710	(\$264)	\$25,473

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

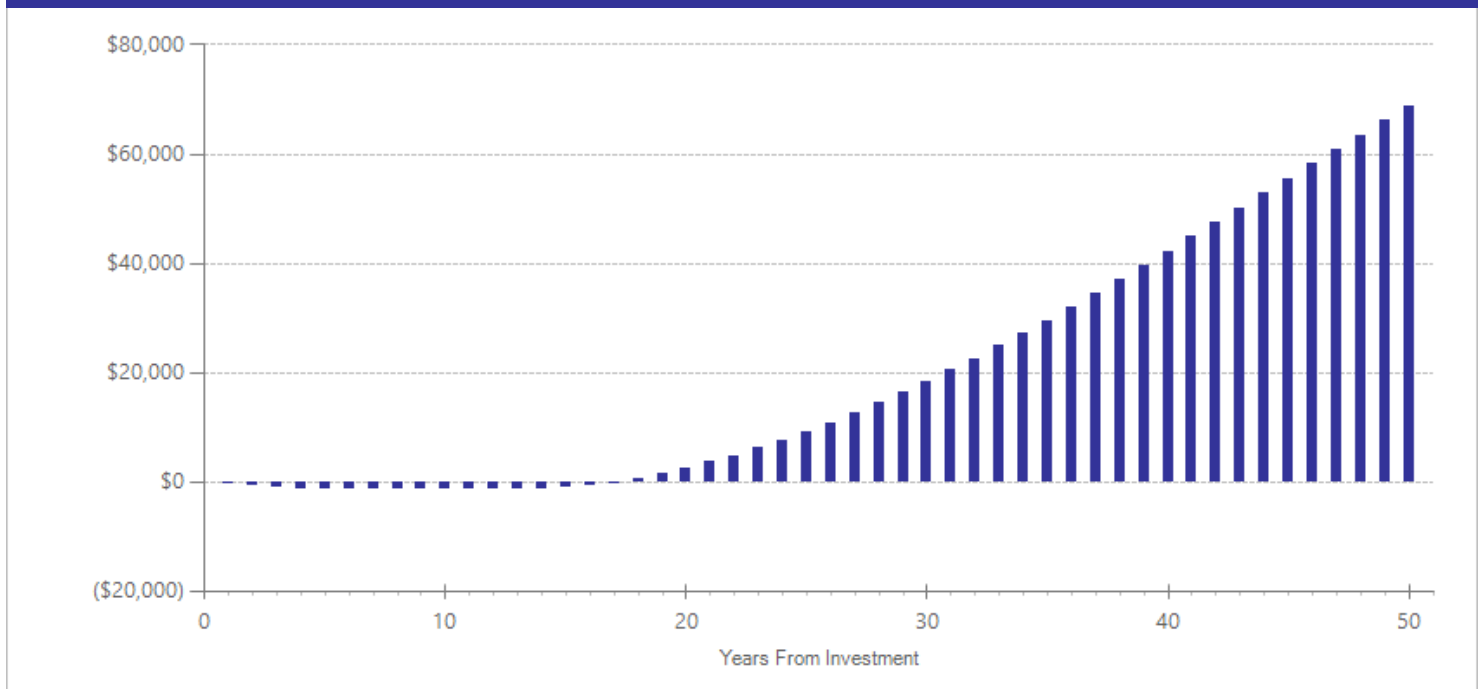
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$192	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$751)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

Cost is based on published literacy coach training costs, including training fees, travel, and materials, from Ohio State University (2014). *Costs for Literacy Collaborative literacy coach training 2014-2015*, Columbus Ohio, OH: author. The estimate also includes salary costs for coach and teacher time based on the average compensation cost (including benefits) for K-8 teachers as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we used the number of students in grades K-2 in Washington's prototypical schools formula. Costs reflect the average annual cost per-student assuming three years of implementation and one year of training.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	1	3348	0.428	0.025	6	0.171	0.028	17	0.428	0.001

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

Biancarosa, G., Bryk, A.S., & Dexter, E.R. (2010). Assessing the value-added effects of Literacy Collaborative professional development on student learning. *The Elementary School Journal, 111*(1), 7-34.

Head Start Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated December 2013.

Program Description: Head Start is a federal program that funds early childhood education, social services and health services for children ages 0-5. Studies in this analysis focus on center-based Head Start programs for 3- and 4- year olds.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$9,371	Benefit to cost ratio	\$3.21
Participants	\$14,367	Benefits minus costs	\$19,760
Others	\$8,267	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$3,300)	benefits greater than the costs	81 %
Total benefits	\$28,706		
Net program cost	(\$8,946)		
Benefits minus cost	\$19,760		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Crime	\$0	\$1,428	\$3,195	\$712	\$5,335
Labor market earnings associated with high school graduation	\$15,555	\$7,064	\$7,132	\$0	\$29,751
K-12 grade repetition	\$0	\$72	\$0	\$36	\$109
Public assistance	(\$3)	\$7	\$0	\$3	\$7
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$462)	\$1,698	(\$1,841)	\$844	\$238
Costs of higher education	(\$792)	(\$937)	(\$259)	(\$466)	(\$2,454)
Subtotals	\$14,297	\$9,332	\$8,226	\$1,130	\$32,986
From secondary participant					
Labor market earnings associated with high school graduation	\$76	\$35	\$35	\$0	\$145
K-12 grade repetition	\$0	\$1	\$0	\$0	\$1
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$2)	\$8	\$7	\$4	\$18
Costs of higher education	(\$4)	(\$4)	(\$1)	(\$2)	(\$12)
Subtotals	\$70	\$39	\$41	\$2	\$153
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$4,432)	(\$4,432)
Totals	\$14,367	\$9,371	\$8,267	(\$3,300)	\$28,706

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

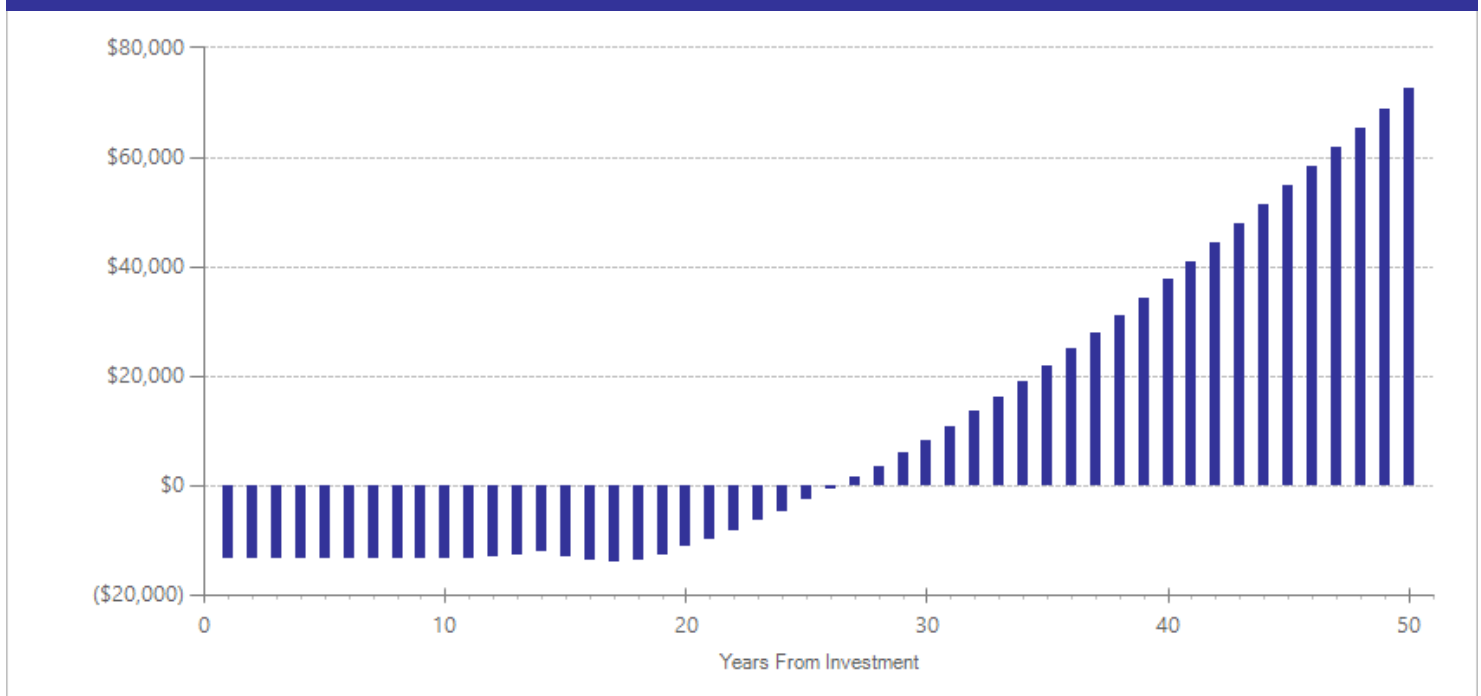
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$9,469	2012	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$8,946)
Comparison costs	\$903	2012	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

Per-child costs calculated using a weighted average of Head Start, American Indian Alaska Native Head Start and Migrant and Seasonal Head Start costs, including administrative costs per slot (http://www.del.wa.gov/publications/partnerships/docs/ECEAP_HS_Profile_2012.pdf). Comparison group costs reflect the range of other options that low-income children in Washington might receive, including state-subsidized child care and Washington's Early Childhood Education and Assistance Program (ECEAP). Comparison group costs were calculated by dividing the cost of ECEAP (\$55,867,278) by the number of children who are eligible but not served by HS (32,291). The number of eligible students includes all ECEAP students; http://www.del.wa.gov/publications/partnerships/docs/ECEAP_HS_Profile_2012.pdf.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the "break-even" point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	Primary or secondary participant	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
				First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated				
				ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age	ES	p-value
Crime	Primary	2	517	-0.183	0.270	21	-0.183	0.270	31	-0.183	0.497
High school graduation	Primary	2	517	0.181	0.077	18	0.181	0.077	18	0.181	0.018
K-12 grade repetition	Primary	5	1738	-0.075	0.133	12	-0.075	0.133	12	-0.075	0.572
Teen births under age 18	Primary	1	327	-0.466	0.292	19	-0.466	0.292	19	-0.466	0.111
Test scores	Primary	7	4750	0.172	0.027	4	0.036	0.006	17	0.172	0.001
Teen births (second generation)	Secondary	1	327	-0.466	0.292	19	-0.466	0.292	19	-0.466	0.111

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Abbott-Shim, M., Lambert, R. & McCarty, F. (2003). A comparison of school readiness outcomes for children randomly assigned to a Head Start program and the program's wait list. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, 8(2), 191- 214.
- Aughinbaugh, A. (2001). Does Head Start yield long-term benefits? *The Journal of Human Resources*, 36(4), 641-665. Currie J., & Thomas, D. (1995). Does Head Start make a difference? *The American Economic Review*, 85(3), 341-364. Currie, J., & Thomas, D. (1999). Does Head Start help Hispanic children? *Journal of Public Economics*, 74(2), 235-262.
- Deming, D. (2009). Early childhood intervention and life-cycle skill development: Evidence from Head Start. *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, 7(3), 111-134.
- Garces, E., Thomas, D., & Currie, J. (2002). Longer-term effects of Head Start. *The American Economic Review*, 92(4), 999-1012.
- Lee, V.E., Brooks-Gunn, J., Schnur, E. (1988). Does Head Start work?: A 1-year follow-up comparison of disadvantaged children attending Head Start, no preschool, and other preschool programs. *Developmental Psychology*, 24(2), 210-222.
- Lee, V.E., Brooks-Gunn, J., Schnur, E., & Liaw, F.R. (1990). Are Head Start effects sustained? A longitudinal follow-up comparison of disadvantaged children attending Head Start, no preschool, and other preschool programs. *Child Development*, 61(2), 495-507.
- Puma, M., Bell, S., Cook, R., Heid, C., Shapiro, G., Broene, P., . . . Spier, E. (2010). *Head Start impact study: Final report*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.
- Roy, A. (2003). *Evaluation of the Head Start Program: Additional evidence from the NLSCM79 data* (Doctoral dissertation, University at Albany, State University of New York).
- Zhai, F., Brooks-Gunn, J., & Waldfogel, J. (2011). Head start and urban children's school readiness: A birth cohort study in 18 cities. *Developmental Psychology*, 47(1), 134-152.

Double-dose classes

Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated May 2015.

Program Description: Double dose classes are provided to middle and high school students struggling in reading or, more typically, math. Students participating in this intervention enroll in two reading or math classes instead of one, thus doubling their instructional time in these subjects.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$4,431	Benefit to cost ratio	\$32.86
Participants	\$8,448	Benefits minus costs	\$15,703
Others	\$3,299	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	\$19	benefits greater than the costs	98 %
Total benefits	\$16,196		
Net program cost	(\$493)		
Benefits minus cost	\$15,703		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Crime	\$0	\$24	\$59	\$12	\$95
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$8,587	\$3,899	\$3,793	\$0	\$16,279
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$139)	\$507	(\$553)	\$253	\$68
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$246)	(\$246)
Totals	\$8,448	\$4,431	\$3,299	\$19	\$16,196

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

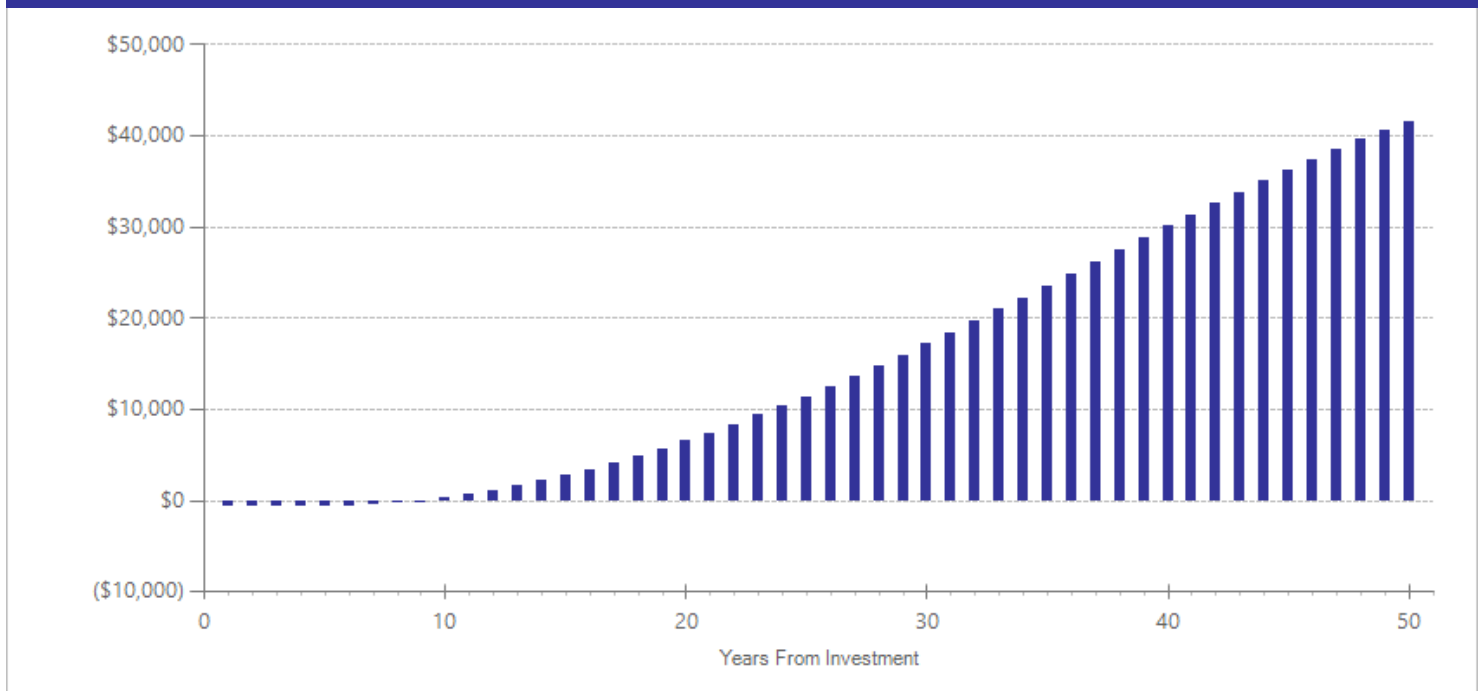
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$479	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$493)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

In the studies reviewed for this estimate, providing "double dose" classes required hiring approximately 15% more teachers to cover the additional classes (this figure accounts for a partial cost offset from hiring fewer elective course teachers). Teachers were provided with three days of professional development and curriculum materials for implementation. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we used average Washington State compensation costs (including benefits) for teachers as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction and add per-student curriculum and teacher training costs.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the "break-even" point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
High school graduation	2	10463	0.045	0.022	18	0.045	0.022	18	0.045	0.040
Test scores	5	30857	0.093	0.041	13	0.093	0.041	17	0.093	0.023

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Bartik, T.J., & Lachowska, M. (2014). *The effects of doubling instruction efforts on middle school students' achievement: Evidence from a multiyear regression-discontinuity design* (Working Paper 14-205). Kalamazoo, MI: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research.
- Cortes, K., Goodman, J., & Nomi, T. (2014). *Intensive math instruction and educational attainment: Long-run impacts of double-dose algebra* (Working Paper 20211). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Dougherty, S.M. (2015). Bridging the discontinuity in adolescent literacy?: Mixed evidence from a middle grades intervention. *Education, Finance, and Policy*, 10(2), 157-192.
- Fryer, R.G. (2011). *Injecting successful charter school strategies into traditional public schools: Early results from an experiment in Houston* (NBER Working Paper 17494). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Taylor, E. (2014). Spending more of the school day in math class: Evidence from a regression discontinuity in middle school. *Journal of Public Economics*, 117, 162-181.

Tutoring: By peers Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated July 2014.

Program Description: Generally, peer tutoring is an instructional strategy that uses students to provide academic assistance to struggling peers. Peer tutoring may use students from the same classrooms or pair older students with younger struggling students. Tutoring assistance can occur through one-on-one interactions or in small groups and in some instances students alternate between the role of tutor and tutee. The specific types of peer tutoring that have been evaluated and are included in this meta-analysis are (in no particular order) ClassWide Peer Tutoring, Peer-Assisted Learning Strategies, and Reciprocal Peer Tutoring. The evaluated tutoring programs in this analysis provide, on average, about 30 hours of peer tutoring time each year and about six hours of training time for teachers and students to learn program procedures.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$3,779	Benefit to cost ratio	\$130.41
Participants	\$7,837	Benefits minus costs	\$14,791
Others	\$3,283	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	\$7	benefits greater than the costs	82 %
Total benefits	\$14,905		
Net program cost	(\$114)		
Benefits minus cost	\$14,791		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$8,041	\$3,652	\$3,568	\$0	\$15,260
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$61)	\$223	(\$242)	\$111	\$31
Costs of higher education	(\$143)	(\$95)	(\$43)	(\$48)	(\$329)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$57)	(\$57)
Totals	\$7,837	\$3,779	\$3,283	\$7	\$14,905

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

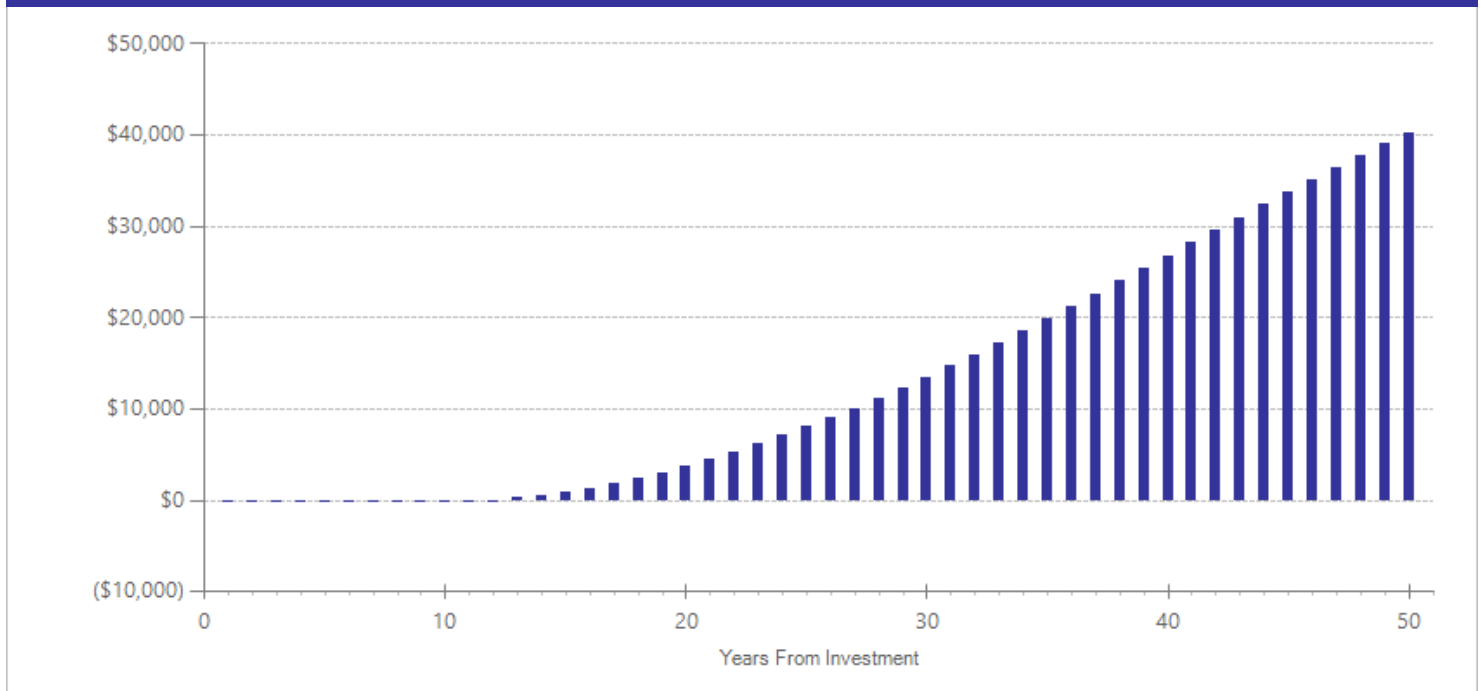
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$111	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$114)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

In the evaluations included in this meta-analysis, the average peer tutoring program provides 30 hours tutoring time and six hours of training time per class. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we used average Washington State compensation costs (including benefits) for a K-8 teacher as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, divided by the number of students per classroom in Washington's prototypical schools formula.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	8	400	0.159	0.090	9	0.095	0.099	17	0.334	0.002

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Dion, E., Roux, C., Landry, D., Fuchs, D., Wehby, J., & Dupere, V. (2011). Improving attention and preventing reading difficulties among low-income first-graders: A randomized study. *Prevention Science, 12*(1), 70-79.
- Fuchs, D., Fuchs, L. S., Mathes, P. G., & Simmons, D. C. (1997). Peer-assisted learning strategies: Making classrooms more responsive to diversity. *American Educational Research Journal, 34*(1), 174-206.
- Fuchs, L., Fuchs, D., & Kazdan, S. (1999). Effects of peer-assisted learning strategies on high school students with serious reading problems. *Remedial and Special Education, 20*(5), 309-318.
- Fuchs, L.S., Fuchs, D., Kazdan, S., & Allen, S. (1999). Effects of peer-assisted learning strategies in reading with and without training in elaborated help giving. *The Elementary School Journal, 99*(3), 201-219.
- Greenwood, C.R., & Terry, B. (1993). Achievement, placement, and services: Middle school benefits of classwide peer tutoring used at the elementary school. *School Psychology Review, 22*(3), 497-516.
- Lampert, K.C. (1983). The effects of inverse tutoring on reading disabled students in a public school setting. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 44*(03), 729A.
- Mathes, P.G., & Fuchs, L.S. (1993). Peer-mediated reading instruction in special education resource rooms. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice, 8*(4), 233-243.
- Trovato, J., & Bucher, B. (1980). Peer tutoring with or without home-based reinforcement, for reading remediation. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 13*(1), 129-41.

Case management in schools Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: Case management involves placing a full-time social worker or counselor in a school to help identify at-risk students' needs and connect students and families with relevant services in and outside of the K–12 system. Three such models have been evaluated and are included in this analysis are (in no particular order) Communities in Schools, City Connects, and Comer School Development Program. In practice, each of these models includes other services (such as extended learning time and educator training), but the program evaluations focus on the impact of the case management component.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$4,315	Benefit to cost ratio	\$64.07
Participants	\$7,475	Benefits minus costs	\$14,431
Others	\$2,714	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	\$156	benefits greater than the costs	96 %
Total benefits	\$14,660		
Net program cost	(\$229)		
Benefits minus cost	\$14,431		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Crime	\$0	\$30	\$68	\$15	\$113
Labor market earnings associated with high school graduation	\$8,309	\$3,773	\$3,802	\$0	\$15,884
K-12 grade repetition	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$0
K-12 special education	\$0	\$3	\$0	\$1	\$4
Property loss associated with alcohol abuse or dependence	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$0
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$246)	\$899	(\$980)	\$450	\$124
Costs of higher education	(\$588)	(\$390)	(\$176)	(\$196)	(\$1,350)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$115)	(\$115)
Totals	\$7,475	\$4,315	\$2,714	\$156	\$14,660

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

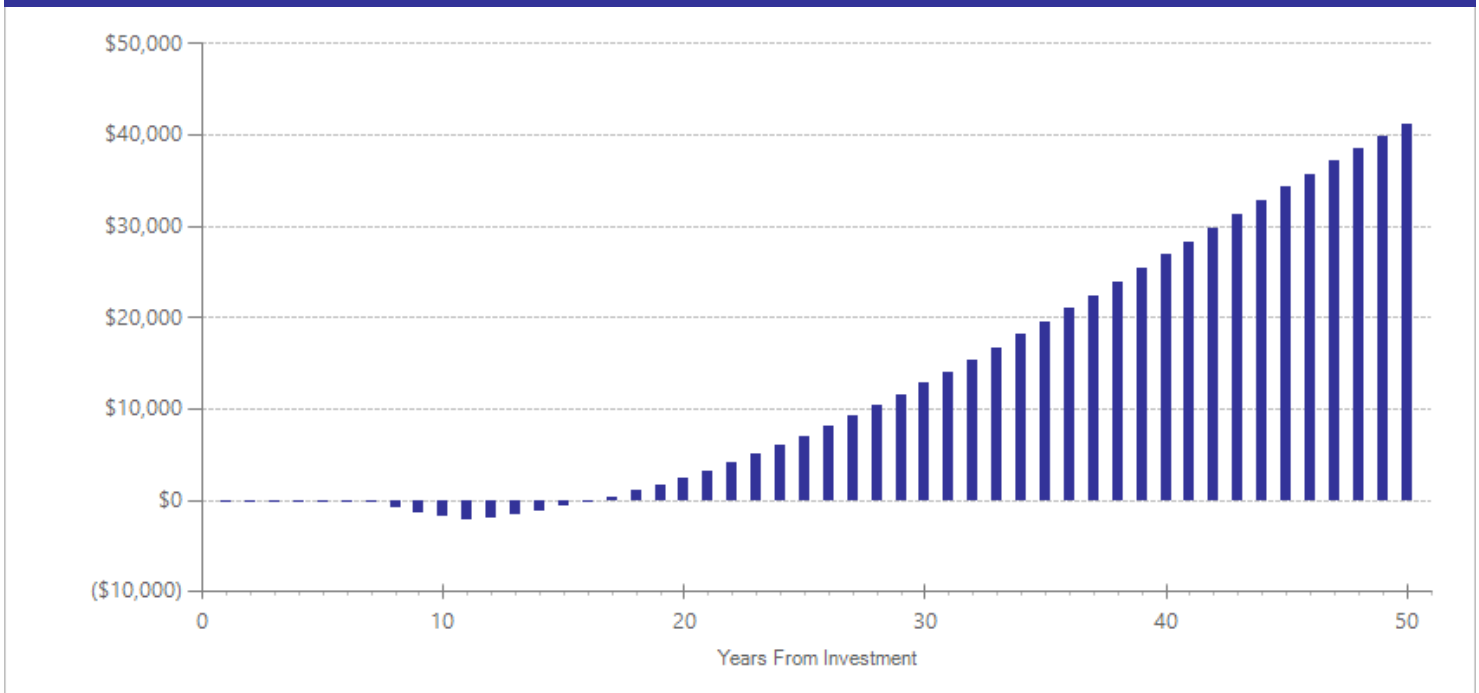
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$222	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$229)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

To calculate a per-student annual cost, we used average compensation costs (including benefits) for a social worker as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, divided by the number of students in a prototypical elementary school. The estimate also includes a half-hour of principal and administrative support time per week.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Alcohol use before end of middle school	3	6199	0.002	0.085	12	0.002	0.085	12	0.032	0.705
Cannabis use before end of middle school	3	6199	0.001	0.085	12	0.001	0.085	12	0.013	0.880
Externalizing behavior symptoms	1	573	-0.016	0.161	12	-0.008	0.083	15	-0.325	0.044
Grade point average [^]	7	7448	0.113	0.037	12	0.115	0.148	13	0.097	0.328
High school graduation	3	1335	0.109	0.059	18	0.109	0.059	18	0.215	0.191
Illicit drug use before end of middle school	4	6772	-0.002	0.075	12	-0.002	0.075	12	-0.034	0.654
Internalizing symptoms	4	6772	-0.002	0.075	12	-0.001	0.055	14	-0.030	0.686
Office discipline referrals [^]	3	252	0.194	0.149	12	0.141	0.162	13	0.194	0.192
School attendance [^]	6	8095	-0.007	0.042	12	0.002	0.054	13	-0.007	0.867
Smoking before end of middle school	3	6199	0.001	0.085	12	0.001	0.085	12	0.015	0.862
Suspensions/expulsions [^]	4	1321	-0.025	0.110	12	-0.025	0.110	12	-0.025	0.819
Test scores	11	8553	0.026	0.026	12	0.020	0.028	17	0.061	0.018

[^]WSIPP's benefit-cost model does not monetize this outcome.

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Cook, T.D., Phillips, M., Settersten, R.A., Shagle, S.C., Degirmencioglu, S.M., & Habib, F.N. (1999). Comer's School Development Program in Prince George's County, Maryland: A theory-based evaluation. *American Educational Research Journal*, 36(3), 543-597.
- Cook, T.D., Murphy, R.F., & Hunt, H.D. (2000). Comer's school development program in Chicago: A theory-based evaluation. *American Educational Research Journal*, 37(2), 535-597.
- Corrin, W., Parise, L., Cerna, O., Haider, Z., and Somers, M.A. (2015). *Case management for students at risk of dropping out: Implementation and interim impact findings from the Communities in Schools Evaluation*. New York: MDRC.
- ICF International. (2008). *Communities in Schools National Evaluation, Volume 1: School-level report*. Retrieved from http://www.communitiesinschools.org/media/uploads/attachments/CIS_School_Level_Report_Volume_1.pdf.
- ICF International. (2010). *Communities in Schools National Evaluation Volume 6: Randomized Controlled Trial Study*, Wichita, Kansas. [Http://www.communitiesinschools.org/media/uploads/attachments/CIS_RCT_Study_Wichita_Volume_6.pdf](http://www.communitiesinschools.org/media/uploads/attachments/CIS_RCT_Study_Wichita_Volume_6.pdf)
- ICF International. (2010). *Communities in Schools National Evaluation Volume 4: Randomized Controlled Trial Study*, Jacksonville, Florida. [Http://www.communitiesinschools.org/media/uploads/attachments/CIS_RCT_Study_Jacksonville_Volume_4.pdf](http://www.communitiesinschools.org/media/uploads/attachments/CIS_RCT_Study_Jacksonville_Volume_4.pdf)
- ICF International. (2010). *Communities in Schools National Evaluation Volume 5: Randomized Controlled Trial Study*, Austin, Texas. [Http://www.communitiesinschools.org/media/uploads/attachments/CIS_RCT_Study_Austin_Volume_5_final.pdf](http://www.communitiesinschools.org/media/uploads/attachments/CIS_RCT_Study_Austin_Volume_5_final.pdf)
- Walsh, M., Foley, C., Denny, B.R., Lindsay, L., Coyle, J., & Howard, M. (2012). *The impact of City Connects* (Progress report 2012). Boston: Boston College Center for Optimized Student Support

Walsh, M., Foley, C., Denny, B.R., Lindsay, L., Coyle, J., & Howard, M. (2011). *The impact of City Connects* (Annual report 2011). Boston: Boston College Center for Optimized Student Support

Summer book programs: Multi-year intervention Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated February 2018.

Program Description: The summer book program included in this analysis provides 12 free books to elementary students each year for three consecutive years. The program focuses on early elementary students in 1st and 2nd grade. The main goal is to increase book access and voluntary summer reading for children from low-income families. Students self-select books each year at a book fair. The available books are screened for text difficulty. The studies included in this analysis measure the program's impact after three years.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$3,541	Benefit to cost ratio	\$63.90
Participants	\$7,350	Benefits minus costs	\$13,703
Others	\$3,080	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$50)	benefits greater than the costs	70 %
Total benefits	\$13,921		
Net program cost	(\$218)		
Benefits minus cost	\$13,703		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$7,543	\$3,425	\$3,346	\$0	\$14,314
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$56)	\$206	(\$225)	\$102	\$26
Costs of higher education	(\$136)	(\$90)	(\$41)	(\$45)	(\$312)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$108)	(\$108)
Totals	\$7,350	\$3,541	\$3,080	(\$50)	\$13,921

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

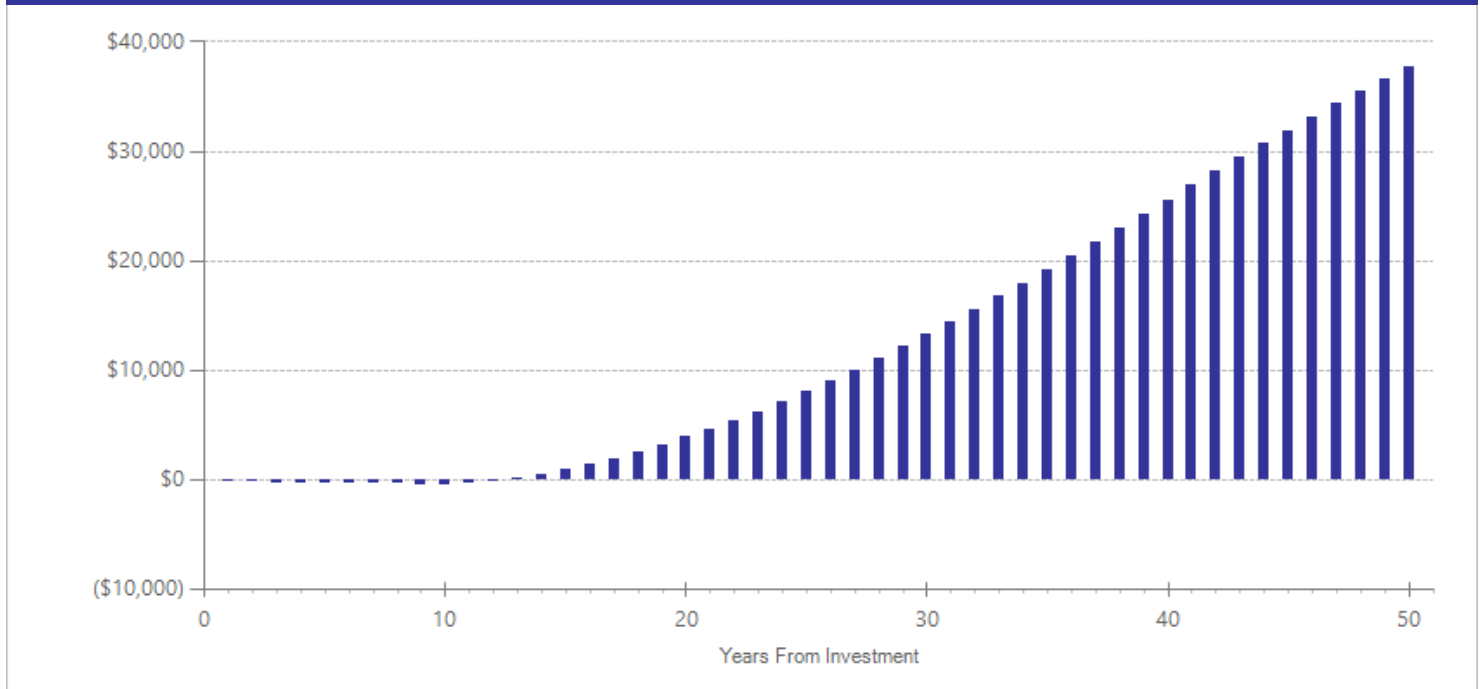
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$73	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$218)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

These multi-year interventions typically run for three years. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we use average Washington State compensation costs (including benefits) for a K–8 teacher as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction to account for the time it takes teachers to administer the program divided by the average number of students per classroom in Washington's prototypical schools formula. In addition to compensation, the estimate accounts for the cost of purchasing 12 books per student each year.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	1	852	0.138	0.147	10	0.091	0.162	17	0.138	0.346

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

Allington, R.L., McGill-Franzen, A., Camilli, G., Williams, L., Graff, J., Zeig, J., . . . Nowak, R. (2010). Addressing summer reading setback among economically disadvantaged elementary students. *Reading Psychology, 31*(5), 411-27.

Tutoring: By adults for English language learner students

Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated July 2014.

Program Description: In this analysis, we include studies that compared one-on-one tutoring programs for English Language Learner (ELL) students, with regular classroom reading instruction without supplemental tutoring.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$4,041	Benefit to cost ratio	\$10.35
Participants	\$8,303	Benefits minus costs	\$13,595
Others	\$3,355	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$650)	benefits greater than the costs	69 %
Total benefits	\$15,049		
Net program cost	(\$1,453)		
Benefits minus cost	\$13,595		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$8,571	\$3,892	\$3,795	\$0	\$16,258
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$96)	\$353	(\$384)	\$175	\$48
Costs of higher education	(\$172)	(\$204)	(\$56)	(\$101)	(\$534)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$724)	(\$724)
Totals	\$8,303	\$4,041	\$3,355	(\$650)	\$15,049

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

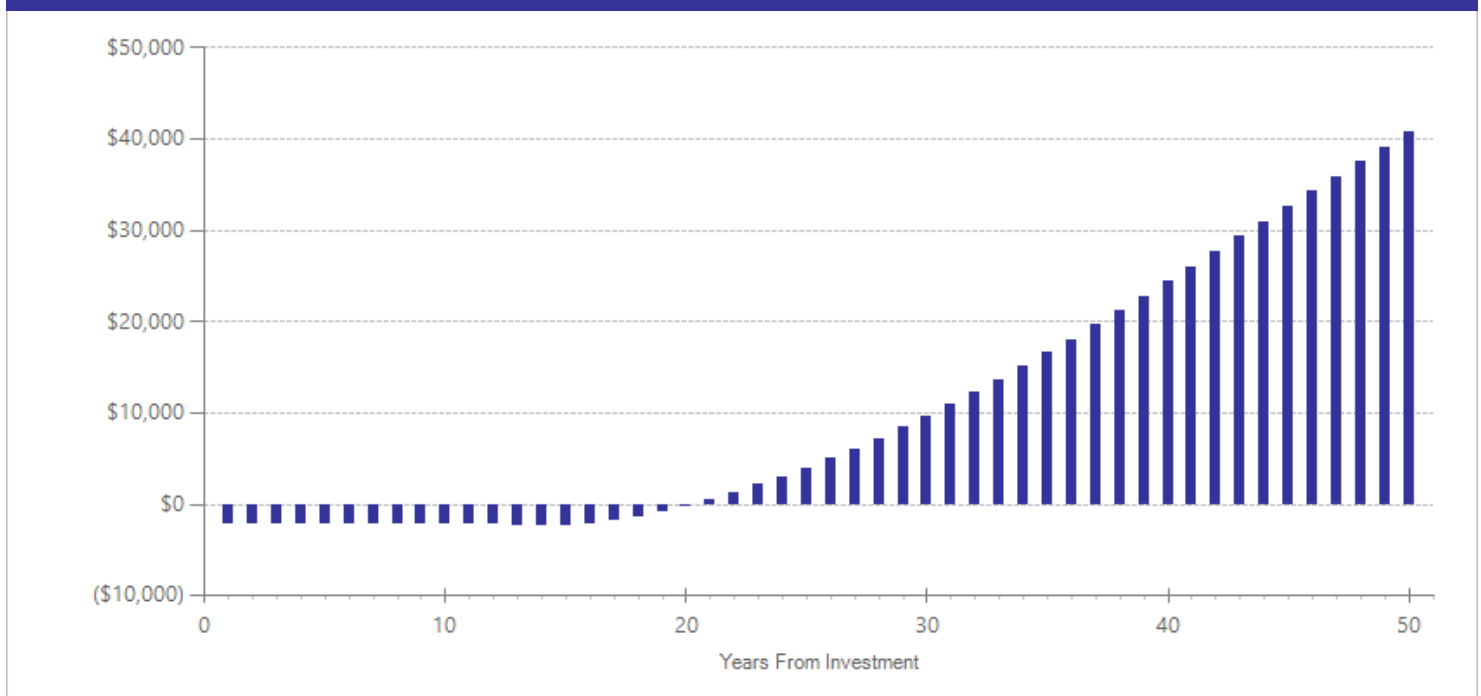
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$2,612	2009	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$1,453)
Comparison costs	\$1,298	2009	Cost range (+ or -)	20 %

Per-participant cost estimates are based on the following assumptions derived from the programs described in the studies included in the meta-analysis: on average, the programs lasted for 4.5 months, with 60 tutoring sessions of about 25 minutes each. The programs provided one to three hours of teacher training. We used average teacher salaries (including benefits) in Washington State to compute the value of tutors' time. We assumed that tutoring costs are in addition to regular classroom instruction, for which the cost estimate reflects the sum of local, state, and federal dollars allocated per-student (averaged across Washington State school districts) for the 2008-09 school year. We estimated the uncertainty around the cost estimate at 20%. Source for dollars allocated per student from Washington's Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the "break-even" point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	4	114	0.155	0.163	10	0.102	0.179	17	0.183	0.264

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Calhoon, M.B., Al Otaiba, S., Cihak, D., King, A., & Avalos, A. (2007). Effects of a peer-mediated program on reading skill acquisition for two-way bilingual first-grade classrooms. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 30*(3), 169-184.
- Denton, C.A., Anthony, J. L., Parker, R., & Hasbrouck, J. E. (2004). Effects of two tutoring programs on the English reading development of Spanish-English bilingual students. *The Elementary School Journal, 104*(4), 289-305.
- Kemp, S.C. (2006). Teaching to Read Naturally: Examination of a fluency training program for third grade students. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 67*(07A), 2447A.

Teacher professional development: Use of data to guide instruction

Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: One form of teacher professional development (PD) involves training teachers how to use student academic assessment data to modify and improve instruction. This type of PD is usually paired with computer software that tracks and reports student assessment data to teachers. The specific types of assessments and software that have been evaluated and are included in this meta-analysis are (in no particular order) ISI (Individualized Student Instruction) using A2i software, Data-Driven District (3D), mCLASS/Acuity, Looking at Student Work, Formative Assessments of Student Thinking in Reading (FAST-R), and 4sight.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$3,423	Benefit to cost ratio	\$122.55
Participants	\$7,102	Benefits minus costs	\$13,383
Others	\$2,966	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	\$2	benefits greater than the costs	98 %
Total benefits	\$13,493		
Net program cost	(\$110)		
Benefits minus cost	\$13,383		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$7,286	\$3,309	\$3,222	\$0	\$13,817
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$55)	\$200	(\$218)	\$99	\$27
Costs of higher education	(\$129)	(\$86)	(\$39)	(\$43)	(\$296)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$55)	(\$55)
Totals	\$7,102	\$3,423	\$2,966	\$2	\$13,493

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

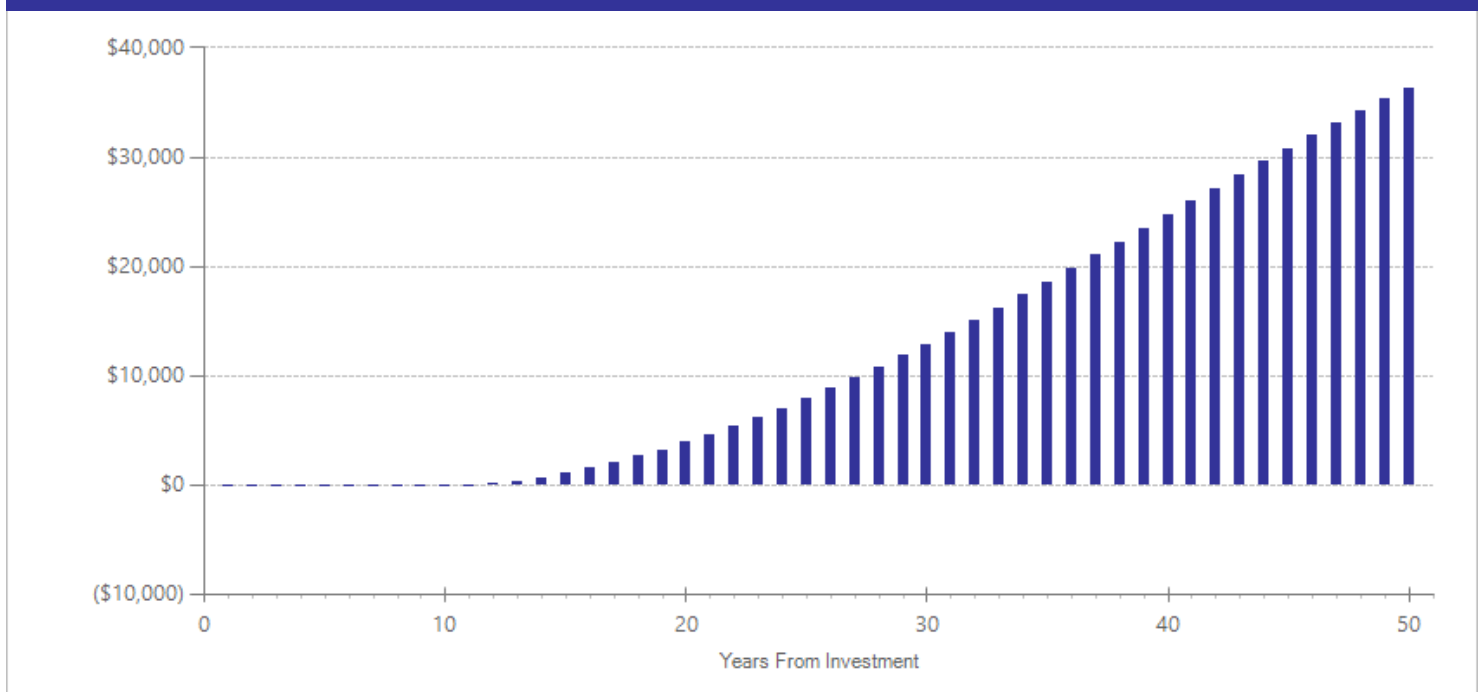
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$107	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$110)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

In the evaluations included in the meta-analysis, teachers received an average of 26 hours of training in how to use student assessment data to guide instruction. We calculated the value of PD time using average teacher salaries (including benefits) in Washington State as reported by the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we divided compensation costs by the number of students per classroom in Washington's prototypical schools formula and add per-student materials, supplies, and operating costs to account for the overhead (i.e. facility, computer, and administrative costs) associated with providing PD.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	10	10541	0.117	0.035	11	0.084	0.038	17	0.190	0.001

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Al Otaiba, S., Connor, C.M., Folsom, J.S., Greulich, L., Meadows, J., & Li, Z. (2011). Assessment data-informed guidance to individualize kindergarten reading instruction: Findings from a cluster-randomized control field trial. *The Elementary School Journal*, 111(4), 535-560.
- Connor, C.M., Morrison, F.J., Fishman, B.J., Schatschneider, C., & Underwood, P. (2007). The early years. Algorithm-guided individualized reading instruction. *Science*, 315(5811), 464-5.
- Fuchs, L.S., Fuchs, D., Karns, K., Hamlett, C.L., & Katzaroff, M. (1999). Mathematics performance assessment in the classroom: Effects on teacher planning and student problem solving. *American Educational Research Journal*, 36(3), 609-646.
- Heller, J.I., Daehler, K.R., Wong, N., Shinohara, M., & Miratrix, L.W. (2012). Differential effects of three professional development models on teacher knowledge and student achievement in elementary science. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 49(3), 333-362.
- Konstantopoulos, S., Miller, S.R., & van der Ploeg, A. (2013). The impact of Indiana's system of interim assessments on mathematics and reading achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 35(4), 481-499.
- Quint, J.C., Sepanik, S., & Smith, J.K. (2008). *Using student data to improve teaching and learning: Findings from an evaluation of the Formative Assessments of Students Thinking in Reading (FAST-R) Program in Boston elementary schools*. New York: MDRC.
- Slavin, R.E., Cheung, A., Holmes, G.C., Madden, N.A., & Chamberlain, A. (2013). Effects of a data-driven district reform model on state assessment outcomes. *American Educational Research Journal*, 50(2), 371-396.
- Tyler, J.H. (2013). If you build it will they come? Teachers' online use of student performance data. *Education Finance and Policy*, 8(2), 168-207.

Tutoring: By certificated teachers, small-group, structured Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: The programs included in this analysis are structured, systematic approaches to tutoring small-groups of struggling students in grades K–6 in specific English language arts and/or mathematics skills. The evaluated programs include a variety of specific approaches and curricula such as (in no particular order) Read Aloud, Proactive Reading, Responsive Reading, Leveled Literacy, Spell Read, Corrective Reading, and Number Rockets. An average program provides about 40 hours of tutoring time to groups of two to six (usually three) early elementary students. Certificated teachers provide tutoring and receive about 35 hours of training with a focus on the specific content and strategies used in the programs.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$3,773	Benefit to cost ratio	\$9.82
Participants	\$7,822	Benefits minus costs	\$12,767
Others	\$3,273	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$655)	benefits greater than the costs	96 %
Total benefits	\$14,213		
Net program cost	(\$1,447)		
Benefits minus cost	\$12,767		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$8,021	\$3,643	\$3,556	\$0	\$15,220
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$61)	\$223	(\$242)	\$111	\$31
Costs of higher education	(\$138)	(\$92)	(\$41)	(\$46)	(\$317)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$720)	(\$720)
Totals	\$7,822	\$3,773	\$3,273	(\$655)	\$14,213

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²“Others” includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³“Indirect benefits” includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

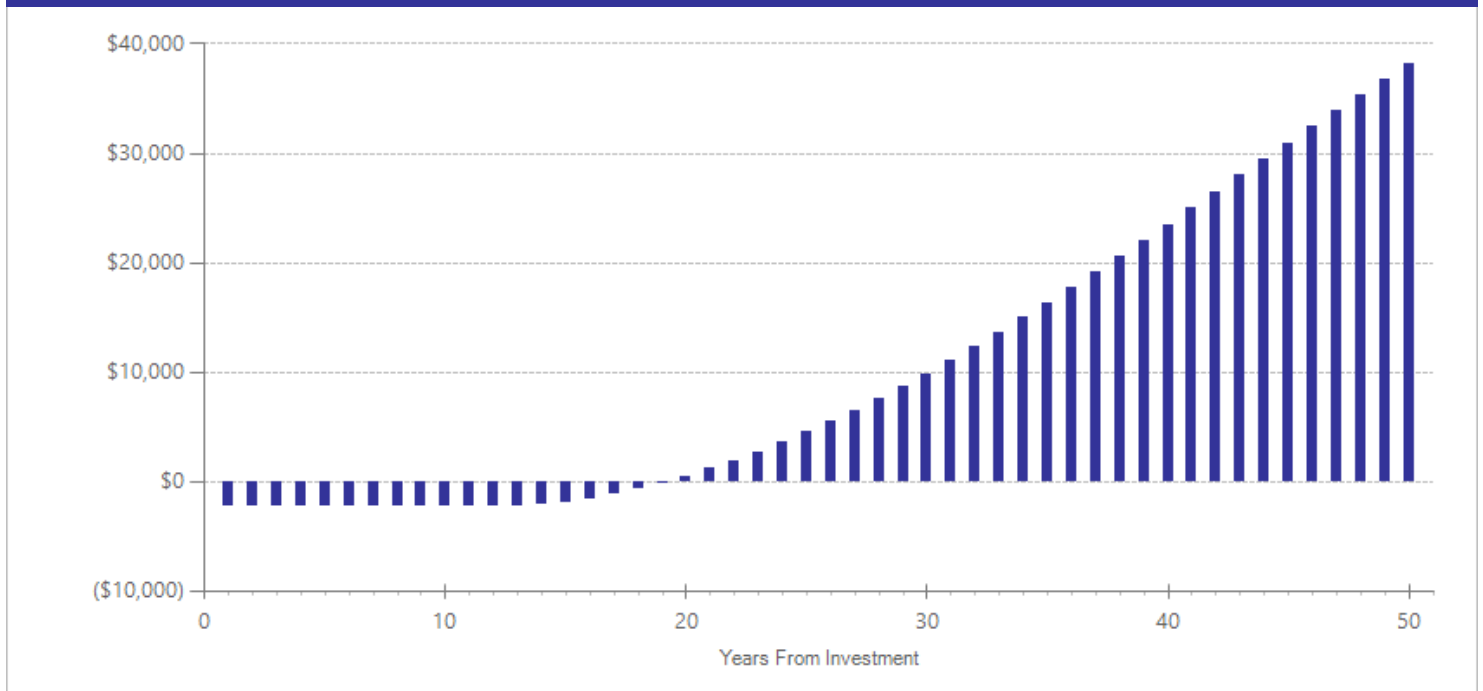
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$1,406	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$1,447)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

In the evaluations included in this meta-analysis, a certificated teacher provides, on average, 40 hours of tutoring to nine students per year in groups of three and receives 35 hours of training. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we used average Washington State compensation costs (including benefits) for a K-8 teacher as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, divided by the total number of students served.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	14	1649	0.209	0.039	7	0.098	0.043	17	0.254	0.001

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Fien, H., Santoro, L., Baker, S.K., Park, Y., Chard, D. J., Williams, S., & Haria, P. (2011). Enhancing teacher read alouds with small-group vocabulary instruction for students with low vocabulary in first-grade classrooms. *School Psychology Review, 40*(2), 307-318.
- Kerins, M.R., Trotter, D., & Schoenbrodt, L. (2010). Effects of a tier 2 intervention on literacy measures: Lessons learned. *Child Language Teaching and Therapy, 26*(3), 287-302.
- Lennon, J.E., & Slesinski, C. (1999). Early intervention in reading: Results of a screening and intervention program for kindergarten students. *School Psychology Review, 28*(3), 353-364.
- Mathes, P.G., Denton, C., Anthony, J., Francis, D., & Schatschneider, C. (2005). The effects of theoretically different instruction and student characteristics on the skills of struggling readers. *Reading Research Quarterly, 40*(2), 148-182.
- Pinnell, G.S., Lyons, C.A., DeFord, D.E., Bryk, A.S., & Seltzer, M. (1994). Comparing instructional models for the literacy education of high-risk first graders. *Reading Research Quarterly, 29*(1), 9-39.
- Ransford-Kaldon, C.R., Flynt, E.S., Ross, C.L., Franceschini, L., Zoblotzky, T., Huang, Y., & Gallagher, B. (2010). *Implementation of effective intervention: An empirical study to evaluate the efficacy of Fountas & Pinnell's Leveled Literacy Intervention (LLI) 2009-2010*. Memphis, TN: University of Memphis, Center for Research in Education Policy.
- Rashotte, C.A., MacPhee, K., & Torgesen, J.K. (2001). The effectiveness of a group reading instruction program with poor readers in multiple grades. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 24*(2), 119-134.
- Rolfhus, E., Gersten, R., Clarke, B., Decker, L.E., Wilkins, C., & Dimino, J. (2012). *An Evaluation of Number Rockets: A tier-2 intervention for grade 1 students at risk for difficulties in mathematics* Final Report (NCEE 2012-4007). Washington DC: U.S. Department of Education, Institute for Education Sciences, National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance.
- Torgesen, J.K., Wagner, R.K., Rashotte, C.A., Herron, J., & Lindamood, P. (2010). Computer-assisted instruction to prevent early reading difficulties in students at risk for dyslexia: Outcomes from two instructional approaches. *Annals of Dyslexia, 60*(1), 40-56.
- Torgesen, J., Schirm, A., Castner, L., Vartivarian, S., Mansfield, W., Myers, D. . . . Haan, C. (2007). National assessment of Title I final report: Volume II: Closing the reading gap: Findings from a randomized trial of four reading interventions for striving readers (NCEE 2008-4013). Washington DC: U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance.

Consultant teachers: Online coaching Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: Online coaching programs provide professional development support and feedback to classroom teachers in a web-based environment. The program included in this analysis (My Teaching Partner—Secondary) provides teachers with feedback and guidance on methods to improve their interactions with students. In the online coaching program, teachers upload video recordings of class sessions twice per month. Trained teacher consultants review the recordings and provide feedback to teachers online and over the phone.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$3,122	Benefit to cost ratio	\$61.94
Participants	\$6,489	Benefits minus costs	\$12,090
Others	\$2,727	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$50)	benefits greater than the costs	92 %
Total benefits	\$12,288		
Net program cost	(\$198)		
Benefits minus cost	\$12,090		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$6,659	\$3,024	\$2,959	\$0	\$12,642
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$49)	\$179	(\$195)	\$90	\$24
Costs of higher education	(\$121)	(\$80)	(\$36)	(\$40)	(\$278)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$100)	(\$100)
Totals	\$6,489	\$3,122	\$2,727	(\$50)	\$12,288

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

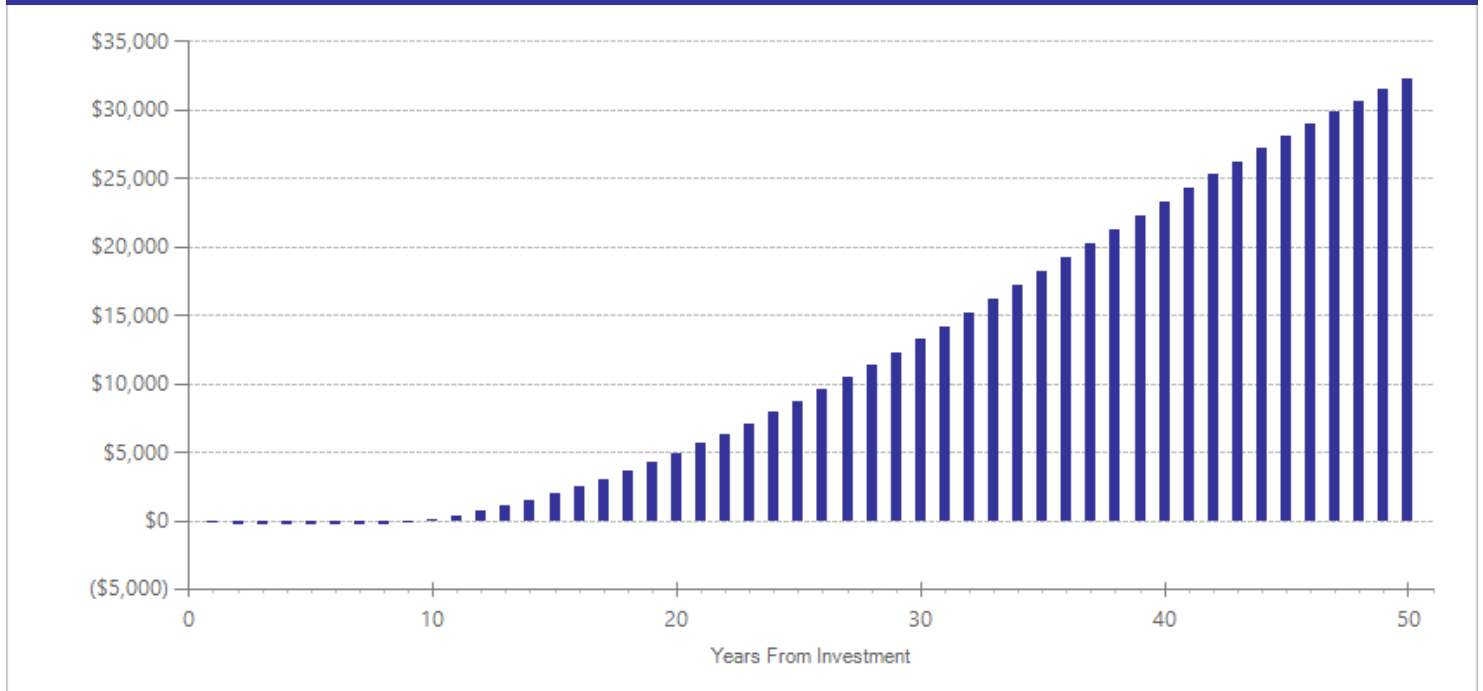
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$98	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$198)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

In the evaluation included this analysis, teachers participated in an average of 20 hours of training and coaching time. We calculated the value of staff time using average Washington State compensation costs (including benefits) for teachers as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. We added additional costs reported in the evaluation to account for consultant time and video equipment. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we used the average number of students per classroom in Washington's prototypical schools formula.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	2	1078	0.082	0.043	14	0.071	0.048	17	0.190	0.001

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Allen, J.P., Mikami, A.Y., Pianta, R.C., Gregory, A., & Lun, J. (2011). An interaction-based approach to enhancing secondary school instruction and student achievement. *Science*, 333(6045), 1034-1037.
- Allen, J.P., Hafen, C.A., Gregory, A.C., Mikami, A.Y., & Pianta, R. (2015). Enhancing secondary school instruction and student achievement: Replication and extension of the My Teaching Partner-Secondary intervention. *Journal of Research on Educational Effectiveness*, 8(4), 475-489.

Tutoring: By adults, one-on-one, structured Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: The programs included in this analysis are structured, systematic approaches to tutoring struggling students in specific English language arts and/or mathematics skills. They include a variety of specific programs and curricula such as (in no particular order) Reading Recovery, Mathematics Recovery, Edmark Reading Program, Howard Street Tutoring, and Early Intervention Program. The programs typically serve early elementary school students and provide, on average, about 30 hours of tutoring time to an individual student each year. Tutors are typically certificated teachers or specially trained adults (e.g. instructional aides and community volunteers). Tutors receive approximately ten hours of training per year with a focus on the specific content and general tutoring strategies.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$3,806	Benefit to cost ratio	\$5.88
Participants	\$7,887	Benefits minus costs	\$11,508
Others	\$3,289	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$1,115)	benefits greater than the costs	94 %
Total benefits	\$13,866		
Net program cost	(\$2,359)		
Benefits minus cost	\$11,508		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$8,090	\$3,674	\$3,577	\$0	\$15,341
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$62)	\$226	(\$245)	\$113	\$32
Costs of higher education	(\$142)	(\$94)	(\$42)	(\$47)	(\$325)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$1,181)	(\$1,181)
Totals	\$7,887	\$3,806	\$3,289	(\$1,115)	\$13,866

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

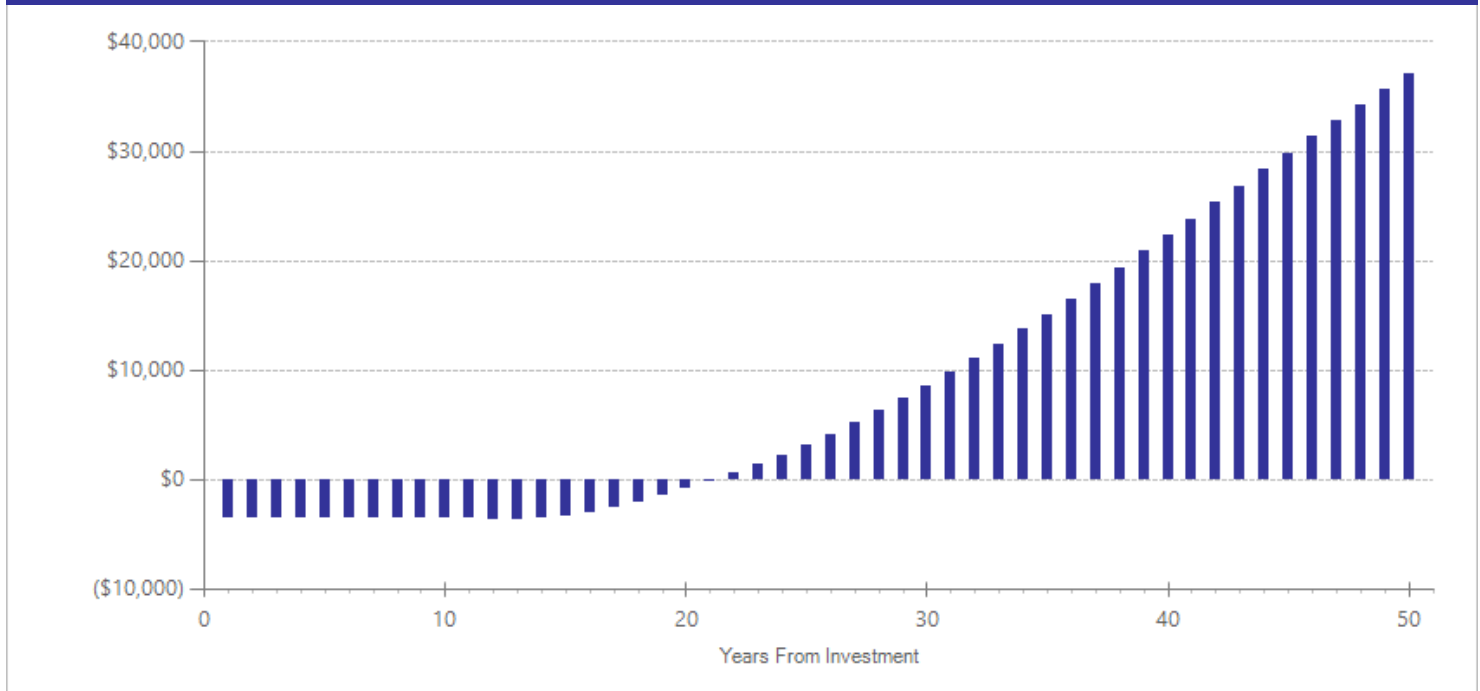
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$2,291	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$2,359)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

In the evaluations included in the meta-analysis, the average structured one-on-one tutoring program provides 30 hours of intervention per student and ten hours of training time per tutor. The estimates assume that both certificated teachers and other adults (e.g. instructional aides) provide tutoring. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we used average Washington State compensation costs (including benefits) for K-8 teachers and instructional aides as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	23	2097	0.211	0.038	7	0.099	0.042	17	0.508	0.001

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Allor, J., & McCathren, R. (2004). The efficacy of an early literacy tutoring program implemented by college students. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice, 19*(2), 116-129.
- Fuchs, L.S., Geary, D.C., Compton, D.L., Fuchs, D., Schatschneider, C., Hamlett, C. L., . . . Chngas, P. (2013). Effects of first-grade number knowledge tutoring with contrasting forms of practice. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 105*(1), 58-77.
- Iversen, S., & Tunmer, W. E. (1993). Phonological processing skills and the Reading Recovery program. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 85*(1), 112-126.
- Jacob, R.T., Smith, T.J., Willard, J.A., and & Rifkin, R.E. (2014). *Reading Partners: The implementation and effectiveness of a one-on-one tutoring program delivered by community volunteers* (MDRC Policy Brief). New York: MDRC.
- Mantzicopoulos, P., Morrison, D., Stone, E., & Setrakian, W. (1992). Use of the SEARCH/TEACH tutoring approach with middle-class students at risk for reading failure. *Elementary School Journal, 92*(5), 573-586.
- Mayfield, L.G. (2000). The effects of structured one-on-one tutoring in sight word recognition of first-grade students at-risk for reading failure. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 61*(02), 481A.
- McCarthy, P., Newby, R.F., & Recht, D.R. (1995). Results of an early intervention program for first grade children at risk for reading disability. *Reading Research and Instruction, 34*(4), 273-294.
- Morris, D., Shaw, B., & Perney, J. (1990). Helping low readers in grades 2 and 3: An after-school volunteer tutoring program. *Elementary School Journal, 91*(2), 133-150.
- Mostow, J., Aist, G., Burkhead, P., Corbett, A., Cuneo, A., Eitelman, S., . . . Tobin, B. (2003). Evaluation of an automated reading tutor that listens: Comparison to human tutoring and classroom instruction. *Journal of Educational Computing Research, 29*(1), 61-117.
- Nielson, B.B. (1992). Effects of parent and volunteer tutoring on reading achievement of third grade at-risk students. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 52*(10), 3570A.
- Pinnell, G.S., DeFord, D.E., & Lyons, C.A. (1988). *Reading recovery: Early intervention for at-risk first graders*. Arlington, VA: Educational Research Service. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 303790)
- Pinnell, G.S., Lyons, C.A., DeFord, D.E., Bryk, A.S., & Seltzer, M. (1994). Comparing instructional models for the literacy education of high-risk first graders. *Reading Research Quarterly, 29*(1), 9-39.
- Pullen, P.C., Lane, H.B., & Monaghan, M.C. (2004). Effects of a volunteer tutoring model on the early literacy development of struggling first grade students. *Reading Research and Instruction, 43*(4), 21-40.
- Rodick, J.D., & Henggeler, S.W. (1980). The short-term and long-term amelioration of academic and motivational deficiencies among low-achieving inner-city adolescents. *Child Development, 51*(4), 1126-1132.
- Schwartz, R.M. (2005). Literacy learning of at-risk first-grade students in the reading recovery early intervention. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 97*(2), 257-267.
- Smith, T.M., Cobb, P., Farran, D.C., Cordray, D.S., & Munter, C. (2013). Evaluating math recovery: Assessing the causal impact of a diagnostic tutoring program on student achievement. *American Educational Research Journal, 50*(2), 397-428.
- Vadasy, P.F., Jenkins, J.R., Antil, L.R., Wayne, S.K., & O'Connor, R.E. (1997). The effectiveness of one-to-one tutoring by community tutors for at-risk beginning readers. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 20*(2), 126-139.
- Vadasy, P.F., Jenkins, J.R., & Pool, K. (2000). Effects of tutoring in phonological and early reading skills on students at risk for reading disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 33*(6), 579-590.
- Vadasy, P.F., Sanders, E.A., & Tudor, S. (2007). Effectiveness of paraeducator-supplemented individual instruction: Beyond basic decoding skills. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 40*(6), 508-525.

Project Lead The Way (PLTW)

Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated September 2014.

Program Description: Project Lead the Way (PLTW) is an example of project-based learning focused on science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) education. PLTW is a nonprofit organization that develops engineering courses for high schools and middle schools and biomedical sciences courses for high schools. The curriculum is delivered through an online “virtual academy.” Computer software and classroom materials for hands-on activities, as well as required teacher training, are the main costs related to the program. We present the findings for math scores here.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$3,530	Benefit to cost ratio	\$7.30
Participants	\$7,331	Benefits minus costs	\$11,309
Others	\$3,084	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$842)	benefits greater than the costs	82 %
Total benefits	\$13,104		
Net program cost	(\$1,795)		
Benefits minus cost	\$11,309		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$7,526	\$3,418	\$3,349	\$0	\$14,292
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$56)	\$204	(\$223)	\$103	\$28
Costs of higher education	(\$138)	(\$92)	(\$41)	(\$46)	(\$318)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$898)	(\$898)
Totals	\$7,331	\$3,530	\$3,084	(\$842)	\$13,104

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²“Others” includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³“Indirect benefits” includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

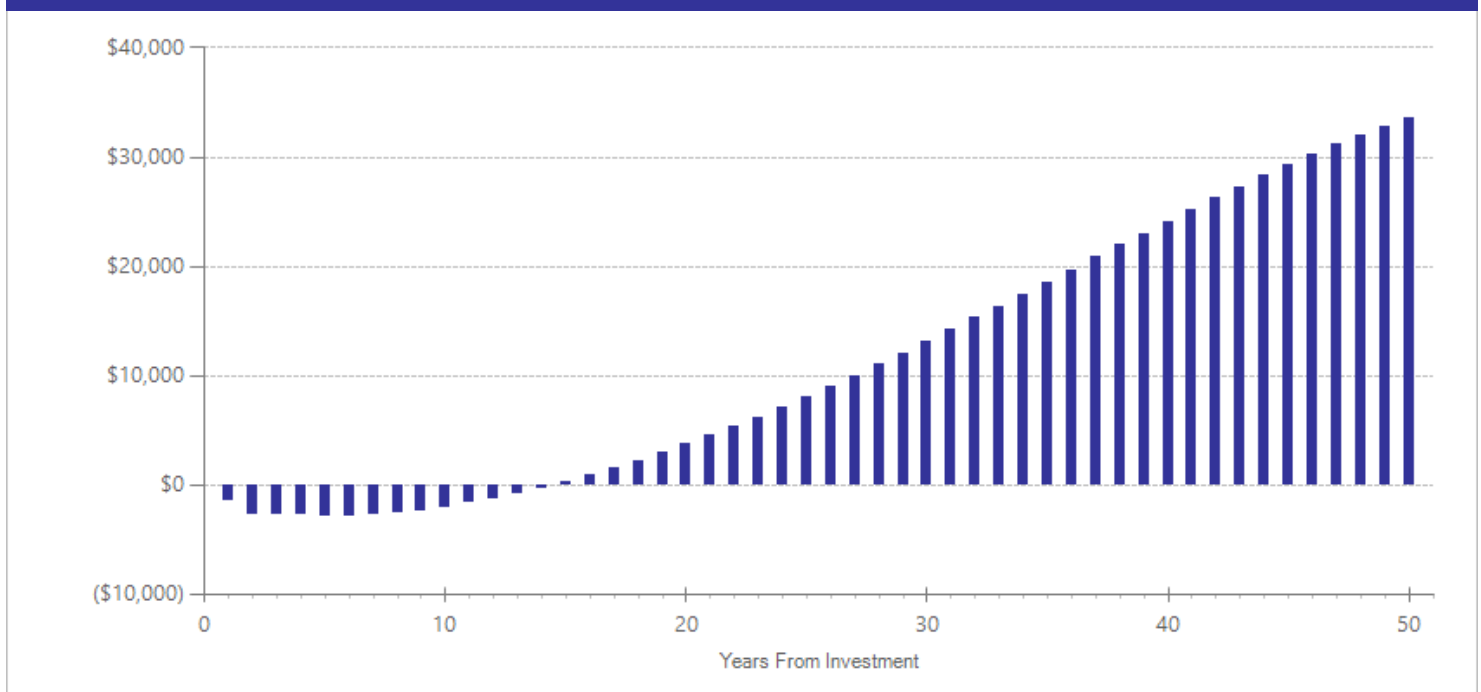
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$887	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$1,795)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

The per-student cost estimate assumes that a participating school would offer four sections of PLTW per year with no more than 20 students per class. Students in the evaluated studies typically participated for two years. We calculate the value of teacher time to participate in training and teach courses using average teacher salaries (including benefits) in Washington State as reported by the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction. The estimate includes an annual participation fee, training costs, and supply costs for course set-up and consumable materials obtained from PLTW (<https://www.pltw.org/get-involved/register-pltw/program-support/equipment-and-supplies>).

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	5	9319	0.084	0.060	16	0.081	0.066	17	0.084	0.160

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

Northwest Evaluation Association. (2010). *Project Lead the Way - Initial Program Evaluation*. Portland, OR.

Rethwisch, D.G., Haynes, M.C., Starobin, S.S., Laanan, F.S., & Schenk, J.T. (2012). Proceedings from Asee Annual Conference and Exposition. *A study of the impact of Project Lead the Way on achievement outcomes in Iowa*. San Antonio, TX.

Tran, N.A., & Nathan, M.J. (2010). Pre-college engineering studies: An investigation of the relationship between pre-college engineering studies and student achievement in science and mathematics. *Journal of Engineering Education*, 99(2): 143- 157.

Van Overschelde, J.P. (2013). *Project lead the way students more prepared for higher education*. San Marcos, TX: Texas State University.

Consultant teachers: Content-Focused Coaching Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated January 2018.

Program Description: Content-Focused Coaching is a professional development model that provides structured training to administrators, coaches, and teachers in order to improve instructional practices and student outcomes. The program provides training for school coaches and principals led by staff from the University of Pittsburgh's Institute for Learning. Coaches, in turn, provide professional development and one-on-one feedback to classroom teachers with a focus on specific reading comprehension strategies. The evaluation included in this analysis compared the effects of Content-Focused Coaching to coaching-as-usual.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$2,573	Benefit to cost ratio	\$173.17
Participants	\$5,340	Benefits minus costs	\$10,102
Others	\$2,234	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	\$13	benefits greater than the costs	94 %
Total benefits	\$10,161		
Net program cost	(\$59)		
Benefits minus cost	\$10,102		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$5,477	\$2,487	\$2,426	\$0	\$10,390
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$41)	\$150	(\$163)	\$74	\$20
Costs of higher education	(\$96)	(\$64)	(\$29)	(\$32)	(\$220)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$29)	(\$29)
Totals	\$5,340	\$2,573	\$2,234	\$13	\$10,161

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

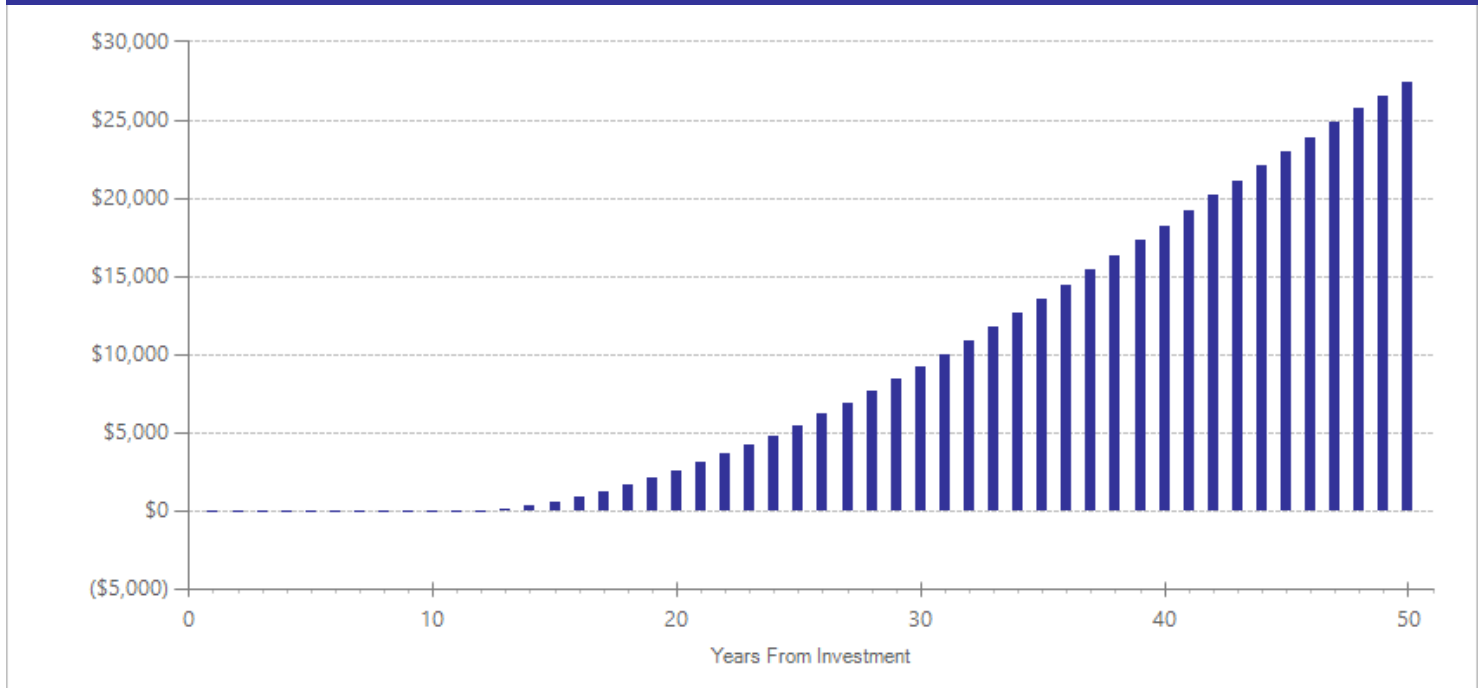
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$299	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$59)
Comparison costs	\$242	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

Content-Focused Coaching provides additional training time for principals, coaches, and teachers beyond the usual amount of time in other coaching programs. We calculated the cost of Content-Focused Coaching by adding this additional time to the WSIPP estimate for coaching-as-usual based on the framework described in Knight, D.S. (2012). Assessing the cost of instructional coaching. *Journal of Education Finance*, 38(1), 52-80. The estimate is based on one-full time coach per school at the average compensation cost (including benefits) for K-8 teachers as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. In addition, the estimate includes costs related to administrator time, materials, professional development, and classroom teacher time to work with coaches. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we used the average number of students per school in Washington's prototypical schools formula.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	1	1543	0.107	0.037	9	0.064	0.041	17	0.250	0.001

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

Matsumura, L.C., Garnier, H.E., & Spybrook, J. (2013). Literacy coaching to improve student reading achievement: A multi-level mediation model. *Learning and Instruction, 25*(1), 35-48.

Special literacy instruction for English language learner students

Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated July 2014.

Program Description: English-based literacy programs in these evaluations involve a structured, direct instruction approach to teaching reading to English language learner (ELL) students. Some programs include multimedia components such as computer-based instruction. These programs are compared with literacy instruction-as-usual after about three years of schooling. Instruction is provided in a classroom setting during the regular school day.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$2,615	Benefit to cost ratio	\$33.42
Participants	\$5,365	Benefits minus costs	\$9,748
Others	\$2,171	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$102)	benefits greater than the costs	80 %
Total benefits	\$10,049		
Net program cost	(\$301)		
Benefits minus cost	\$9,748		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$5,539	\$2,516	\$2,459	\$0	\$10,514
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$63)	\$231	(\$251)	\$115	\$32
Costs of higher education	(\$112)	(\$132)	(\$36)	(\$66)	(\$346)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$151)	(\$151)
Totals	\$5,365	\$2,615	\$2,171	(\$102)	\$10,049

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

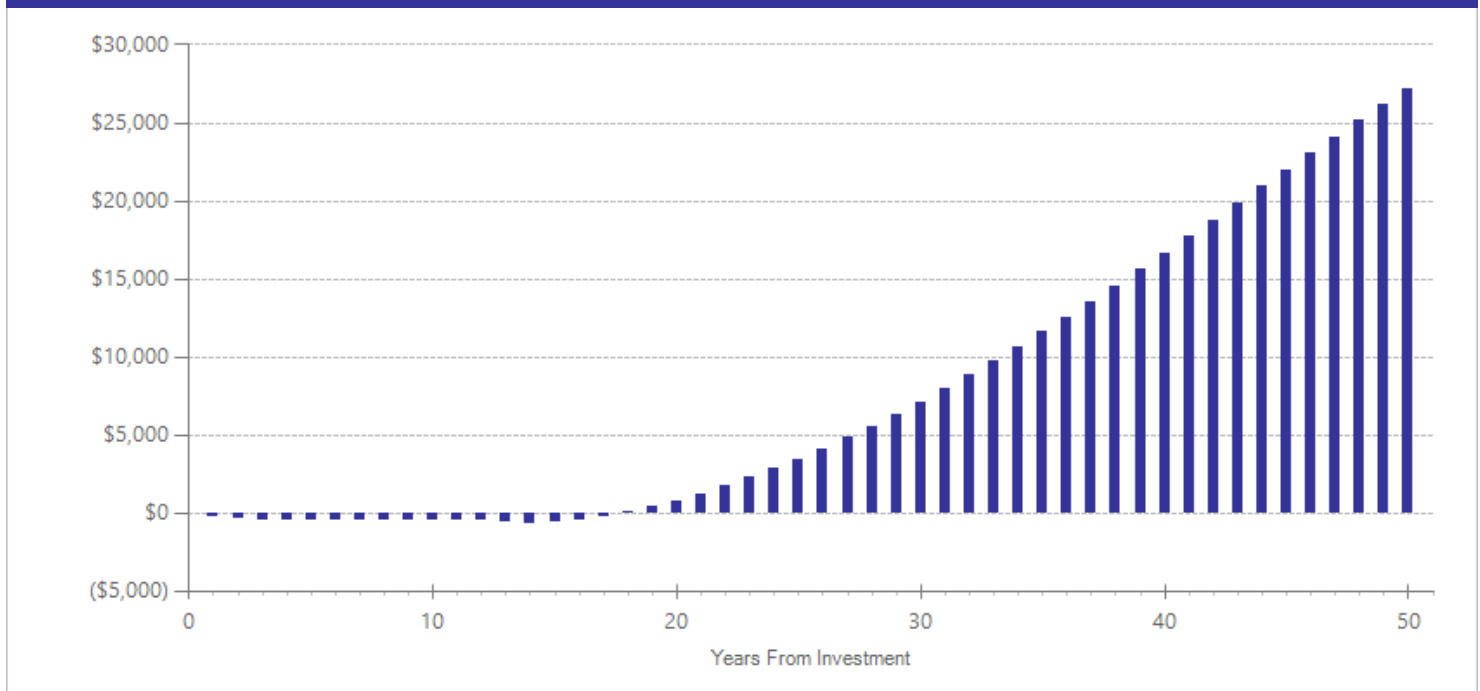
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$1,398	2009	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$301)
Comparison costs	\$1,298	2009	Cost range (+ or -)	20 %

The per-participant cost estimate reflects the sum of local, state, and federal dollars allocated per student (averaged across Washington State school districts) for the 2008-09 school year. All students who qualify for the state Transitional Bilingual Instructional Program (TBIP) receive some form of services, so the comparison group's general instructional costs are the same as for the program group. Because specialized literacy programs may require supplemental materials and training, we added \$100 to the cost estimate and estimated the uncertainty around the cost estimate at 20%. Source for dollars allocated per student come from Washington's Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	6	423	0.148	0.069	7	0.070	0.076	17	0.306	0.001

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Chambers, B., Cheung, A.C.K., Madden, N.A., Slavin, R.E., & Gifford, R. (2006). Achievement effects of embedded multimedia in a Success for All Reading program. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 98*(1), 232-237.
- Farver, J.A.M., Lonigan, C.J., & Eppe, S. (2009). Effective early literacy skill development for young Spanish-speaking English language learners: An experimental study of two methods. *Child Development, 80*(3), 703-719.
- Solari, E.J., & Gerber, M.M. (2008). Early comprehension instruction for Spanish-speaking English language learners: Teaching text-level reading skills while maintaining effects on word-level skills. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 23*(4), 155-168.
- Troia, G.A. (2004). Migrant students with limited English proficiency: Can Fast ForWord Language make a difference in their language skills and academic achievement? *Remedial and Special Education, 25*(6), 353-366.
- Vaughn, S., Cirino, P.T., Tolar, T., Fletcher, J.M., Cardenas-Hagan, E., Carlson, C.D., & Francis, D.J. (2008). Long-term follow-up of Spanish and English interventions for first-grade English language learners at risk for reading problems. *Journal of Research on Educational Effectiveness, 1*(3), 179-214.

Tutoring: By non-certificated adults, small-group, structured Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: The programs included in this analysis are structured, systematic approaches to tutoring small-groups of struggling students in grades K–4 in specific English language arts and/or mathematics skills. The evaluated programs include a variety of specific programs and curricula such as (in no particular order) Quick Reads, Gottshall Early Reading Intervention, and Hot Math. The evaluated tutoring programs provide, on average, 22 hours of tutoring time to groups of two to six (usually three) early elementary students. Tutors are typically instructional aides or college student volunteers who receive 20 hours of training each year. Certificated teachers provide oversight and planning support.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$2,364	Benefit to cost ratio	\$16.44
Participants	\$4,902	Benefits minus costs	\$8,525
Others	\$2,046	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$235)	benefits greater than the costs	78 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$9,078</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$552)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	\$8,525		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$5,028	\$2,283	\$2,223	\$0	\$9,534
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$38)	\$139	(\$151)	\$70	\$20
Costs of higher education	(\$87)	(\$58)	(\$26)	(\$29)	(\$201)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$275)	(\$275)
<u>Totals</u>	<u>\$4,902</u>	<u>\$2,364</u>	<u>\$2,046</u>	<u>(\$235)</u>	<u>\$9,078</u>

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

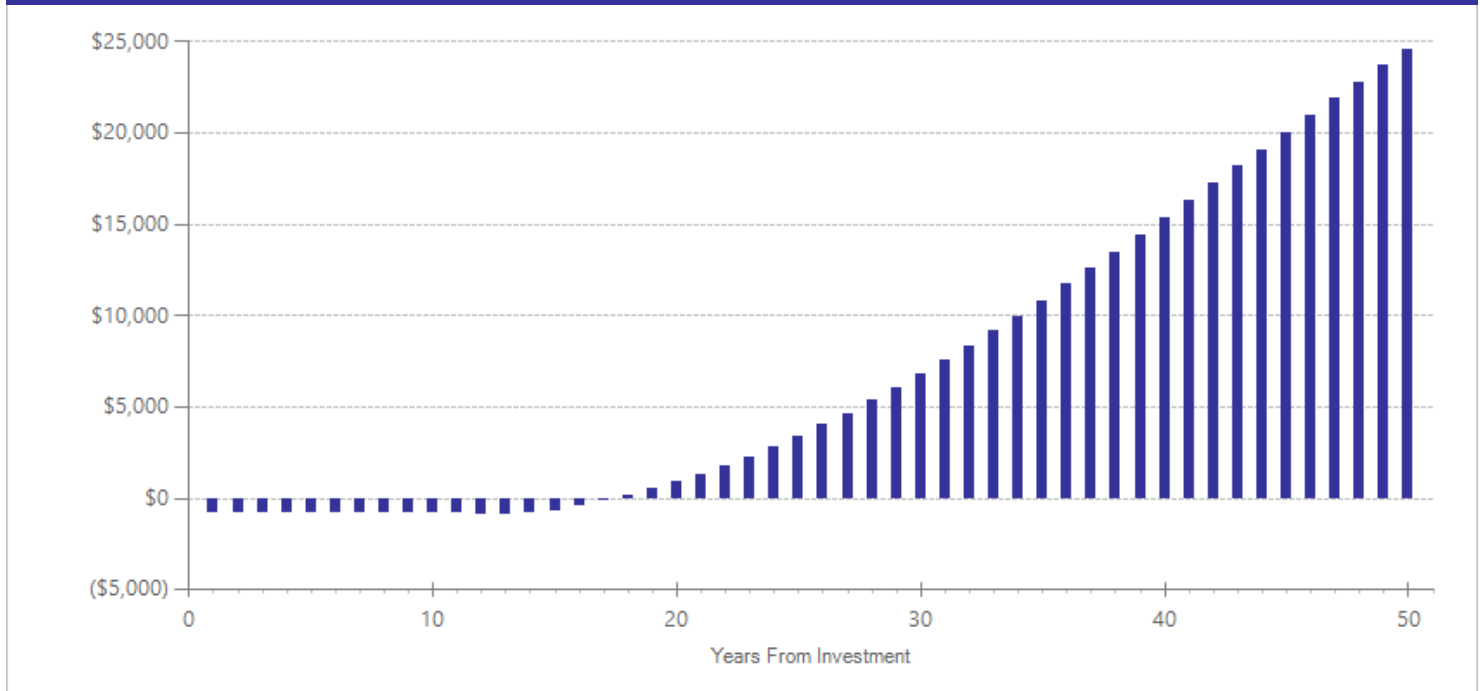
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$536	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$552)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

In the evaluations included in this meta-analysis, a non-certificated adult (such as an instructional aide or college student) provides, on average, 22 hours of tutoring to six students per year in groups of three and receives 20 hours of training. A certificated teacher provides six hours of planning support and oversight per group. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we used average Washington State compensation costs (including benefits) for K-8 teachers and instructional aides as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, divided by the total number of students served.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	9	611	0.126	0.063	7	0.059	0.069	17	0.318	0.001

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Case, L.P., Speece, D.L., Silverman, R., Ritchey, K.D., Schatschneider, C., Cooper, D.H., . . . Jacobs, D. (2010). Validation of a supplemental reading intervention for first-grade children. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 43*, 5.
- Fuchs, L.S., Compton, D.L., Fuchs, D., Paulsen, K., Bryant, J.D., & Hamlett, C.L. (2005). The prevention, identification, and cognitive determinants of math difficulty. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 97*(3), 493-513.
- Fuchs, L.S., Fuchs, D., Craddock, C., Hollenbeck, K.N., Hamlett, C.L., & Schatschneider, C. (2008). Effects of small-group tutoring with and without validated classroom instruction on at-risk students' math problem solving: Are two tiers of prevention better than one? *Journal of Educational Psychology, 100*(3), 491-509.
- Gilbert, J.K., Compton, D.L., Fuchs, D., Fuchs, L.S., Bouton, B., Barquero, L.A., & Cho, E. (2013). Efficacy of a first-grade responsiveness-to-intervention prevention model for struggling readers. *Reading Research Quarterly, 48*(20), 135-154.
- Gottshall, D.L. (2007). *Gottshall early reading intervention: A phonics based approach to enhance the achievement of low performing, rural, first grade boys* (Doctoral dissertation). Denton, TX: University of North Texas.
- Jordan, N.C., Glutting, J., Dyson, N., Hassinger-Das, B., & Irwin, C. (2012). Building kindergartners' number sense: A randomized controlled study. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 104*(3), 647-660.
- Ritchey, K.D., Silverman, R.D., Montanaro, E.A., Speece, D.L., & Schatschneider, C. (2012). Effects of a tier 2 supplemental reading intervention for at-risk fourth-grade students. *Exceptional Children, 78*(3), 318-334.
- Vadasy, P.F., & Sanders, E.A. (2008). Repeated reading intervention: Outcomes and interactions with readers' skills and classroom instruction. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 100*(2), 272-290.

Teacher professional development: Targeted Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: Generally, professional development (PD) for K–12 teachers includes activities such as workshops, conferences, summer institutes, and time set aside during the school year for staff development. Targeted PD focuses on improving teaching in a particular content area (such as reading, math, and science) and/or a particular grade level. The specific types of PD evaluated and included in this meta-analysis are (in no particular order) Language Essentials for Teachers of Reading and Spelling (LETRS), Pacific Communities with High Performance in Literacy Development (Pacific CHILD), Cognitively Guided Instruction, Math & Science Partnerships (MSP), Teaching Science, Mathematics and Relevant Technologies (Teaching SMART), Discovery Model Schools Initiative, the Integrated Mathematics Assessment, Teaching Cases, and Metacognitive Analysis. Most forms of targeted PD include a summer institute in addition to training provided during the regular school year.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$2,121	Benefit to cost ratio	\$30.89
Participants	\$4,401	Benefits minus costs	\$8,001
Others	\$1,845	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$98)	benefits greater than the costs	79 %
Total benefits	\$8,269		
Net program cost	(\$268)		
Benefits minus cost	\$8,001		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$4,514	\$2,050	\$2,004	\$0	\$8,569
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$34)	\$124	(\$135)	\$62	\$18
Costs of higher education	(\$80)	(\$53)	(\$24)	(\$27)	(\$184)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$134)	(\$134)
Totals	\$4,401	\$2,121	\$1,845	(\$98)	\$8,269

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

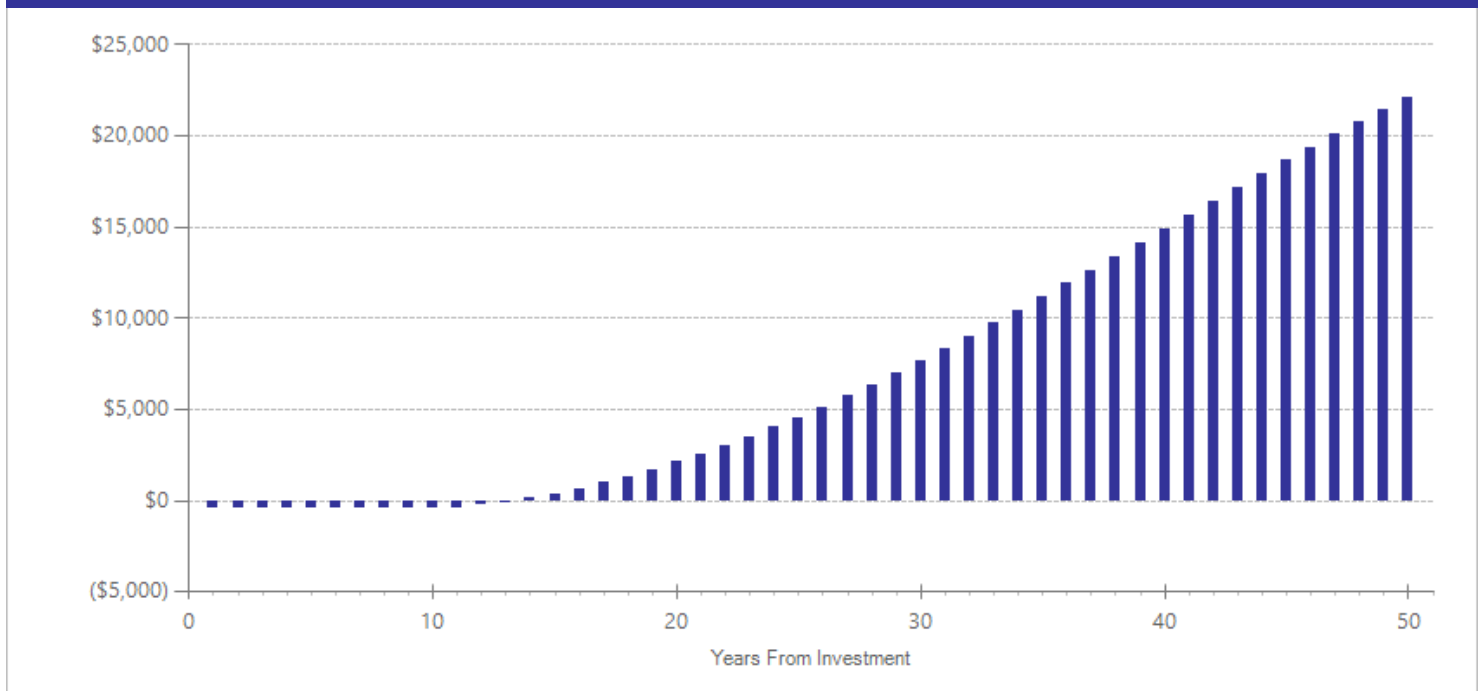
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$260	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$268)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

In the evaluations included in the meta-analysis, teachers received an average of 63 additional hours of targeted professional development (PD) in comparison with the usual amount of PD time. We calculated the value of PD time using average teacher salaries (including benefits) in Washington State as reported by the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we divided compensation costs by the number of students per classroom in Washington's prototypical schools formula and add per-student materials, supplies, and operating costs to account for the overhead (i.e. facility and administrative costs) associated with providing PD.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	14	11652	0.071	0.055	11	0.051	0.060	17	0.198	0.008

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Abe, Y., Thomas, V., Sinicrope, C., & Gee, K.A. (2012). *Effects of the Pacific CHILD professional development program*. (NCEE 2013–4002). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance.
- Borman, K.M., Cotner, B.A., Lee, R.S., Boydston, T.L., & Lanehart, R. (2009). *Improving elementary science instruction and student achievement: The impact of a professional development program*. Paper presented at the Second Annual Conference of the Society for Research on Educational Effectiveness, Crystal City, VA.
- Borman, G.D., Gamoran, A., & Bowdon, J. (2008). A randomized trial of teacher development in elementary science: First-year achievement effects. *Journal of Research on Educational Effectiveness*, 1(4), 237-264.
- Carpenter, T.P., Fennema, E., Peterson, P.L., Chiang, C.P., & Loeff, M. (1989). Using knowledge of children's mathematics thinking in classroom teaching: An experimental study. *American Educational Research Journal*, 26(4), 499-531.
- Foster, J.M., Toma, E.F., & Troske, S.P. (2013). Does teacher professional development improve math and science outcomes and is it cost effective? *Journal of Education Finance*, 38(3), 255-275.
- Garet, M.S., Cronen, S., Eaton, M., Kurki, A., Ludwig, M., Jones, W., . . . Silverberg, M. (2008). *The impact of two professional development interventions on early reading instruction and achievement*. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance.
- Garet, M.S., Wayne, A. J., Stancavage, F., Taylor, J., Walters, K., Song, M., . . . Warner, E. (2010). *Middle school mathematics professional development impact study: Findings after the first year of implementation*. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance.
- Heller, J.I., Daehler, K.R., Wong, N., Shinohara, M., & Miratrix, L. W. (2012). Differential effects of three professional development models on teacher knowledge and student achievement in elementary science. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 49(3), 333-362.
- Johnson, C.C., Kahle, J.B., & Fargo, J.D. (2007). A study of the effect of sustained, whole-school professional development on student achievement in science. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 44(6), 775-786.
- McCutchen, D., Abbott, R.D., Green, L.B., Beretvas, S.N., Cox, S., Potter, N.S., . . . Gray, A.L. (2002). Beginning literacy: Links among teacher knowledge, teacher practice, and student learning. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 35(1), 69-86.
- Santagata, R., Kersting, N., Givvin, K. B., & Stigler, J.W. (2011). Problem implementation as a lever for change: An experimental study of the effects of a professional development program on students' mathematics learning. *Journal of Research on Educational Effectiveness*, 4(1), 1-24.
- Saxe, G., Gearhart, M., & Nasir, N. (2001). Enhancing students' understanding of mathematics: A study of three contrasting approaches to professional support. *Journal of Mathematics Teacher Education*, 4(1), 55-79.

Consultant teachers: Coaching Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: Coaching is a form of job-embedded professional development for teachers. Coaching programs (sometimes called literacy coaching, mathematics coaching, or instructional coaching) typically assign a full-time, trained teacher to an individual school to serve as a coach. Generally, coaches work directly with classroom teachers (usually one-on-one or in small groups) to help them improve their instructional strategies. Coaches observe teaching, provide individual feedback, engage in co-teaching sessions, model effective instructional practices, and provide professional development workshops. The studies in this analysis focused on providing coaching to teachers in 2nd-7th grades.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$1,632	Benefit to cost ratio	\$24.40
Participants	\$3,387	Benefits minus costs	\$6,067
Others	\$1,409	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$102)	benefits greater than the costs	81 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$6,326</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$259)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	\$6,067		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$3,474	\$1,578	\$1,531	\$0	\$6,583
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$26)	\$95	(\$104)	\$48	\$13
Costs of higher education	(\$61)	(\$41)	(\$18)	(\$20)	(\$141)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$129)	(\$129)
<u>Totals</u>	<u>\$3,387</u>	<u>\$1,632</u>	<u>\$1,409</u>	<u>(\$102)</u>	<u>\$6,326</u>

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

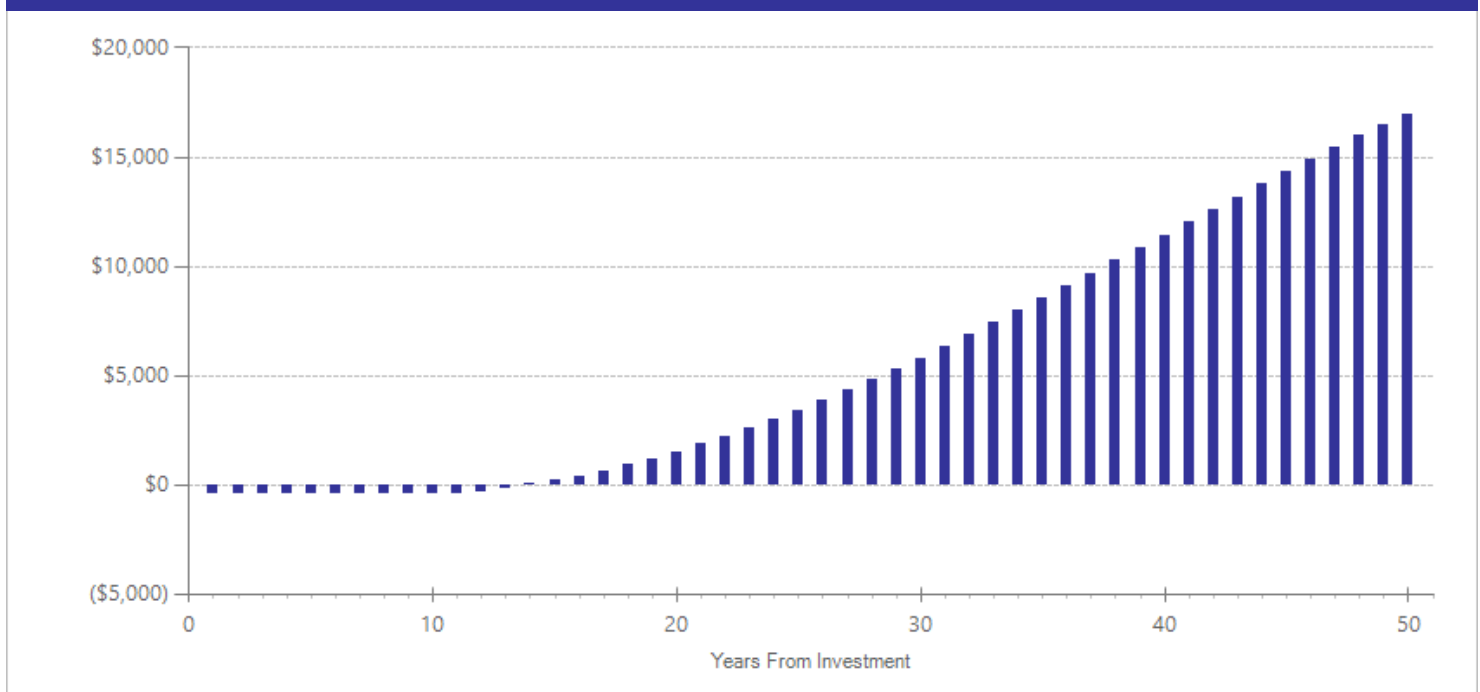
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$252	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$259)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

The cost is a WSIPP estimate based on the framework described in Knight, D.S. (2012). Assessing the cost of instructional coaching. *Journal of Education Finance*, 38(1), 52-80. The estimate is based on one-full time coach per school at the average compensation cost (including benefits) for K-8 teachers as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. In addition, the estimate includes costs related to administrator time, materials, professional development, and classroom teacher time to work with coaches. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we use the average number of students per school in Washington's prototypical schools formula.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	11	12805	0.060	0.037	10	0.040	0.041	17	0.060	0.105

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Campbell, P.F., & Malkus, N.N. (2011). The impact of elementary mathematics coaches on student achievement. *The Elementary School Journal*, 111(3), 430-454.
- Garet, M.S., Cronen, S., Eaton, M., Kurki, A., Ludwig, M., Jones, W., . . . Silverberg, M. (2008). *The impact of two professional development interventions on early reading instruction and achievement*. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences.
- Lockwood, J.R., McCombs, J.S., & Marsh, J. (2010). Linking reading coaches and student achievement: Evidence from Florida middle schools. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 32(3), 372-388.

Teacher professional development: Induction/mentoring

Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: Teacher induction programs typically assign an experienced teacher-mentor to new teachers in the first and second year of their careers. In more intensive programs, additional support includes professional development opportunities and structured collaboration time with other teachers at the school. The evaluations included in the meta-analysis examine more-intensive programs compared to less-intensive programs.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$1,376	Benefit to cost ratio	\$70.72
Participants	\$2,854	Benefits minus costs	\$5,337
Others	\$1,199	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$15)	benefits greater than the costs	64 %
Total benefits	\$5,414		
Net program cost	(\$77)		
Benefits minus cost	\$5,337		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$2,927	\$1,329	\$1,302	\$0	\$5,559
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$22)	\$80	(\$88)	\$40	\$11
Costs of higher education	(\$51)	(\$34)	(\$15)	(\$17)	(\$118)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$38)	(\$38)
Totals	\$2,854	\$1,376	\$1,199	(\$15)	\$5,414

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

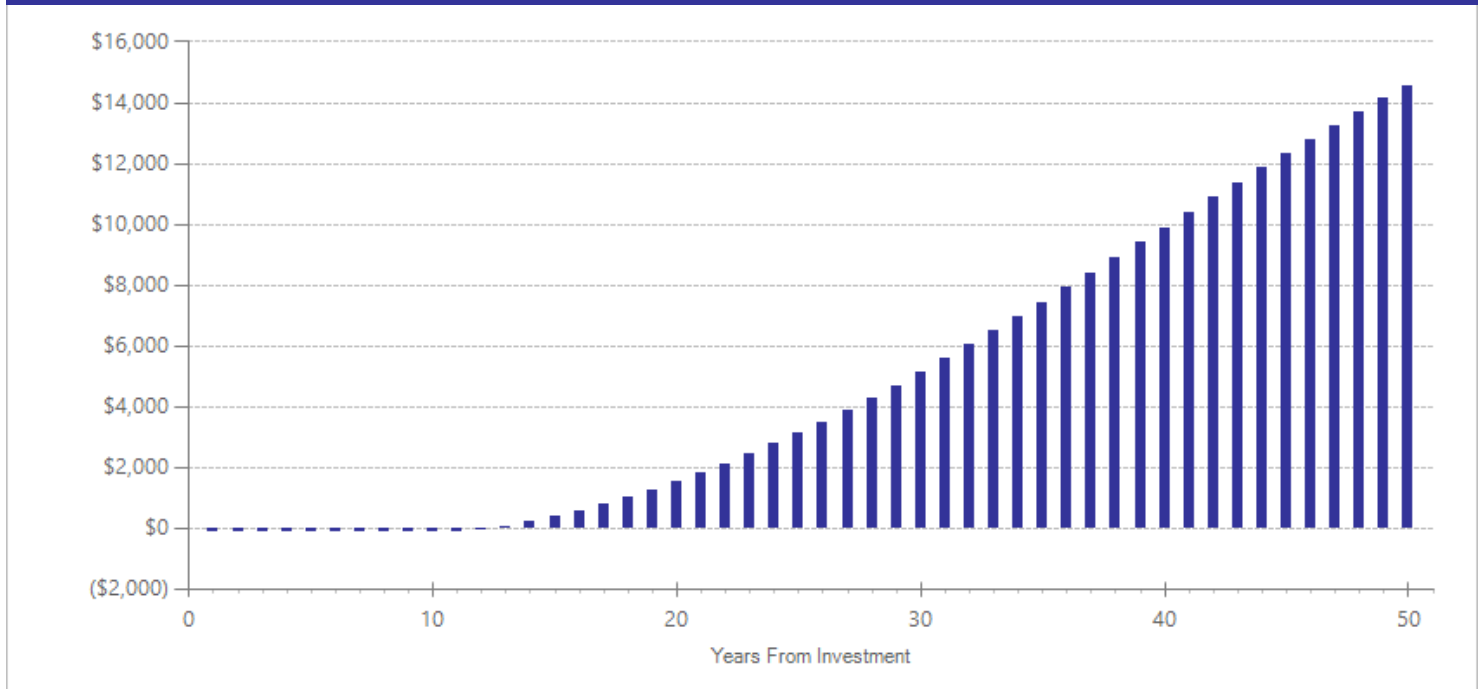
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$106	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$77)
Comparison costs	\$29	2009	Cost range (+ or -)	20 %

The cost estimate for the treatment group—receiving more intensive mentoring—is based on Washington State's per-first-year teacher allocation for the Beginning Educator Support Team (BEST) program in FY 2013. The cost estimate for the comparison group is the FY 2009 per-teacher allocation for the Teacher Assistance Program (TAP) in Washington State. Each of these estimates is divided by the number of students per classroom in Washington's prototypical schools formula.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	4	1623	0.046	0.082	11	0.033	0.090	17	0.046	0.572

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Glazerman, S., Isenberg, E., Dolfin, S., Bleeker, M., Johnson, A., Grider, M., . . . Ali, M. (2010). *Impacts of comprehensive teacher induction: Final results from a randomized controlled study*. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance.
- Rockoff, J.E. (2008). *Does mentoring reduce turnover and improve skills of new employees? Evidence from teachers in New York City (Working Paper No. 13868)*. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Wechsler, M.E., Caspary, K., Humphrey, D.C., & Matsko, K.K. (2010). *Examining the effects of new teacher induction*. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International.

Per-pupil expenditures: 10% increase for one student cohort from kindergarten through grade 12

Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated April 2012.

Program Description: In the 2011-12 school year, Washington State school districts spent an average of \$9,739 per public school student (including state, federal, local, and other sources). This analysis estimates the benefits and costs for increasing per-pupil expenditures by 10% for one cohort of students starting in kindergarten and continuing those increased expenditures for 13 years (grades K through 12).

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$4,708	Benefit to cost ratio	\$1.46
Participants	\$8,423	Benefits minus costs	\$5,129
Others	\$3,042	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	\$0	benefits greater than the costs	66 %
Total benefits	\$16,173		
Net program cost	(\$11,044)		
Benefits minus cost	\$5,129		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Crime	\$0	\$26	\$53	\$0	\$79
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$8,631	\$3,919	\$3,818	\$0	\$16,368
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$208)	\$763	(\$829)	\$0	(\$275)
Totals	\$8,423	\$4,708	\$3,042	\$0	\$16,173

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

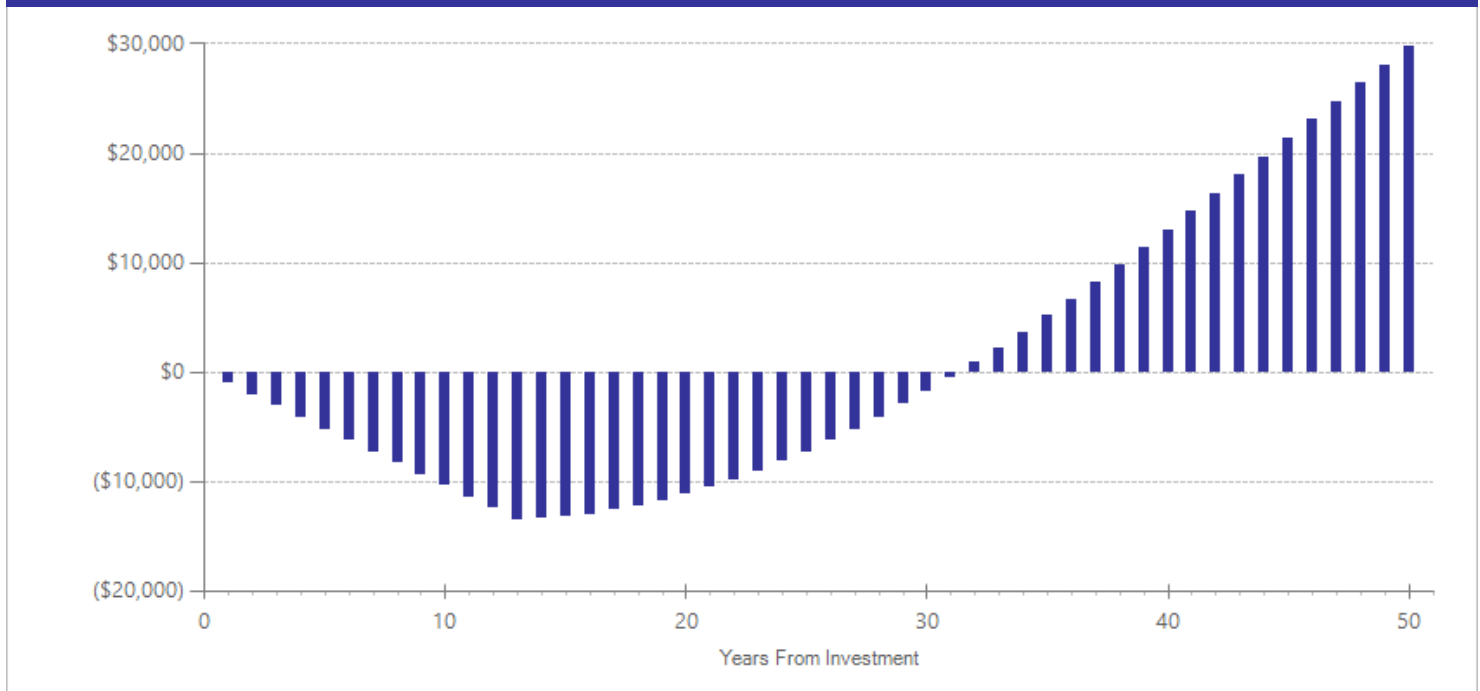
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$974	2011	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$11,044)
Comparison costs	\$0	2011	Cost range (+ or -)	0 %

Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction (2013). Financial Reporting Summary, Washington State School Districts and Educational Service Districts, Fiscal Year 9/2011-8/2012. The estimated per-pupil annual cost equals 10% of the total per-pupil expenditures reported in Table 7. <http://www.k12.wa.us/safs/PUB/FIN/1112/2011-12%20Financial%20Reporting%20Summary.pdf>

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
High school graduation	40	1000	0.101	0.042	16	0.101	0.042	20	0.101	0.050
Test scores	40	1000	0.120	0.055	16	0.109	0.047	18	0.120	0.050

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Archibald, S. (2006). Narrowing in on educational resources that do affect student achievement. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 81(4), 23-42.
- Chaudhary, L. (2009). Education inputs, student performance and school finance reform in Michigan. *Economics of Education Review*, 28(1), 90-98.
- Dee, T.S. (2005). Expense preference and student achievement in school districts. *Eastern Economic Journal*, 31(1), 23-44.
- Dolton, P. & Marcenaro-Gutierrez, O.D. (2011). If you pay peanuts do you get monkeys? A cross-country analysis of teacher pay and pupil performance. *Economic Policy*, 26(65), 5-55.
- Ferguson, R.F. & Ladd, H.F. (1996). How and why money matters: An analysis of Alabama schools. In H. F. Ladd (Ed.), *Holding schools accountable: Performance based reform in education* (pp. 265-298). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Fuchs, T. & Wößmann, L. (2007). What accounts for international differences in student performance? A re-examination using PISA data. *Empirical Economics*, 32(2), 433-464.
- Gibbons, S., McNally, S., & Viarengo, M. (2012). *Does additional spending help urban schools?: An evaluation using boundary discontinuities*. Bonn: IZA.
- Guryan, J. (2003). *Does money matter? Estimates from education finance reform in Massachusetts (NBER Working Paper)*. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Hægeland, T., Raaum, O., & Salvanes, K. G. (2012). Pennies from heaven: Using exogenous tax variation to identify effects of school resources on pupil achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 31(5), 601-614.
- Häkkinen, I., Kirjavainen, T., & Uusitalo, R. (2003). School resources and student achievement revisited: New evidence from panel data. *Economics of Education Review*, 22(3), 329-335.
- Heinesen, E. & Graversen, B. K. (2005). The effect of school resources on educational attainment: Evidence from Denmark. *Bulletin of Economic Research*, 57(2), 109-143.
- Holmlund, H., McNally, S., & Viarengo, M. (2010). Does money matter for schools?. *Economics of Education Review*, 29(6), 1154-1164.
- Houtenville, A.J. & Conway, K.S. (2008). Parental effort, school resources, and student achievement. *Journal of Human Resources* 43(2), 437-453.
- Hoxby, C. (2001). All school finance equalizations are not created equal. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 116(4), 1189-1231.
- Jacob, B.A. (2001). Getting tough? The impact of high school graduation exams. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 23(2), 99-121.
- Ladd, H.F., Muschkin, C.G., & Dodge, K. (2012). *From birth to school: Early childhood initiatives and third grade outcomes in North Carolina*. Working Paper, Duke University.
- Lee, J.W. & Barro, R.J. (2001). Schooling quality in a cross-section of countries. *Economica*, 68, 465-488.
- Loeb, S. & Page, M.E. (2000). Examining the link between teacher wages and student outcomes: The importance of alternative labor market opportunities and non-pecuniary variation. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 82(3), 393-408.
- Machin, S., McNally, S., & Meghir, C. (2010). Resources and standards in urban schools. *Journal of Human Capital*, 4(4), 365-393.
- Papke, L.E. (2005). The effects of spending on test pass rates: Evidence from Michigan. *Journal of Public Economics*, 89(5-6), 821-839.
- Papke, L.E. & Wooldridge, J.M. (2008). Panel data methods for fractional response variables with an application to test pass rates. *Journal of Econometrics*, 145, 121-133.
- Ram, R. (2004). School expenditures and student achievement: Evidence for the United States. *Education Economics*, 12(2) 169- 176.
- Ribich, T.I. & Murphy, J.L. (1975). The economic returns to increased educational spending. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 10(1), 56-77.
- Sander, W. (1999). Endogenous expenditures and student achievement. *Economics Letters*, 64(2), 223-231.
- Sherlock, M. (2011). The effects of financial resources on test pass rates: Evidence from Vermont's Equal Education Opportunity Act. *Public Finance Review*, 39(3), 331-364.
- Steele, F., Vignoles, A., & Jenkins, A. (2007). The effect of school resources on pupil attainment: A multilevel simultaneous equation modelling approach. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series A (Statistics in Society)*, 170(3), 801-824.
- Taylor, C. (1998). Does money matter? An empirical study introducing resource costs and student needs to educational production function analysis. In W. J. Fowler, Jr. (Ed.), *Developments in school finance, 1997: Fiscal proceedings from the Annual State Data Conference* (pp. 75-97). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.
- Todd, P.E. & Wolpin, K.I. (2007). The production of cognitive achievement in children: Home, school and racial test score gaps. *Journal of Human Capital*, 1(1), 91-136.
- Waldfoegel, J. & Zhai, F. (2008). Effects of public preschool expenditures on the test scores of 4th graders: Evidence from TIMSS. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 14, 9-28.
- Wenglinsky, H. (1997). How money matters: The effect of school district spending on academic achievement. *Sociology of Education*, 70(3), 221-237.

- Wenglinsky, H. (1998). School district expenditures, school resources and student achievement: Modeling the production function. In W. J. Fowler, Jr. (Ed.), *Developments in school finance, 1997: Fiscal proceedings from the Annual State Data Conference* (pp. 99-120). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.
- Wilson, K. (2001). The determinants of educational attainment: Modeling and estimating the human capital model and education production functions. *Southern Economic Journal*, 67(3), 518-551.
- WSIPP study, unpublished (2012). *We conducted a multi-year, state-level, fixed-effects analysis of NCES data on per pupil expenditures, student test scores, and on-time graduation rates.* See the technical appendix in this report for details.

Out-of-school-time tutoring by adults

Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: The out-of-school time tutoring programs included in this analysis provide one-on-one or small-group tutoring support to struggling students in English language arts and/or mathematics outside of the regular school day (usually after school). The evaluated tutoring programs provide, on average, about 40 hours of tutoring time to students each year. Tutors are typically specially trained adults (e.g. instructional aides and community volunteers) and receive approximately 10 hours of training.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$1,644	Benefit to cost ratio	\$6.40
Participants	\$3,410	Benefits minus costs	\$5,101
Others	\$1,434	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$442)	benefits greater than the costs	93 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$6,046</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$945)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	\$5,101		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$3,498	\$1,588	\$1,557	\$0	\$6,643
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$26)	\$96	(\$105)	\$48	\$13
Costs of higher education	(\$62)	(\$41)	(\$18)	(\$20)	(\$141)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$470)	(\$470)
Totals	\$3,410	\$1,644	\$1,434	(\$442)	\$6,046

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

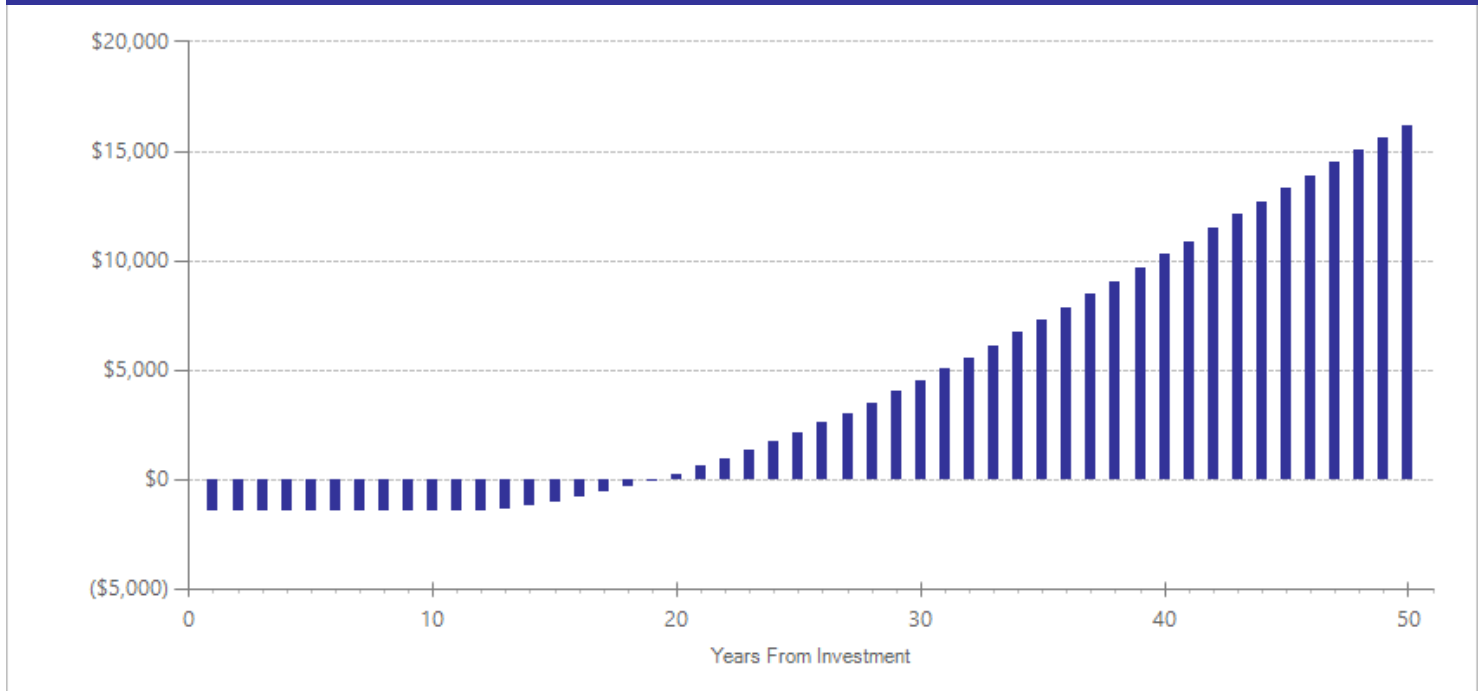
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$917	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$945)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

In the evaluations included in the meta-analysis, the average after-school tutoring program provides 40 hours of intervention and ten hours of training. The cost estimate assumes that adult instructional aides or community volunteers provide tutoring to groups of two students. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we use average Washington State compensation costs (including benefits) for instructional aides as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction and add per-student materials, supplies, and operating costs to account for overhead (i.e. facility and administrative costs).

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	6	6082	0.068	0.018	9	0.041	0.020	17	0.259	0.033

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Baker, S., Gersten, R., & Keating, T. (2000). When less may be more: A 2-year longitudinal evaluation of a volunteer tutoring program requiring minimal training. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 35(4), 494-519.
- McKinney, A.D. (1995). The effects of an after-school tutorial and enrichment program on the academic achievement and self-concept of below grade level first and second grade students. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 56(06), 2176A.
- Meier, J.D., & Invernizzi, M. (2001). Book Buddies in the Bronx: Testing a model for America Reads. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, 6(4), 319-33.
- Morris, D., Shaw, B., & Perney, J. (1990). Helping low readers in grades 2 and 3: An after-school volunteer tutoring program. *Elementary School Journal*, 91(2), 133-150.
- Vadasy, P.F., Jenkins, J.R., Antil, L.R., Wayne, S.K., & O'Connor, R.E. (1997). The effectiveness of one-to-one tutoring by community tutors for at-risk beginning readers. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 20(2), 126-139.
- Zimmer, R., Hamilton, L., & Christina, R. (2010). After-school tutoring in the context of No Child Left Behind: Effectiveness of two programs in the Pittsburgh Public Schools. *Economics of Education Review*, 29(1), 18-28.

Summer learning programs: Academically focused Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: This analysis includes a variety of summer learning programs for students in grades K–8 in which academic improvement is the main goal, often with a focus on remediation and/or prevention of summer learning loss. The programs encompass a range of models and include both community- and school-provided programs. Some programs offer services beyond academic support, such as enrichment and recreation. Based on the studies in this analysis, a typical program lasts about six weeks. This analysis excludes programs that focus on other goals such as general youth development or job training and programs that combine summer learning programs with additional support during the school year.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$1,521	Benefit to cost ratio	\$4.67
Participants	\$3,157	Benefits minus costs	\$4,277
Others	\$1,324	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$559)	benefits greater than the costs	86 %
Total benefits	\$5,443		
Net program cost	(\$1,166)		
Benefits minus cost	\$4,277		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$3,238	\$1,470	\$1,438	\$0	\$6,147
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$24)	\$89	(\$97)	\$44	\$12
Costs of higher education	(\$57)	(\$38)	(\$17)	(\$19)	(\$131)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$585)	(\$585)
Totals	\$3,157	\$1,521	\$1,324	(\$559)	\$5,443

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

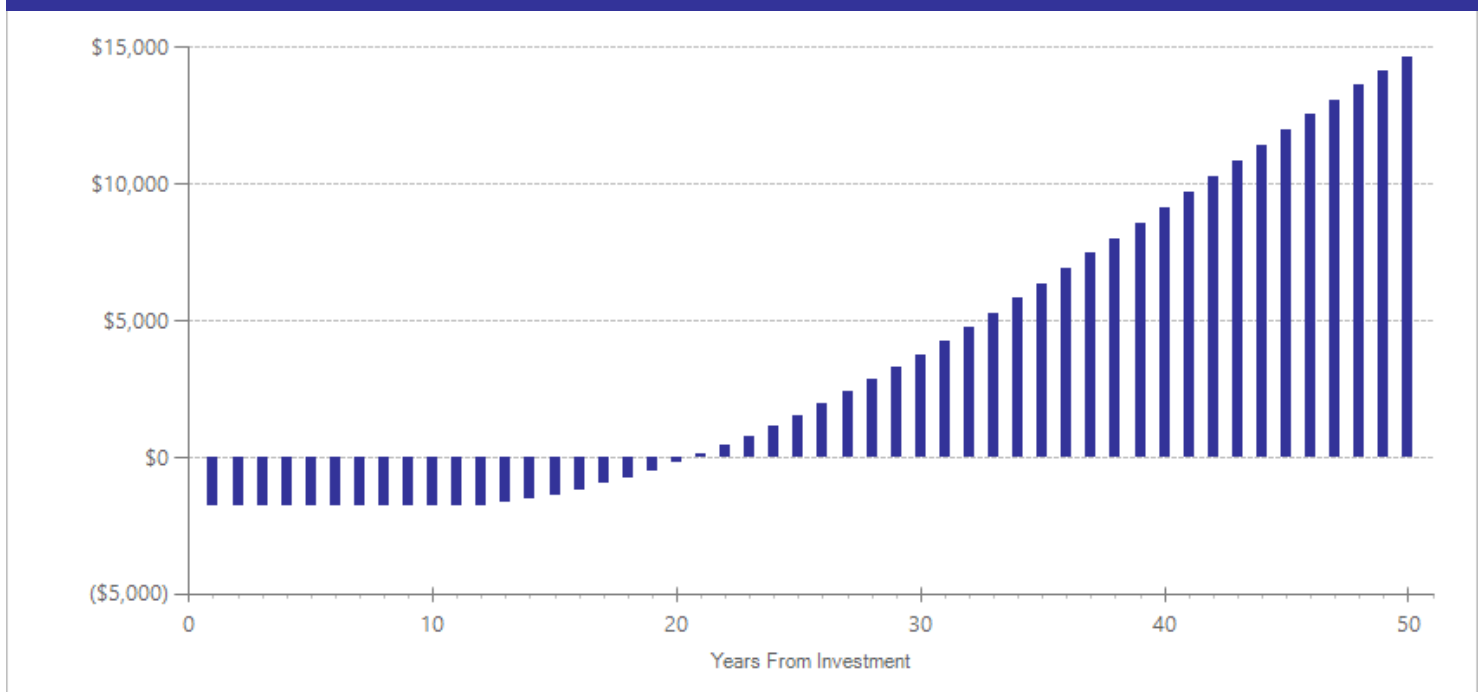
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$1,132	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$1,166)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

In the evaluations included in this meta-analysis, the average summer program included 140 service hours and 40 hours of staff training/planning time. Teachers had, on average, 15 students in each class. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we used average Washington State compensation costs (including benefits) for K-8 teachers as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, divided by the average number of students per class in the evaluated programs. We include per-student annual materials, supplies, and operating costs. The cost estimate provided here does not account for meals or transportation.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	13	46259	0.064	0.020	9	0.038	0.022	17	0.064	0.002

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Borman, G.D., & Dowling, N. (2006). Longitudinal achievement effects of multiyear summer school: Evidence from the Teach Baltimore randomized field trial. *Educational Evaluation & Policy Analysis, 28*(1), 25-48.
- Borman, G.D., Goetz, M. E., & Dowling, N.M. (2009). Halting the summer achievement slide: A randomized field trial of the KindergARTen summer camp. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk, 14*(2), 133-147.
- Chaplin, D., & Capizzano, J. (2006). *Impacts of a summer learning program: A random assignment study of Building Educated Leaders for Life (BELL)*. Washington DC: Urban Institute.
- Geis, R. (1968). *A preventive summer program for kindergarten children likely to fail in first grade reading, Final Report*. La Canada, CA: La Canada Unified School District.
- Jacob, B.A., & Lefgren, L. (2004). Remedial education and student achievement: A regression-discontinuity analysis. *The Review of Economics and Statistics, 86*(1), 226-244.
- Mariano, L.T., & Martorell, P. (2013). The academic effects of summer instruction and retention in New York City. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 35*(1), 96-117.
- Matsudaira, J.D. (2008). Mandatory summer school and student achievement. *Journal of Econometrics, 142*(2), 829-850.
- Opalinski, G.B. (2006). *The effects of a middle school summer school program on the achievement of NCLB identified subgroups* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 2006, UMI No. 3224110).
- Schacter, J., & Jo, B. (2005). Learning when school is not in session: A reading summer day-camp intervention to improve the achievement of exiting first-grade students who are economically disadvantaged. *Journal of Research in Reading, 28*(2), 158-169.
- Zvoch, K., & Stevens, J. (2011). Summer school and summer learning: An examination of the short- and longer-term changes in student literacy. *Early Education & Development, 22*(4), 649-675.
- Zvoch, K., & Stevens, J. J. (2013). Summer school effects in a randomized field trial. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 28*(1), 24-32.

Growth mindset interventions Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated February 2018.

Program Description: This analysis evaluates psychological interventions that encourage students to believe that intelligence is malleable and can be changed with experience and learning. Growth mindset interventions teach students scientific facts about the brain's plasticity and the physiological nature of learning. The interventions aim to enhance students' persistence and prevent students from attributing setbacks to innate ability. Most students in this analysis were in grades four through nine. Students receive between two to eight lessons, each lasting about one hour. Lessons can be delivered by teachers, mentors, or through the use of internet software. Lessons occur during regular class periods.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$898	Benefit to cost ratio	\$90.33
Participants	\$1,865	Benefits minus costs	\$3,501
Others	\$783	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$5)	benefits greater than the costs	58 %
Total benefits	\$3,541		
Net program cost	(\$39)		
Benefits minus cost	\$3,501		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$1,915	\$870	\$850	\$0	\$3,635
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$14)	\$52	(\$57)	\$26	\$7
Costs of higher education	(\$36)	(\$24)	(\$11)	(\$12)	(\$82)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$20)	(\$20)
Totals	\$1,865	\$898	\$783	(\$5)	\$3,541

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

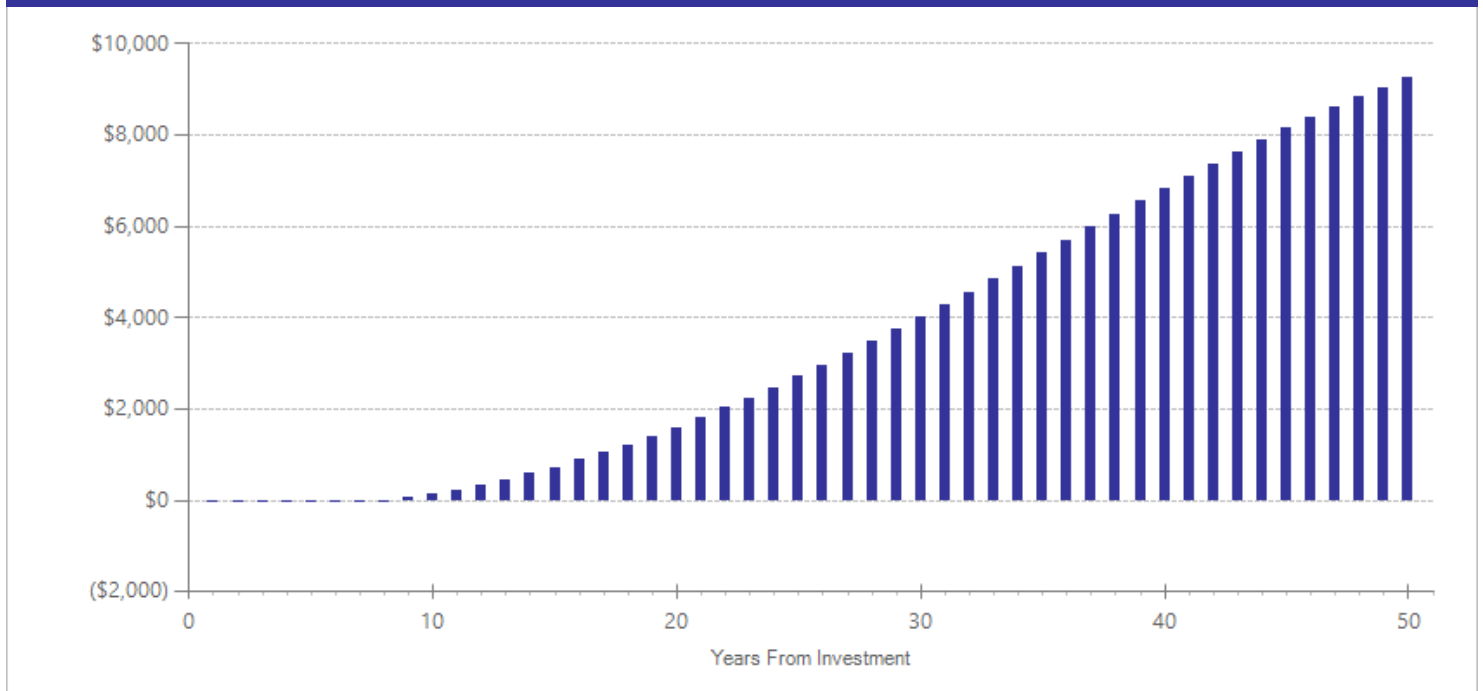
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$39	2016	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$39)
Comparison costs	\$0	2016	Cost range (+ or -)	60 %

To estimate the annual per-participant program cost, we used the average Washington State compensation costs (including benefits) for certificated teachers. We retrieved teacher salary and benefits figures from the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction (OSPI). We assume students receive five hourly lessons.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Grade point average [^]	4	2165	0.062	0.085	14	n/a	n/a	n/a	0.145	0.096
Test scores	3	266	0.032	0.098	14	0.019	0.108	17	0.057	0.679

[^]WSIPP’s benefit-cost model does not monetize this outcome.

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Blackwell, L.S., Trzesniewski, K.H., & Dweck, C.S. (2007). Implicit theories of intelligence predict achievement across an adolescent transition: A longitudinal study and an intervention. *Child Development, 78*(1), 246-263.
- Chao, M.M., Visaria, S., Mukhopadhyay, A., & Dehejia, R. (2017). Do rewards reinforce the growth mindset?: Joint effects of the growth mindset and incentive schemes in a field intervention. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General, 146*(10), 1402-1419.
- Good, C., Aronson, J., & Inzlicht, M. (2003). Improving adolescents' standardized test performance: An intervention to reduce the effects of stereotype threat. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 24*(6), 645-662.
- Paunesku, D., Walton, G.M., Romero, C., Smith, E.N., Yeager, D.S., & Dweck, C.S. (2015). Mind-set interventions are a scalable treatment for academic underachievement. *Psychological Science, 26*(6), 784-793.
- Rienzo, C., Rolfe, H., & Wilkinson, D. (2015). *Changing mindsets: Evaluation report and executive summary*. London, United Kingdom: Education Endowment Foundation.
- Yeager, D.S., Romero, C., Paunesku, D., Hulleman, C.S., Schneider, B., Hinojosa, C., . . . Dweck, C. (2016). Using design thinking to improve psychological interventions: The case of the growth mindset during the transition to high school. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 108*(3), 374-391.

Tutoring: Supplemental computer-assisted instruction for struggling readers

Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2016.

Program Description: We included computer assisted instruction that was a supplement rather than a replacement for regular instruction. Studies that were focused exclusively on special education populations were excluded. Of the four studies that we included, three were evaluations of Fast ForWord and one was an evaluation of FLASH. On average, the reviewed programs required 4.03 hours of teacher time per student, and effects were reported after one school year.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$1,085	Benefit to cost ratio	\$7.26
Participants	\$2,247	Benefits minus costs	\$3,460
Others	\$937	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$256)	benefits greater than the costs	58 %
Total benefits	\$4,012		
Net program cost	(\$553)		
Benefits minus cost	\$3,460		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$2,307	\$1,047	\$1,019	\$0	\$4,374
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$18)	\$65	(\$70)	\$32	\$9
Costs of higher education	(\$42)	(\$28)	(\$12)	(\$14)	(\$95)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$275)	(\$275)
Totals	\$2,247	\$1,085	\$937	(\$256)	\$4,012

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

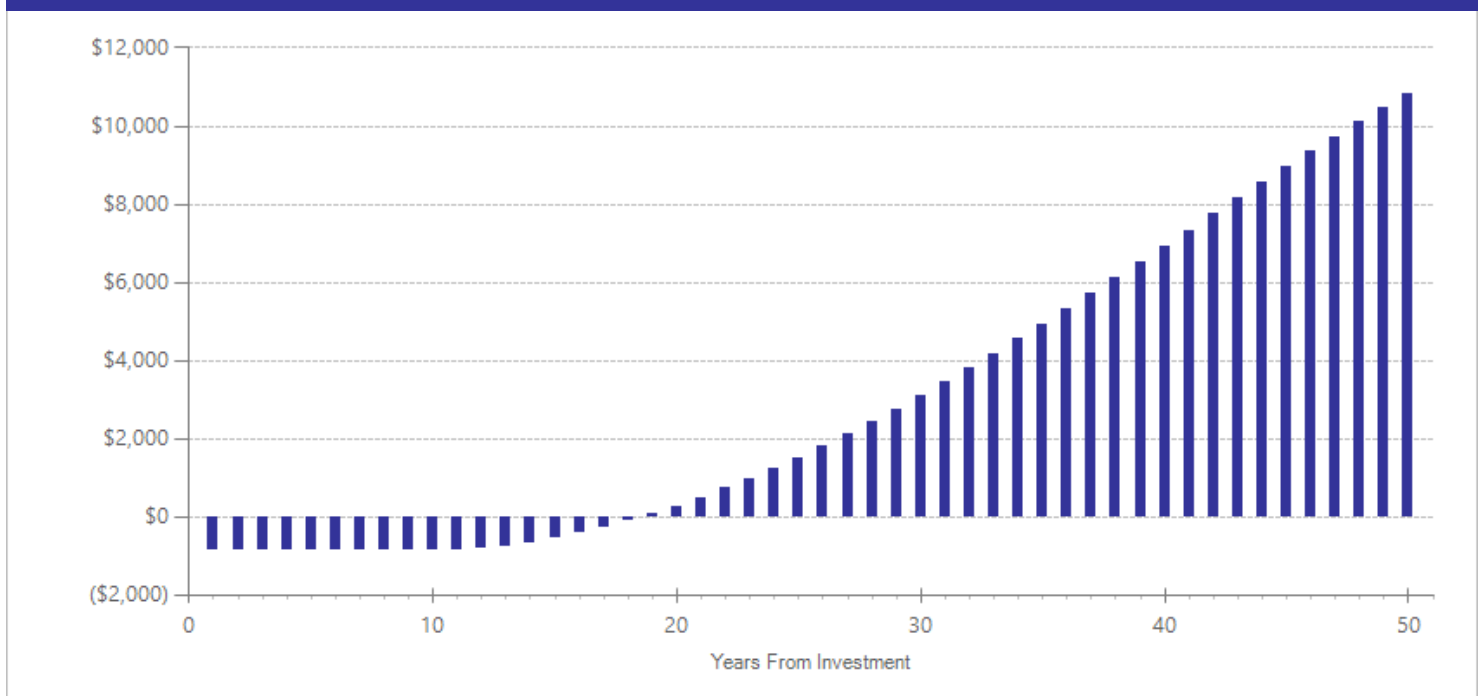
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$535	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$553)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	50 %

In this review, studies reported the effect of one year of the program. The cost of the supplemental computer assisted instruction can vary widely based on the number of students in each school using the program and the number of students using the program at one time. The interventions included in this review required an average of 4.03 hours of teacher time per student. The per student staff costs were calculated by multiplying the staff hours/student by the hour rate of a K-8 teacher in 2013 (<https://www.k12.wa.us/safs/PUB/PER/1314/tbl34.pdf>). We estimated that the per student licensing cost was \$210 per student for a program like Fast ForWord in 2016 based on a school license of \$21,000 assuming that 100 students in each school use the program (personal communication with Gayle Davies, Scientific Learning, March 30, 2016).

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	4	326	0.047	0.089	9	0.028	0.098	17	0.136	0.317

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Borman, G.D., Benson, J.G., & Overman, L. (2008). A randomized field trial of the Fast ForWord language computer-based training program. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 31*(1), 82-106.
- Fuchs, L.S., Douglas, F., Carol, L.H., Sarah, R.P., Andrea, M.C., & Pamela, M.S. (2006). The effects of computer-assisted instruction on number combination skill in at-risk first graders. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 39*(5), 467-475.
- Rouse, C.E., & Krueger, A.B. (2004). Putting computerized instruction to the test: a randomized evaluation of a "scientifically based" reading program. *Economics of Education Review, 23*(4), 323-338.
- Slattery, C.A., & Widener University. (2003). *The impact of a computer-based training system on strengthening phonemic awareness and increasing reading ability level.*

National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) certification bonuses Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated April 2012.

Program Description: National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) certification is an advanced teaching credential that complements (and does not replace) state certification. Teachers earn NBPTS certification upon completion of a one to three year assessment process. Washington State provides a salary bonus to NBPTS-certified teachers.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$910	Benefit to cost ratio	\$31.61
Participants	\$1,889	Benefits minus costs	\$3,436
Others	\$790	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$41)	benefits greater than the costs	100 %
Total benefits	\$3,549		
Net program cost	(\$112)		
Benefits minus cost	\$3,436		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$1,939	\$880	\$858	\$0	\$3,677
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$14)	\$53	(\$58)	\$26	\$7
Costs of higher education	(\$35)	(\$23)	(\$10)	(\$11)	(\$80)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$56)	(\$56)
Totals	\$1,889	\$910	\$790	(\$41)	\$3,549

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

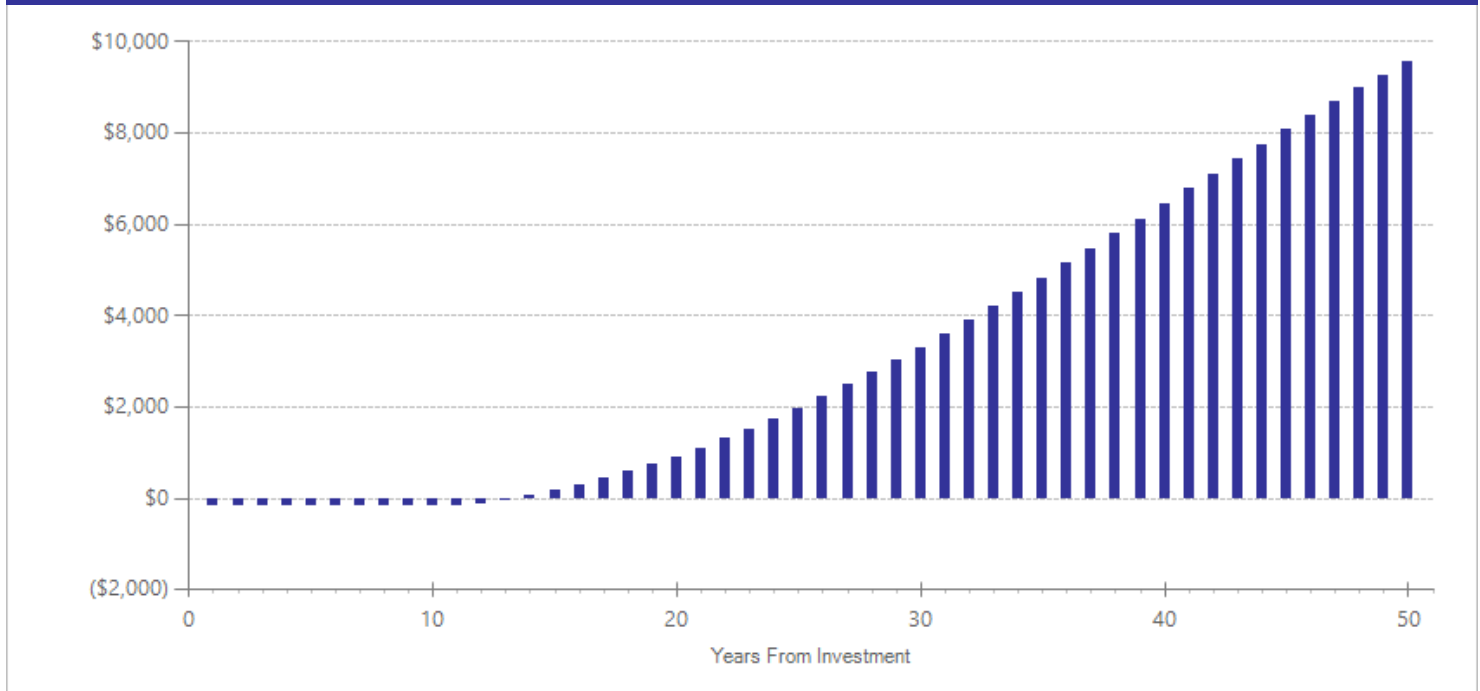
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$111	2015	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$112)
Comparison costs	\$0	2015	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

Washington State provided NBPTS-certified teachers with a \$5,090 annual bonus in the 2014-15 school year. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we assumed teachers, across all K-12 grade levels, have an average of two classrooms with an average of 25 students per classroom. This cost estimate does not include the additional bonus provided to teachers who work in high-poverty schools or the private costs teachers incur when they apply for and participate in the certification process.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	14	387957	0.031	0.005	11	0.022	0.005	17	0.032	0.001

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Cantrell, S., Fullerton, J., Kane, T.J., & Staiger, D.O. (2008). *National board certification and teacher effectiveness: Evidence from a random assignment experiment (Working Paper No. 14608)*. Cambridge: NBER.
- Cavalluzzo, L.C. (2004). *Is national board certification an effective signal of teacher quality?* Alexandria, VA: The CNA Corporation.
- Chingos, M.M., & Peterson, P.E. (2011). It's easier to pick a good teacher than to train one: Familiar and new results on the correlates of teacher effectiveness. *Economics of Education Review*, 30(3), 449-465
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2006). Teacher-student matching and the assessment of teacher effectiveness. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 41(4), 778-820.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2007). Teacher credentials and student achievement: Longitudinal analysis with student fixed effects. *Economics of Education Review*, 26(6), 673-682.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2010). Teacher credentials and student achievement in high school: A cross-subject analysis with student fixed effects. *Journal of Human Resources*, 45(3), 655-681.
- Goldhaber, D., & Anthony, E. (2007). Can teacher quality be effectively assessed? National board certification as a signal of effective teaching. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 89(1), 134-150.
- Harris, D.N., & Sass, T.R. (2009). The effects of NBPTS-certified teachers on student achievement. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 28(1), 55-80.
- Ladd, H.F., Sass, T.R., & Harris, D.N. (2007). *The impact of National Board Certified teachers on student achievement in Florida and North Carolina: A summary of the evidence*. Prepared for the National Academies Committee on the evaluation of the impact of teacher certification by NBPTS. Unpublished manuscript.
- Sanders, W.L., Ashton, J.J., Wright, S.P. (2005). *Comparison of the effects of NBPTS certified teachers with other teachers on the rate of student academic progress (Final report)*. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED491846)
- Stronge, J.H., Ward, T.J., Tucker, P.D., Hindman, J.L., McColsky, W., & Howard, B. (2007). National Board certified teachers and non-national board certified teachers: Is there a difference in teacher effectiveness and student achievement? *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*, 20(3-4), 185-210.
- Vandevoort, L.G., Amrein-Beardsley, A., & Berliner, D.C. (2004). National Board Certified teachers and their students' achievement. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 12(46).

Parents as tutors with teacher oversight

Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: In "parents as tutors" programs, teachers meet with parents in person and maintain contact over the phone to train and encourage parents to engage in planned, structured academic activities with their children at home, usually in the form of one-on-one reading tutoring. This review does not include the impact on children's academic achievement from parent involvement in general; only school-based programs are included.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$1,149	Benefit to cost ratio	\$5.09
Participants	\$2,384	Benefits minus costs	\$3,348
Others	\$1,024	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$391)	benefits greater than the costs	56 %
Total benefits	\$4,166		
Net program cost	(\$818)		
Benefits minus cost	\$3,348		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$2,444	\$1,110	\$1,109	\$0	\$4,663
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$18)	\$67	(\$73)	\$33	\$9
Costs of higher education	(\$42)	(\$28)	(\$12)	(\$14)	(\$96)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$410)	(\$410)
Totals	\$2,384	\$1,149	\$1,024	(\$391)	\$4,166

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

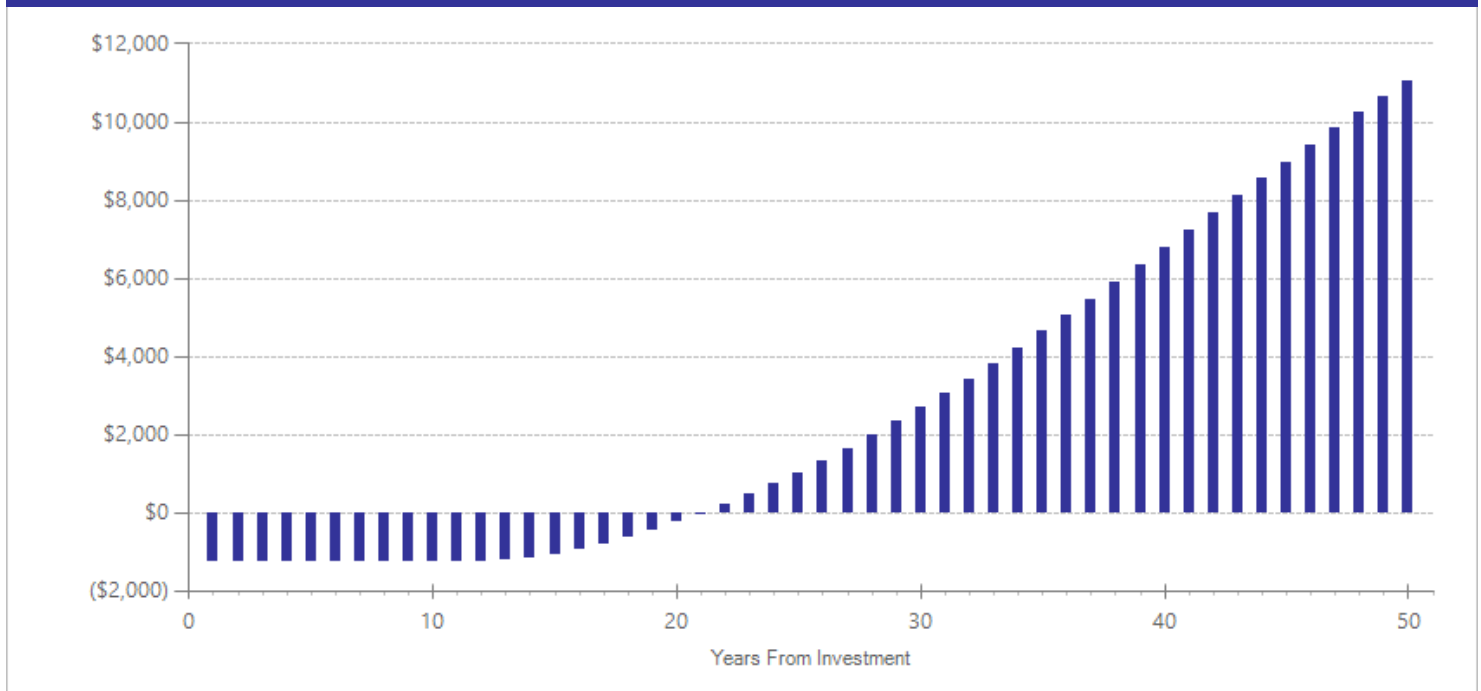
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$794	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$818)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

To estimate costs, we assume that teachers spend an average of one-quarter hour per week to maintain contact with parents during the school year, based on the evaluations included in our analysis. We calculated the value of teacher time using average Washington State compensation costs (including benefits) for a K-8 teacher as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	9	149	0.050	0.115	9	0.030	0.127	17	0.167	0.149

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Erion, R.J. (1994). Parent tutoring, reading instruction and curricular assessment. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 54(11), 4035A.
- Fantuzzo, J.W., Davis, G.Y. & Ginsburg, M.D. (1995). Effects of parent involvement in isolation or in combination with peer tutoring on student self-concept and mathematics achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 87(2), 272-281.
- Heller, L.R., & Fantuzzo, J.W. (1993). Reciprocal peer tutoring and parent partnership: Does parent involvement make a difference? *School Psychology Review*, 22(3), 517-534.
- Mehran, M., & White, K.R. (1988). Parent tutoring as a supplement to compensatory education for first-grade children. *Remedial and Special Education*, 9(3), 35-41.
- Miller, B.V., & Kratochwill, T.R. (1996). An evaluation of the Paired Reading Program using competency-based training. *School Psychology International*, 17(3), 269-291.
- Nielson, B.B. (1992). Effects of parent and volunteer tutoring on reading achievement of third grade at-risk students. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 52(10), 3570A.
- Powell-Smith, K.A., Shinn, M.R., Stoner, G., & Good, R.H., III. (2000). Parent tutoring in reading using literature and curriculum materials: Impact on student reading achievement. *School Psychology Review*, 29(1), 5-27.
- Rodick, J.D., & Henggeler, S.W. (1980). The short-term and long-term amelioration of academic and motivational deficiencies among low-achieving inner-city adolescents. *Child Development*, 51(4), 1126-1132.

Becoming a Man (BAM) Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated April 2018.

Program Description: Becoming a Man (BAM) is a high school behavioral program that provides a non-academic intervention to disadvantaged and at-risk males through exposure to prosocial adults and skills training based on cognitive behavioral therapy. The program focuses on teaching character and social-emotional skills including considering another person's perspective, evaluating consequences ahead of time, and reducing automatic decision-making. Participants in this analysis attended weekly one-hour group sessions during the school day over the course of one academic school year.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$1,637	Benefit to cost ratio	\$2.62
Participants	\$1,601	Benefits minus costs	\$3,272
Others	\$2,648	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$592)	benefits greater than the costs	79 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$5,295</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$2,023)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	\$3,272		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Crime	\$0	\$771	\$2,083	\$385	\$3,240
Labor market earnings associated with high school graduation	\$1,753	\$796	\$804	\$0	\$3,353
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$52)	\$189	(\$206)	\$95	\$25
Costs of higher education	(\$100)	(\$119)	(\$33)	(\$59)	(\$312)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$1,012)	(\$1,012)
<u>Totals</u>	<u>\$1,601</u>	<u>\$1,637</u>	<u>\$2,648</u>	<u>(\$592)</u>	<u>\$5,295</u>

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

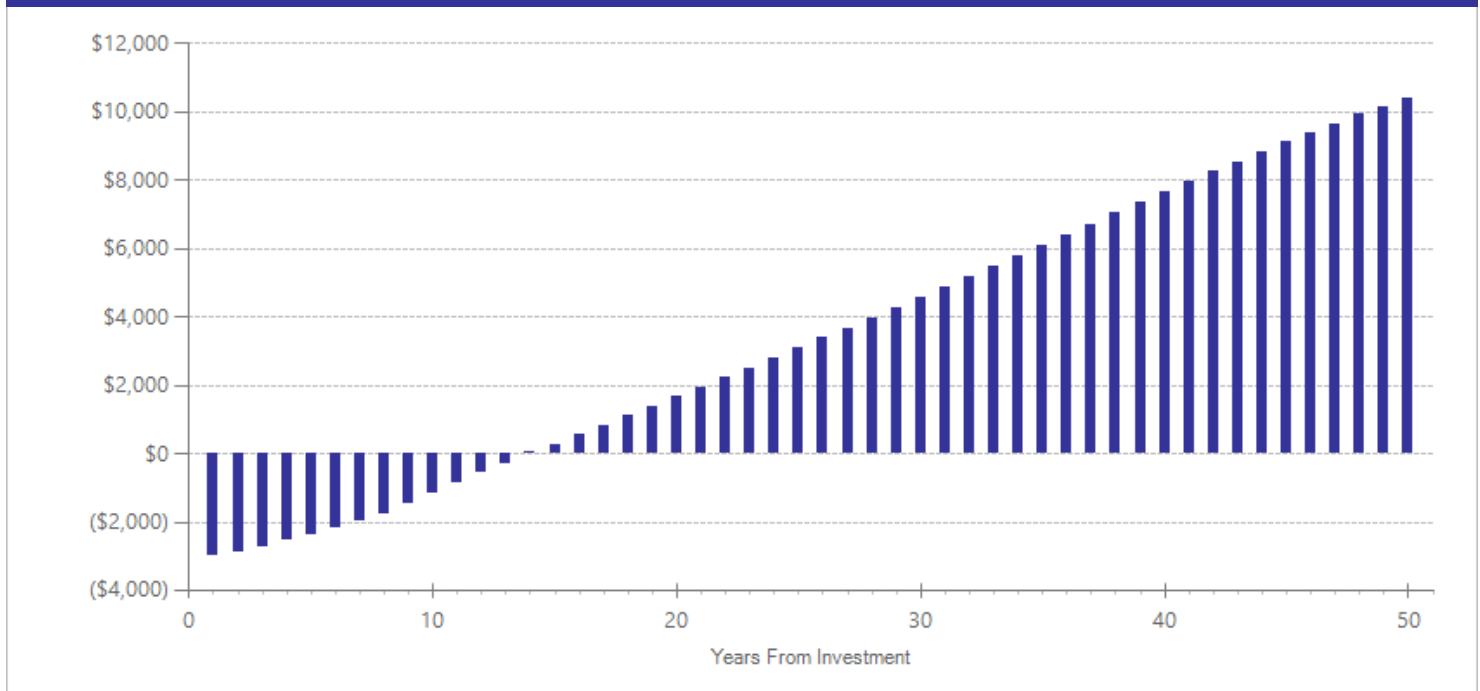
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$2,000	2015	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$2,023)
Comparison costs	\$0	2015	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

We used a per-participant program cost reported in Heller et al. (2015). Thinking, fast and slow: Some field experiments to reduce crime and dropout in Chicago (NBER Working Paper 21178). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Crime	1	1016	-0.072	0.044	14	-0.072	0.044	24	-0.072	0.100
Grade point average [^]	1	1016	-0.005	0.044	14	n/a	n/a	n/a	-0.005	0.913
School attendance [^]	1	1016	0.010	0.044	14	n/a	n/a	n/a	0.010	0.815

[^]WSIPP’s benefit-cost model does not monetize this outcome.

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

Heller, S.B., Shah, A.K., Guryan, J., Ludwig, J., Mullainathan, S., & Pollack, H.A. (2015). *Thinking, fast and slow?: Some field experiments to reduce crime and dropout in Chicago* (NBER Working Paper 21178). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.

Teacher performance pay programs Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated October 2015.

Program Description: Teacher performance pay programs distribute bonuses to individual teachers and sometimes to school wide staff. Performance is usually measured as value-added student test scores alone or in combination with some other assessment (such as principal evaluations). These evaluations examine the impact on student test scores from short-term, pilot performance pay programs.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$605	Benefit to cost ratio	\$65.55
Participants	\$1,255	Benefits minus costs	\$2,342
Others	\$527	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$8)	benefits greater than the costs	88 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$2,379</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$36)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	\$2,342		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$1,288	\$585	\$572	\$0	\$2,445
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$10)	\$35	(\$38)	\$18	\$5
Costs of higher education	(\$23)	(\$15)	(\$7)	(\$8)	(\$53)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$18)	(\$18)
<u>Totals</u>	<u>\$1,255</u>	<u>\$605</u>	<u>\$527</u>	<u>(\$8)</u>	<u>\$2,379</u>

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

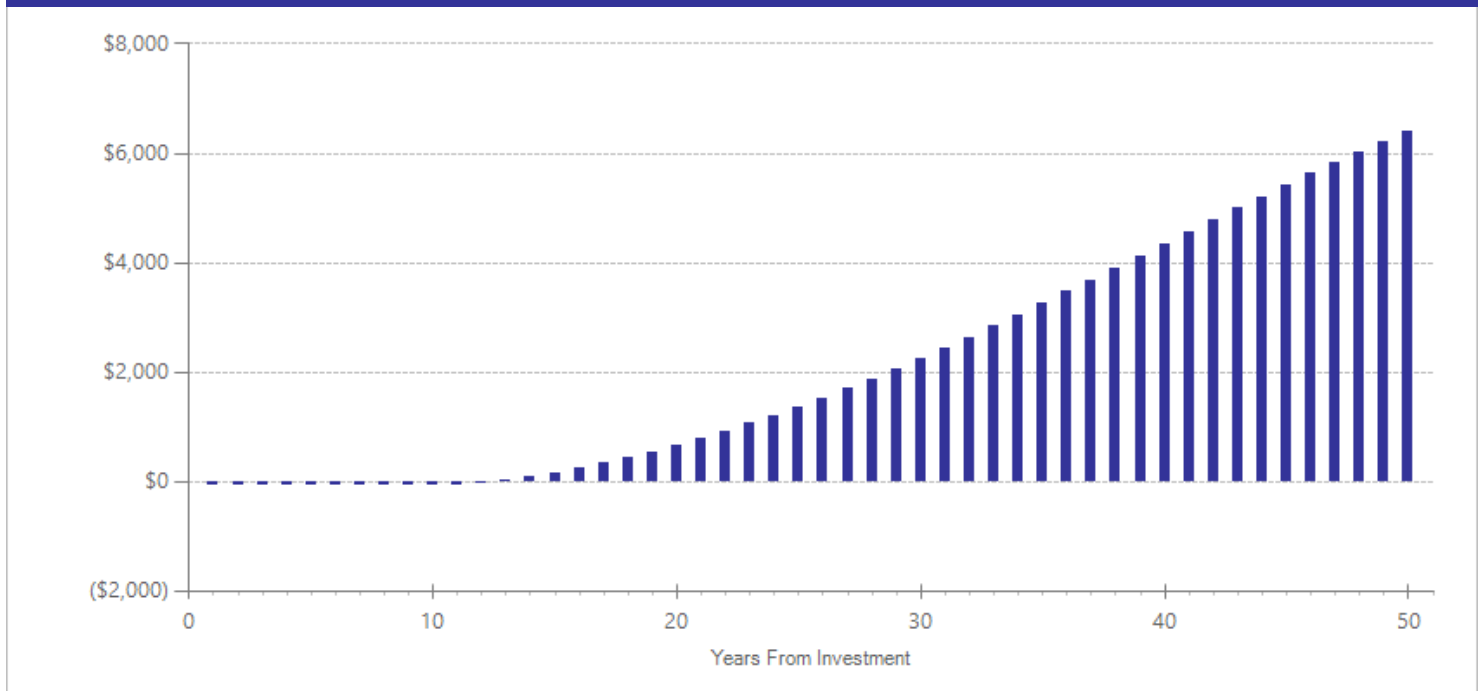
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$33	2010	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$36)
Comparison costs	\$0	2010	Cost range (+ or -)	20 %

The performance bonuses in the evaluated programs ranged from a minimum of \$1,500 to a maximum of \$15,000; in over half of the programs, the maximum award was \$3,000. For this estimate, we use the median bonus of approximately \$2,500 per teacher (including administrative costs), spread across 25 students.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	28	652322	0.019	0.011	12	0.015	0.013	17	0.019	0.095

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Dee, T.S., & Keys, B.J. (2004). Does merit pay reward good teachers? Evidence from a randomized experiment. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 23(3), 471-488.
- Figlio, D.N., & Kenny, L.W. (2007). Individual teacher incentives and student performance. *Journal of Public Economics*, 91(5-6), 901-914.
- Fryer, R.G. (2011). *Teacher incentives and student achievement: Evidence from New York City public schools* (Working Paper No. 16850). Cambridge: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Glazerman, S., Seifullah, A. (2010). *An evaluation of the Teacher Advancement Program (TAP) in Chicago: Year two impact report*. Washington, DC: Mathematica Policy Research.
- Goodman, S., & Turner, L. (2010). *Teacher incentive pay and educational outcomes: Evidence from the NYC Bonus Program*. Unpublished manuscript, Columbia University, New York.
- Hudson, S. (2010). *The effects of performance-based teacher pay on student achievement*. Discussion Paper for the Stanford Institute for Economic Policy Research, Stanford University. Retrieved from: http://www.stanford.edu/group/siepr/cgi-bin/siepr/?q=system/files/shared/pubs/papers/09-023_Paper_Hudson.pdf
- Marsh, J.A., Springer, M.G., & McCaffrey, D F. (2011). *A Big Apple for Educators: Final Evaluation Report*. Santa Monica: RAND Corp.

Tutoring: By adults, one-on-one, non-structured Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: The tutoring programs included in this analysis provide one-on-one assistance to struggling students in English language arts and/or mathematics. The evaluated programs typically allow tutors to exercise their own discretion when selecting and implementing tutoring strategies. The programs typically serve early elementary school students and provide, on average, about 30 hours of tutoring time to an individual student each year. The tutors are non-certificated adults (e.g. instructional aides and community volunteers) who receive approximately two hours of training per year.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$1,116	Benefit to cost ratio	\$2.51
Participants	\$2,313	Benefits minus costs	\$2,216
Others	\$973	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$717)	benefits greater than the costs	71 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$3,685</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$1,468)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	\$2,216		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$2,372	\$1,077	\$1,057	\$0	\$4,506
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$18)	\$66	(\$72)	\$33	\$9
Costs of higher education	(\$41)	(\$27)	(\$12)	(\$14)	(\$94)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$736)	(\$736)
Totals	\$2,313	\$1,116	\$973	(\$717)	\$3,685

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

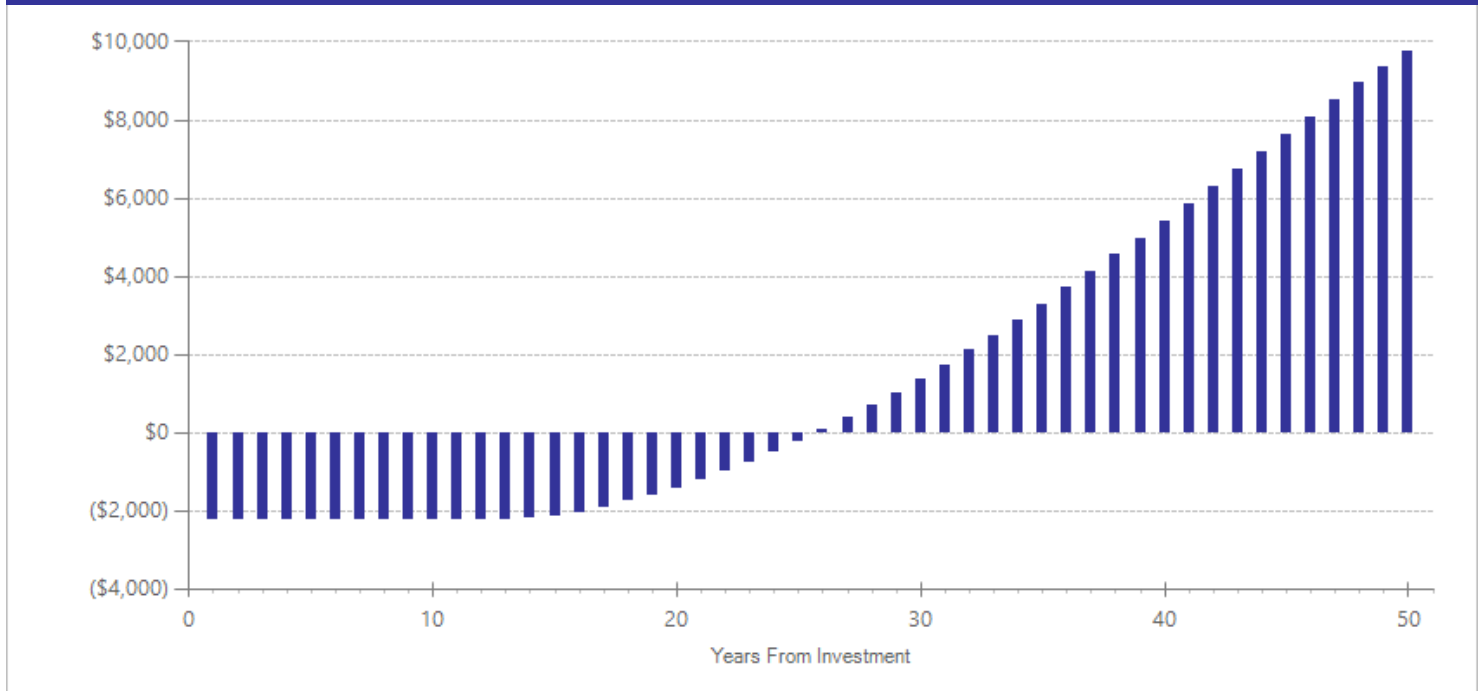
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$1,425	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$1,468)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

In the evaluations included in the meta-analysis, the average non-structured one-on-one tutoring program provides 30 hours of intervention per student and two hours of training time per tutor. The estimate assumed that certificated teachers provide approximately four hours of planning support and oversight. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we used average Washington State compensation costs (including benefits) for a K-8 teacher and instructional aides as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	12	6253	0.061	0.018	7	0.029	0.020	17	0.062	0.001

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Baker, S., Gersten, R., & Keating, T. (2000). When less may be more: A 2-year longitudinal evaluation of a volunteer tutoring program requiring minimal training. *Reading Research Quarterly, 35*(4), 494-519.
- Cobb, J.B. (2000). The effects of an early intervention program with preservice teachers as tutors on the reading achievement of primary grade at risk children. *Reading Horizons, 41*(3), 155-173.
- Cook, J.A. (2001). Every moment counts: Pairing struggling young readers with minimally trained tutors. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 62*(08), 2714A.
- McKinney, A.D. (1995). The effects of an after-school tutorial and enrichment program on the academic achievement and self-concept of below grade level first and second grade students. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 56*(06), 2176A.
- Rimm-Kaufman, S.E., Kagan, J., & Byers, H. (1999). The effectiveness of adult volunteer tutoring on reading among 'at risk' first grade children. *Reading Research and Instruction, 38*(2), 143-152.
- Ritter, G.W. (2000). The academic impact of volunteer tutoring in urban public elementary schools: Results of an experimental design evaluation. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 61*(03), 890A.
- Weiss, J.A., Thurlow, M.L., Christenson, S.L., & Ysseldyke, J.E. (1989). *Paired reading with adult volunteer tutors as a reading intervention for students with reading difficulties*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED305606)
- Zimmer, R., Hamilton, L., & Christina, R. (2010). After-school tutoring in the context of No Child Left Behind: Effectiveness of two programs in the Pittsburgh Public Schools. *Economics of Education Review, 29*(1), 18-28.

Teacher professional development: Online, targeted Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: Generally, professional development (PD) for K–12 teachers includes activities such as workshops, conferences, summer institutes, and time set aside during the school year for staff development. Online, targeted PD provides online training and collaboration with a focus on improving teaching in a particular content area (such as reading, math, or science) and/or a particular grade level.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$615	Benefit to cost ratio	\$7.64
Participants	\$1,276	Benefits minus costs	\$1,990
Others	\$538	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$140)	benefits greater than the costs	61 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$2,290</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$300)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	\$1,990		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$1,308	\$594	\$584	\$0	\$2,486
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$10)	\$36	(\$39)	\$18	\$5
Costs of higher education	(\$23)	(\$15)	(\$7)	(\$8)	(\$52)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$150)	(\$150)
Totals	\$1,276	\$615	\$538	(\$140)	\$2,290

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²“Others” includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³“Indirect benefits” includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

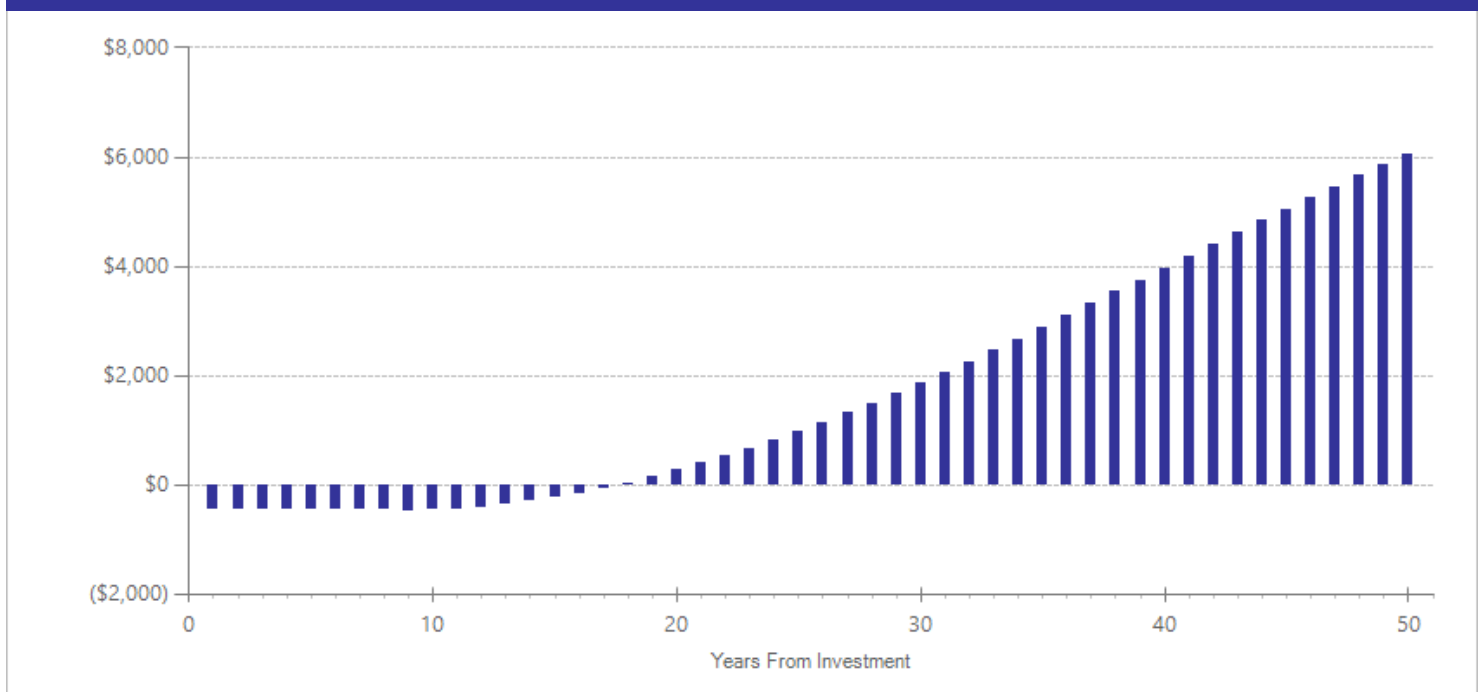
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$291	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$300)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

In the evaluations included in the meta-analysis, teachers received an average of 70 additional hours of targeted online professional development (PD) in comparison with the usual amount of PD time. We calculated the value of PD time using average teacher salaries (including benefits) in Washington State as reported by the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we divided compensation costs by the number of students per classroom in Washington's prototypical schools formula and added per-student materials, supplies, and operating costs to account for the overhead (i.e. computer and administrative costs) associated with providing PD.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	3	2245	0.020	0.037	11	0.014	0.041	17	0.143	0.002

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Dash, S., de, Kramer, R.M., O'Dwyer, L.M., Masters, J., & Russell, M. (2012). Impact of online professional development on teacher quality and student achievement in fifth grade mathematics. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education*, 45(1), 1-26.
- de Kramer, R.M., Masters, J., O'Dwyer, L.M., Dash, S., & Russell, M. (2012). Relationship of online teacher professional development to seventh-grade teachers' and students' knowledge and practices in English language arts. *Teacher Educator*, 47(3), 236-259.
- Masters, J., Magidin, K.R., O'Dwyer, L., Dash, S., & Russell, M. (2012). The effects of online teacher professional development on fourth grade students' knowledge and practices in English language arts. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education*, 20(1), 21-46.

Summer book programs: One-year intervention Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: The summer book programs included in this analysis provide free books to elementary school students. Generally, the goal of summer book programs is to increase print exposure, the number of books at home, and voluntary reading time. Books are matched to each student's reading level and area of interest and are mailed to students weekly over the summer break. The mailing includes a form for the student to complete after finishing the book. This analysis includes school-based programs only and does not include bookmobiles or public library programs. The studies included in this analysis measure the program's impact after one summer.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$494	Benefit to cost ratio	\$24.08
Participants	\$1,024	Benefits minus costs	\$1,831
Others	\$424	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$31)	benefits greater than the costs	56 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$1,910</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$79)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	\$1,831		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$1,050	\$477	\$461	\$0	\$1,988
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$8)	\$29	(\$31)	\$15	\$5
Costs of higher education	(\$18)	(\$12)	(\$6)	(\$7)	(\$43)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$40)	(\$40)
Totals	\$1,024	\$494	\$424	(\$31)	\$1,910

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

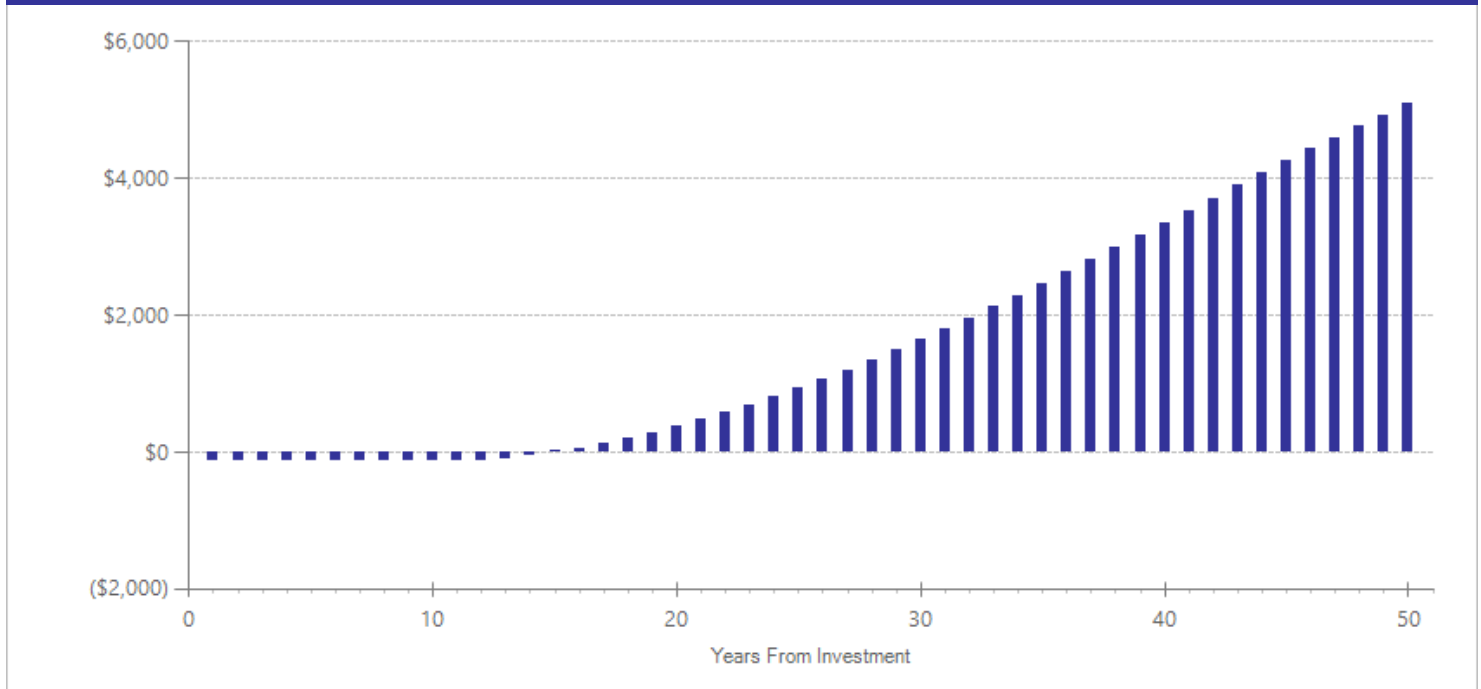
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$77	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$79)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

To calculate a per-student annual cost, we used average Washington State compensation costs (including benefits) for a K–8 teacher as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction to account for the time it takes teachers to administer the program divided by the average number of students per classroom in Washington's prototypical schools formula. In addition to compensation, the estimate accounts for the cost of purchasing and shipping ten books to each student's home.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	3	1018	0.019	0.061	10	0.013	0.067	17	0.019	0.752

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Kim, J.S. (2007). The effects of a voluntary summer reading intervention on reading activities and reading achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99(3), 505-515.
- Kim, J.S., & White, T.G. (2008). Scaffolding voluntary summer reading for children in grades 3 to 5: An experimental study. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 12(1), 1-23.
- Wilkins, C., Gersten, R., Decker, L. E., Grunden, L., Brasiel, S., Brunnert, K., & Jayanthi, M. (2012). *Does a Summer Reading Program Based on Lexiles Affect Reading Comprehension?* Final Report (NCEE 2012-4006). Washington DC: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance.

First Step to Success Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated May 2015.

Program Description: First Step to Success is an early intervention program for students at risk for behavior problems. The program has three components: universal screening, classroom intervention, and home-based intervention. In the classroom intervention, behavior coaches and teachers provide visual cues to identified students to indicate when the student is on-task and exhibiting appropriate behaviors. Students earn points and may receive rewards if they meet their daily goal. In the home-based component, the behavior coach conducts six weekly home-visits and works with families to teach parenting skills and encourage collaboration between the home and the school. The intervention typically runs for three months.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$640	Benefit to cost ratio	\$3.89
Participants	\$1,364	Benefits minus costs	\$1,735
Others	\$626	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$295)	benefits greater than the costs	53 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$2,335</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$600)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	\$1,735		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Crime	\$0	\$5	\$11	\$3	\$19
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$1,383	\$628	\$602	\$0	\$2,613
K-12 grade repetition	\$0	\$1	\$0	\$0	\$1
K-12 special education	\$0	\$5	\$0	\$3	\$8
Health care associated with disruptive behavior disorder	\$5	\$16	\$20	\$8	\$50
Costs of higher education	(\$24)	(\$16)	(\$7)	(\$8)	(\$55)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$301)	(\$301)
Totals	\$1,364	\$640	\$626	(\$295)	\$2,335

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

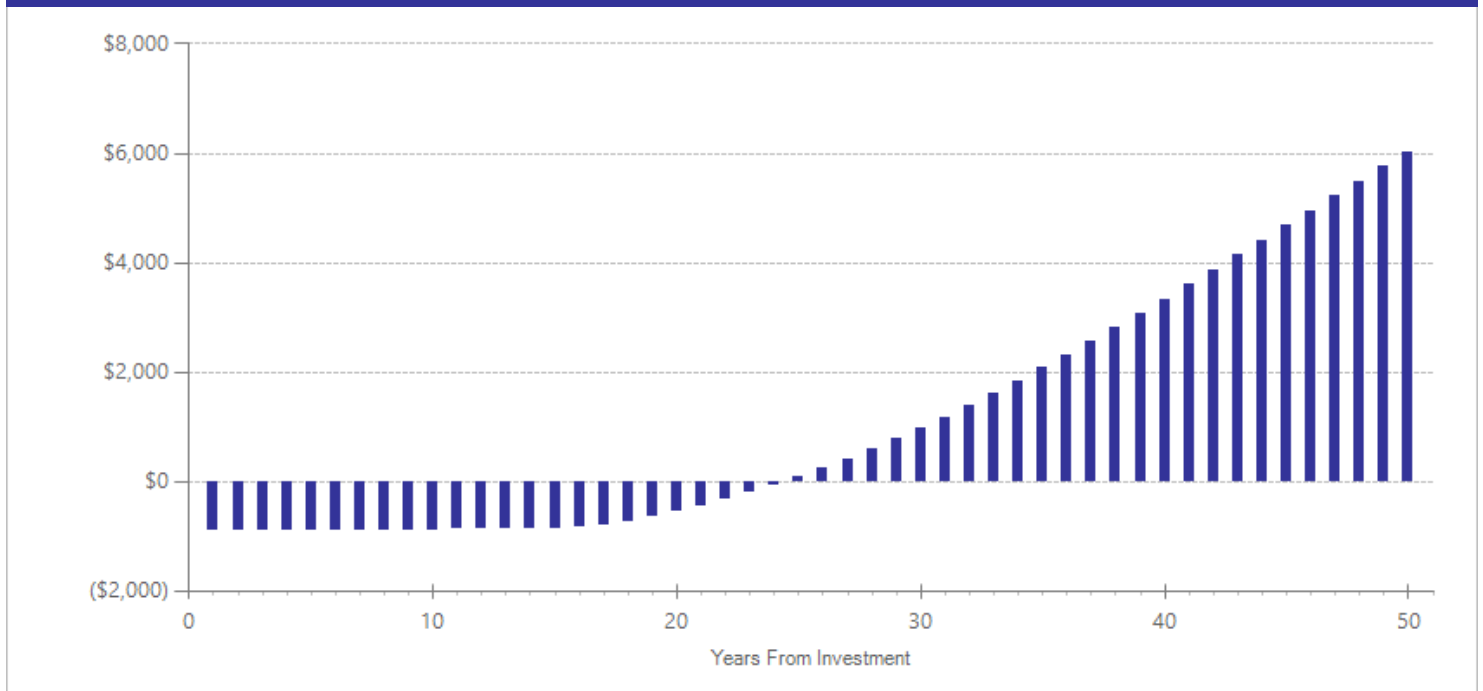
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$500	2005	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$600)
Comparison costs	\$0	2005	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

This program is typically implemented over a three-month period. Per-student cost information is based on program materials and behavior coach time, as documented in Walker, H.M., Golly, A., McLane, J.Z., & Kimmich, M. (2005). The Oregon First Step to Success replication initiative: Statewide results of an evaluation of program's impact. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 13*(3), 163–172.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Disruptive behavior disorder symptoms	1	23	-0.105	0.298	5	-0.050	0.156	8	-1.066	0.001
Test scores	2	243	0.033	0.114	8	0.018	0.125	17	0.022	0.847

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Sumi, W.C., Woodbridge, M.W., Javitz, H.S., Thornton, S.P., Wagner, M., Rouspil, . . . & Sevenson, H.H. (2013). Assessing the effectiveness of First Step to Success: Are short-term results the first step to long-term behavioral improvements?. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 21(1), 66-78.
- Walker, H.M., Kavanagh, K., Stiller, B., Golly, A., Sevenson, H.H., & Feil, E.D. (1998). First step to success: An early intervention approach for preventing school antisocial behavior. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 6(2), 66-80.
- Walker, H.M., Seeley, J.R., Small, J., Sevenson, H.H., Graham, B.A., Feil, E.G., & Forness, S.R. (2009). A randomized controlled trial of the First Step to Success Early Intervention: Demonstration of program efficacy outcomes in a diverse, urban school district. *Journal Of Emotional And Behavioral Disorders*, 17(4), 197-212.

Class size: reducing average class size by one student in kindergarten Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated January 2013.

Program Description: Washington State's prototypical school funding formula allocates funding for an average class size of 25.23 students in grades K–3 (RCW 28A.150.260). We estimate the benefits and costs of reducing kindergarten average class sizes by one student.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$567	Benefit to cost ratio	\$8.74
Participants	\$981	Benefits minus costs	\$1,627
Others	\$357	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$68)	benefits greater than the costs	98 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$1,837</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$210)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	\$1,627		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Crime	\$0	\$4	\$8	\$2	\$14
Labor market earnings associated with high school graduation	\$1,085	\$493	\$499	\$0	\$2,077
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$32)	\$118	(\$129)	\$59	\$17
Costs of higher education	(\$72)	(\$48)	(\$22)	(\$24)	(\$165)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$105)	(\$105)
Totals	\$981	\$567	\$357	(\$68)	\$1,837

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

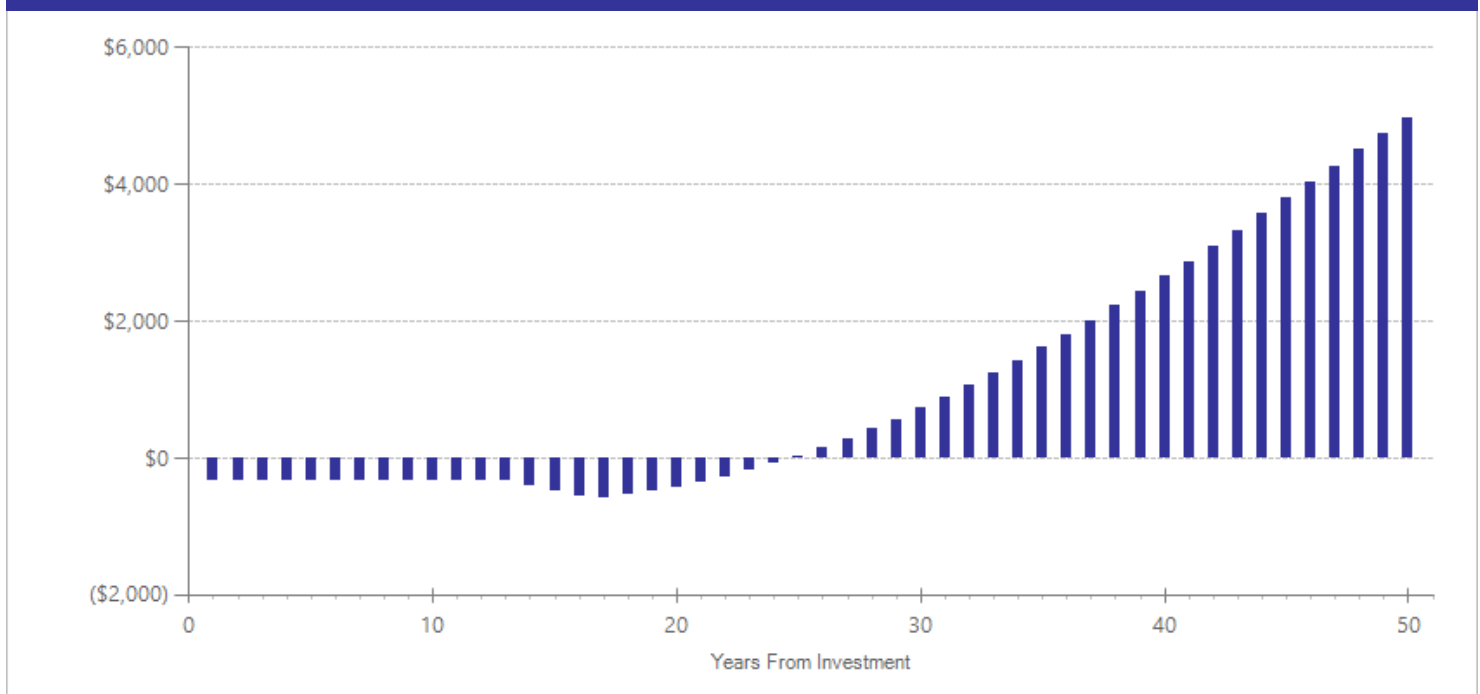
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$198	2011	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$210)
Comparison costs	\$0	2011	Cost range (+ or -)	0 %

The cost estimate accounts for state and school district teacher compensation, marginal operating, and capital costs. Annual teacher costs were calculated using the 2011-12 average total (state and local) salary for Washington certificated teachers reported in the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction School District Personnel Summary Profiles. The calculation included salaries and benefits as well as central administration and special education costs. Assumptions for capital cost calculations were provided by legislative staff, with one exception: the interest rate on bonds is from the Federal Reserve's November 2012 state and local rate. Aos, S., & Pennucci, A. (2013). *K-12 class size reductions and student outcomes: A review of the evidence and benefit-cost analysis* (Doc. No. 13-01-2201). Olympia: Washington State Institute for Public Policy.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
High school graduation	77	1000	0.015	0.005	5	0.015	0.005	17	0.015	0.005
Test scores	77	1000	0.036	0.013	5	0.011	0.005	17	0.036	0.005

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Akerhielm, K. (1995). Does class size matter? *Economics of Education Review*, 14(3), 229-241.
- Altinok, N., & Kingdon, G. (2012). New evidence on class size effects: A pupil fixed effects approach. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 74(2), 203-234.
- Angrist, J.D., & Lavy, V. (1999). Using Maimonides' Rule to estimate the effect of class size on scholastic achievement. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(2), 533-575.
- Blatchford, P., Martin, C., Moriarty, V., Bassett, P., & Goldstein, H. (2002). *Pupil adult ratio differences and educational progress over reception and Key Stage 1 (Research Report No. 335)*. London: Department for Education and Skills.
- Bonesrønning, H. (2003). Class size effects on student achievement in Norway: Patterns and explanations. *Southern Economic Journal*, 69(4), 952-965.
- Bressoux, P., Kramarz, F., & Prost, C. (2008). *Teachers' training, class size and students' outcomes: Learning from administrative forecasting mistakes [IZA Working paper]*. Bonn: Institute for the Study of Labor.
- Browning, M., & Heinesen, E. (2007). Class size, teacher hours and educational attainment. *The Scandinavian Journal of Economics*, 109(2), 415-438.
- Buddin, R., & Zamarro, G. (2009). Teacher qualifications and student achievement in urban elementary schools. *Journal of Urban Economics*, 66(2), 103-115.
- Burke, M. & Sass, T. (2011). *Classroom peer effects and student achievement*. Boston, MA: Federal Reserve Bank of Boston.
- Chetty, R., Friedman, N., Hilger, N., Saez, E., Schanzenbach, D., & Yagan, D. (2010). *How does your kindergarten classroom affect your earnings? Evidence from Project STAR*.
- Cho, H., Glewwe, P., & Whitley, M. (2012). Do reductions in class size raise students' test scores? Evidence from population variation in Minnesota's elementary schools. *Economics of Education Review*, 31(3), 77-95.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2010). Teacher credentials and student achievement in high school: A cross-subject analysis with student fixed effects. *Journal of Human Resource*, 45(3), 655-681.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2006). Teacher-student matching and the assessment of teacher effectiveness. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 41(4), 778-820.
- Croninger, R.G., Rice, J.K., Rathbun, A., & Nishio, M. (2007). Teacher qualifications and early learning: Effects of certification, degree, and experience on first-grade student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 26(3), 312-324.
- Dearden, L., Ferri, J., & Meghir, C. (2002). The effect of school quality on educational attainment and wages. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 84(1), 1-20.
- Dee, T.S., & West, M.R. (2011). The non-cognitive returns to class size. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 33(1), 23-46.
- Dobbelsteen, S., Levin, J., & Oosterbeek, H. (2002). The causal effect of class size on scholastic achievement: Distinguishing the pure class size effect from the effect of changes in class composition. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 64(1), 17-38.
- Eberts, R.W., & Stone, J.A. (1987). Teacher unions and the productivity of public schools. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 40(3), 354-363.
- Ecalte, J., Magnan, A., & Gibert, F. (2006). Class size effects on literacy skills and literacy interest in first grade: A large-scale investigation. *Journal of School Psychology*, 44(3), 191-209.
- Feinstein, L., & Symons, J. (1999). Attainment in secondary school. *Oxford Economic Papers*, 51(2), 300-321.
- Ferguson, R.F., & Ladd, H.F. (1996). How and why money matters: An analysis of Alabama schools. In H. F. Ladd (Ed.), *Holding schools accountable: Performance based reform in education* (pp. 265-298). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Fredricksson, P., & Öckert, B. (2008). Resources and student achievement – Evidence from a Swedish policy reform. *The Scandinavian Journal of Economics*, 110(2), 277-296.
- Fredriksson, P., Öckert, B., & Oosterbeek, H. (2012). *Long-term effects of class size*. Uppsala: IFAU.
- Fuchs, T., & Wößmann, L. (2007). What accounts for international differences in student performance? A re-examination using PISA data. *Empirical Economics*, 32(2), 433-464.
- Goldhaber, D.D., & Brewer, D.J. (1997). Why don't schools and teachers seem to matter? Assessing the impact of unobservables on educational productivity. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 32(3), 505-523.
- Grissmer, D. W., & Flanagan, A. (2006). *Improving the achievement of Tennessee students: Analysis of the National Assessment of Education Progress*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND.

- Hægeland, T., Raaum, O., & Salvanes, K.G. (2005). *Pupil achievement, school resources and family background* (IZA Discussion Paper No. 1459). Bonn, Germany: Institute for the Study of Labor.
- Harris, D.N., & Sass, T.R. (2011). Teacher training, teacher quality and student achievement. *Journal of Public Economics*, 95(7- 8), 798-812.
- Hoxby, C.M. (2000). The effects of class size on student achievement: New evidence from population variation. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 115(4), 1239-1285.
- Iacovou, M. (2002). Class size in the early years: Is smaller really better?. *Education Economics*, 10(3), 261-290.
- Jakubowski, M., & Sakowski, P. (2006). *Quasi-experimental estimates of class size effect in primary schools in Poland* (Working Paper?). Poland: Warsaw University, Faculty of Economics.
- Jepsen, C., & Rivkin, S. (2002). *Class size reduction, teacher quality, and academic achievement in California public elementary schools*. San Francisco: Public Policy Institute of California.
- Krieg, J.M. (2006). Teacher quality and attrition. *Economics of Education Review*, 25(1), 13-27.
- Krueger, A.B. (1999). Experimental estimates of education production functions. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(2), 497-532.
- Lee, J.-W., & Barro, R.J. (2001). Schooling quality in a cross-section of countries. *Economica*, 68, 465-488.
- Lee, J., & Reeves, T. (2012). Revisiting the impact of NCLB high-stakes school accountability, capacity, and resources: State NAEP 1990-2009 reading and math achievement gaps and trends. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 34(2), 209-231.
- Li, M. (2007). Bayesian proportional hazard analysis of the timing of high school dropout decisions. *Econometric Reviews*, 26(5), 529-556.
- Long, M.C. (2006). *Secondary school characteristics and early adult outcomes* (Working Paper No. 2006-06). Seattle: University of Washington, Daniel J. Evans School of Public Affairs.
- Milesi, C., & Gamoran, A. (2006). Effects of class size and instruction on kindergarten achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 28(4), 287-313.
- Molnar, A., Smith, P., Zahorik, J., Palmer, A., Halbach, A., & Ehrle, K. (1999). Evaluating the SAGE program: A pilot program in targeted pupil-teacher reduction in Wisconsin. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 21(2), 165-177.
- NICHD Early Child Care Research Network. (2004). Does class size in first grade relate to children's academic and social performance or observed classroom processes? *Developmental Psychology*, 40(5), 651-664.
- Pirog, M.A., & Magee, C. (1997). High school completion: The influence of schools, families, and adolescent parenting. *Social Science Quarterly*, 78(3), 710-724.
- Pong, S.-i., & Pallas, A. (2001). Class size and eighth-grade math achievement in the United States and abroad. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 23(3), 251-273.
- Ready, D.D., & Lee, V.E. (2006). Optimal context size in elementary schools: Disentangling the effects of class size and school size. In T. Loveless & F. M. Hess (Eds.), *Brookings papers on education policy, 2006/2007* (pp. 99-135). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Rivkin, S.G., Hanushek, E.A., & Kain, J.F. (2005). Teachers, schools, and academic achievement. *Econometrica*, 73(2), 417-458.
- Rumberger, R.W., & Thomas, S.L. (2000). The distribution of dropout and turnover rates among urban and suburban high schools. *Sociology of Education*, 73(1), 39-67.
- Steele, F., Vignoles, A., & Jenkins, A. (2007). The effect of school resources on pupil attainment: A multilevel simultaneous equation modelling approach. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series A (Statistics in Society)*, 170(3), 801-824.
- Todd, P.E., & Wolpin, K.I. (2007). The production of cognitive achievement in children: Home, school and racial test score gaps. *Journal of Human Capital*, 1(1), 91-136.
- Urquiola, M. (2006). Identifying class size effects in developing countries: Evidence from rural Bolivia. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 88(1), 171-177.
- Valdenaire, M. (2006). *Do younger pupils need smaller classes? Evidence from France (Preliminary Draft)*. Paris: Paris- jourdan Sciences Economiques.
- Waldfogel, J., & Zhai, F. (2008). Effects of public preschool expenditures on the test scores of 4th graders: Evidence from TIMSS. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 14, 9-28.
- Wilson, K. (2001). The determinants of educational attainment: Modeling and estimating the human capital model and education production functions. *Southern Economic Journal*, 67(3), 518-551.
- Washington State Institute for Public Policy. (2013). *The Institute's state-level fixed effects analysis of NAEP and CCD data is reported in this Technical Appendix*.

Summer book programs: One-year intervention, with additional support Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: The summer book programs included in this analysis provide free books to elementary school students paired with additional reading support (e.g., lessons from certified teachers). Generally, the goal of summer book programs is to increase print exposure, the number of books at home, and voluntary reading time. Books are matched to each student's reading level and area of interest and are mailed to students weekly over the summer break. The mailing includes a form for the student to complete after finishing the book. This analysis includes school-based programs only and does not include bookmobiles or public library programs. The studies included in this analysis measure the program's impact after one summer.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:

Taxpayers	\$257	Benefit to cost ratio	\$8.19
Participants	\$534	Benefits minus costs	\$845
Others	\$227	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$55)	benefits greater than the costs	57 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$963</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$118)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	\$845		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to:¹

Benefits to:

	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$548	\$249	\$246	\$0	\$1,043
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$4)	\$15	(\$16)	\$7	\$2
Costs of higher education	(\$10)	(\$7)	(\$3)	(\$3)	(\$23)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$59)	(\$59)
<u>Totals</u>	<u>\$534</u>	<u>\$257</u>	<u>\$227</u>	<u>(\$55)</u>	<u>\$963</u>

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

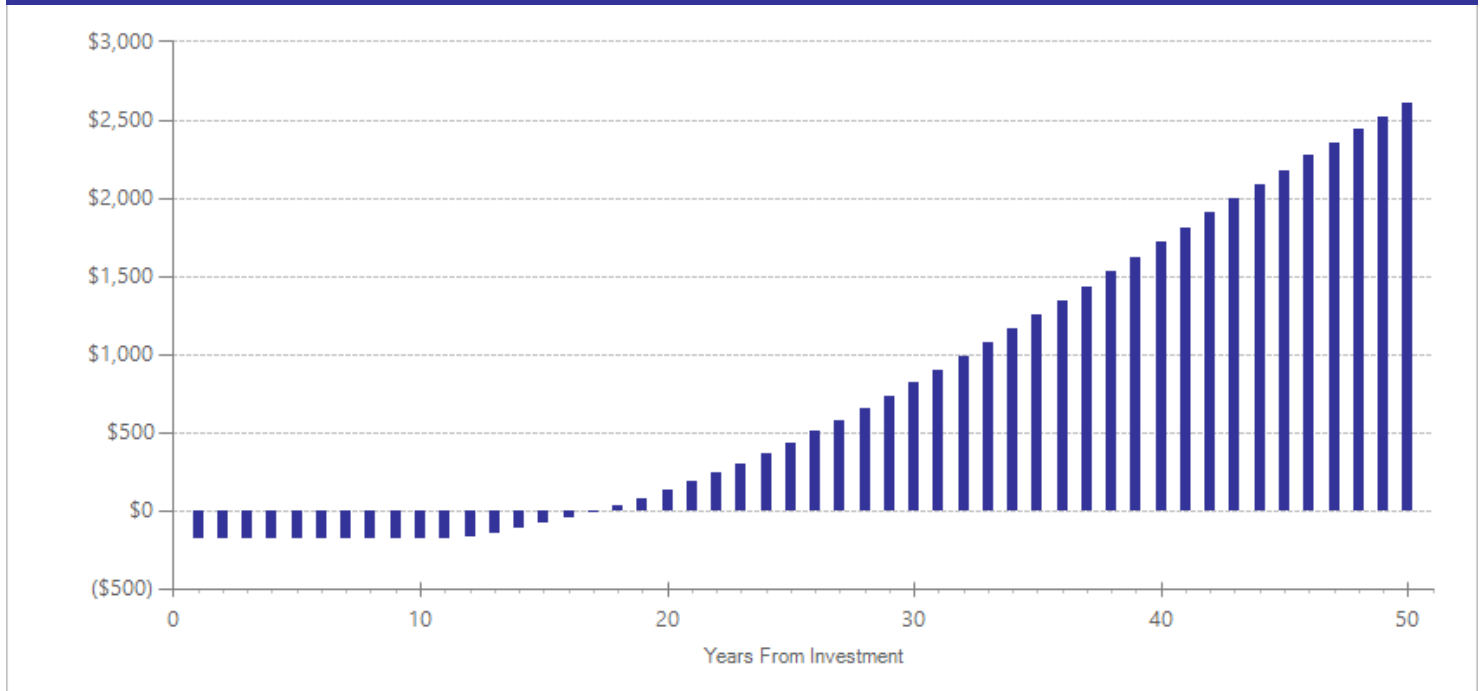
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$114	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$118)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

To calculate a per-student annual cost, we used average Washington State compensation costs (including benefits) for a K–8 teacher as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction to account for class time and time to administer the program divided by the average number of students per classroom in Washington’s prototypical schools formula. In addition to compensation, the estimate accounts for the cost of purchasing and shipping ten books to each student’s home. The costs do not include parent time for involvement in reading instruction.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	5	3340	0.010	0.026	10	0.007	0.029	17	0.021	0.419

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Guryan, J., Kim, J.S., & Quinn, D.M. (2014). *Does reading during the summer build reading skills? Evidence from a randomized experiment in 463 classrooms* (NBER Working Paper 20689). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Kim, J.S. (2006). Effects of a voluntary summer reading intervention on reading achievement: Results from a randomized field trial. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 28*(4), 335-355.
- Kim, J.S., & Guryan, J. (2010). The efficacy of a voluntary summer book reading intervention for low-income Latino children from language minority families. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 102*(1), 20-31.
- Kim, J.S., & White, T.G. (2008). Scaffolding voluntary summer reading for children in grades 3 to 5: An experimental study. *Scientific Studies of Reading, 12*(1), 1-23.
- Pagan, S. (2010). *Children reading for pleasure: Investigating predictors of reading achievement and the efficacy of a paired-reading intervention to foster children's literacy skills*. (Doctoral dissertation, Carleton University, 2010, UMI No. NR70556).

Tutoring: Supplemental Educational Services (under Title I)

Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated May 2015.

Program Description: Current federal education law directs school districts who do not make "Adequate Yearly Progress" toward student proficiency standards to provide "Supplemental Educational Services"—primarily out-of-school-time tutoring—to eligible students at no charge to students and their families. Providers of SES include local and national for-profit and non-profit organizations as well as school districts themselves (unless they are identified as "in need of improvement" under AYP or have a waiver). Delivery methods (e.g., one-on-one, group, or online) vary; the amount of tutoring ranges from approximately 20 to 40 hours. This analysis estimates the impact of offering SES in school districts throughout the United States on reading and math test scores.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$838	Benefit to cost ratio	\$1.44
Participants	\$1,726	Benefits minus costs	\$744
Others	\$702	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$830)	benefits greater than the costs	58 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$2,436</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$1,692)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	\$744		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$1,782	\$809	\$793	\$0	\$3,385
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$20)	\$72	(\$79)	\$36	\$10
Costs of higher education	(\$37)	(\$44)	(\$12)	(\$22)	(\$115)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$844)	(\$844)
Totals	\$1,726	\$838	\$702	(\$830)	\$2,436

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

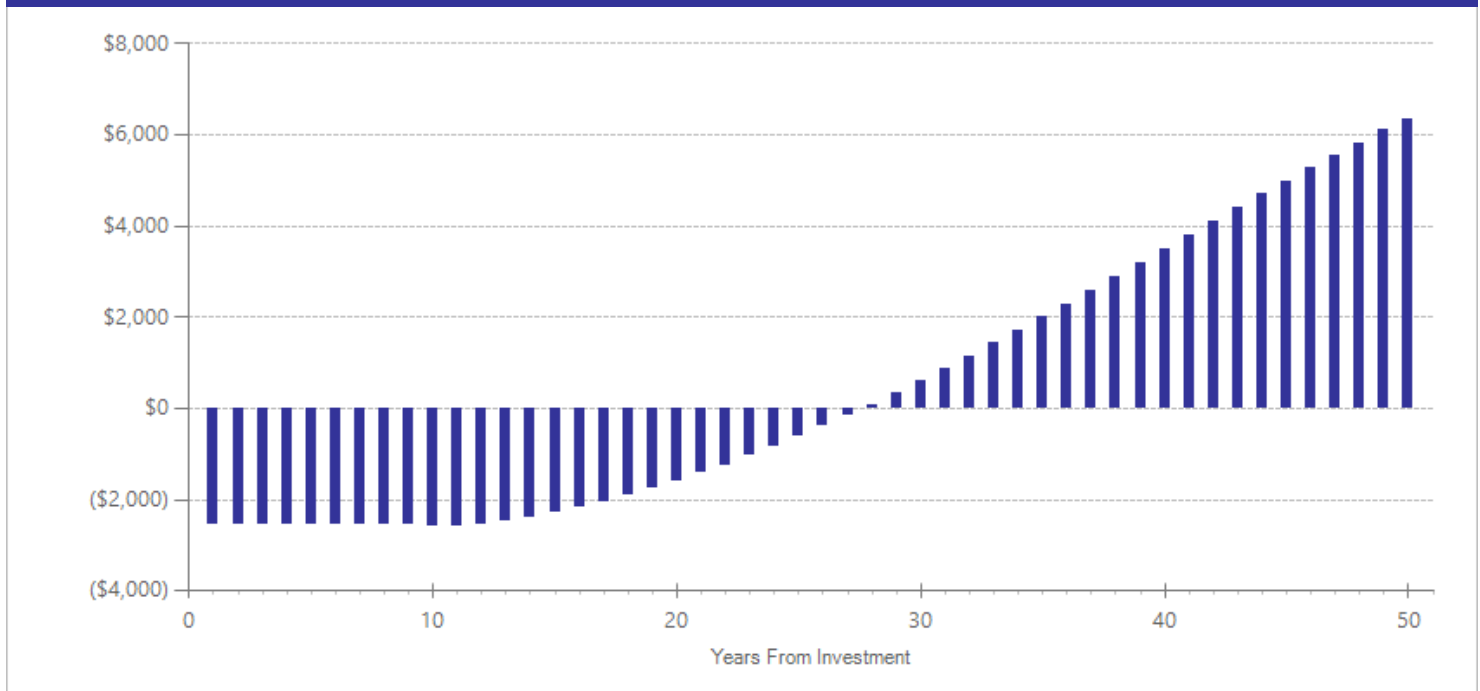
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$1,550	2010	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$1,692)
Comparison costs	\$0	2010	Cost range (+ or -)	30 %

Average costs are estimated in the range (\$1,100 to \$2,000) reported in Heinrich, C.J., Burch, P., Good, A., Acosta, R., Cheng, H., Dillender, M., Kirshbaum, C., . . . Stewart, M. (2014). Improving the implementation and effectiveness of out-of-school time tutoring. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 1-34.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	22	293256	0.029	0.010	11	0.021	0.011	17	0.029	0.006

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Deke, J., Gill, B., Dragoset, L., & Bogen, K. (2014). Effectiveness of Supplemental Educational Services. *Journal of Research on Educational Effectiveness*, 7(2), 137-165.
- Heinrich, C.J., Burch, P., Good, A., Acosta, R., Cheng, H., Dillender, M., . . . Stewart, M. (2014). Improving the implementation and effectiveness of out-of-school time tutoring. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 1-34.
- Munoz, M.A., Potter, A.P., & Ross, S.M. (2008). Supplemental Educational Services as a consequence of the NCLB legislation: Evaluating its impact on student achievement in a large urban district. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, 13(1), 1-25.
- Munoz, M.A., Chang, F., & Ross, S.M. (2012). No Child Left Behind and tutoring in reading and mathematics: Impact of Supplemental Educational Services on large scale assessment. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, 17(3), 186-200.
- Springer, M.G., Pepper, M.J., & Ghosh-Dastidar, B. (2014). Supplemental Educational Services and student test score gains: Evidence from a large, urban school district. Working Paper. *Journal of Education Finance*, 39(4), 370-403.
- Zimmer, R., Gill, B., Razquin, P., Booker, K., & Lockwood, J.R. (2007). *State and local implementation of the No Child Left Behind Act: Volume I - Title I school choice, supplemental educational services, and student achievement*. Washington DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Planning, Evaluation, and Policy Development, Policy and Program Studies Service.
- Zimmer, R., Hamilton, L., & Christina, R. (2010). After-school tutoring in the context of No Child Left Behind: Effectiveness of two programs in the Pittsburgh Public Schools. *Economics of Education Review*, 29(1), 18-28.

Class size: reducing average class size by one student in grade 1 Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated January 2013.

Program Description: Washington State's prototypical school funding formula allocates funding for an average class size of 25.23 students in grades K–3 (RCW 28A.150.260). We estimate the benefits and costs of reducing 1st grade average class sizes by one student.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$309	Benefit to cost ratio	\$4.53
Participants	\$534	Benefits minus costs	\$741
Others	\$193	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$85)	benefits greater than the costs	89 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$951</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$210)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	\$741		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Crime	\$0	\$2	\$5	\$1	\$8
Labor market earnings associated with high school graduation	\$592	\$269	\$271	\$0	\$1,132
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$18)	\$65	(\$70)	\$32	\$9
Costs of higher education	(\$40)	(\$27)	(\$12)	(\$13)	(\$92)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$106)	(\$106)
Totals	\$534	\$309	\$193	(\$85)	\$951

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

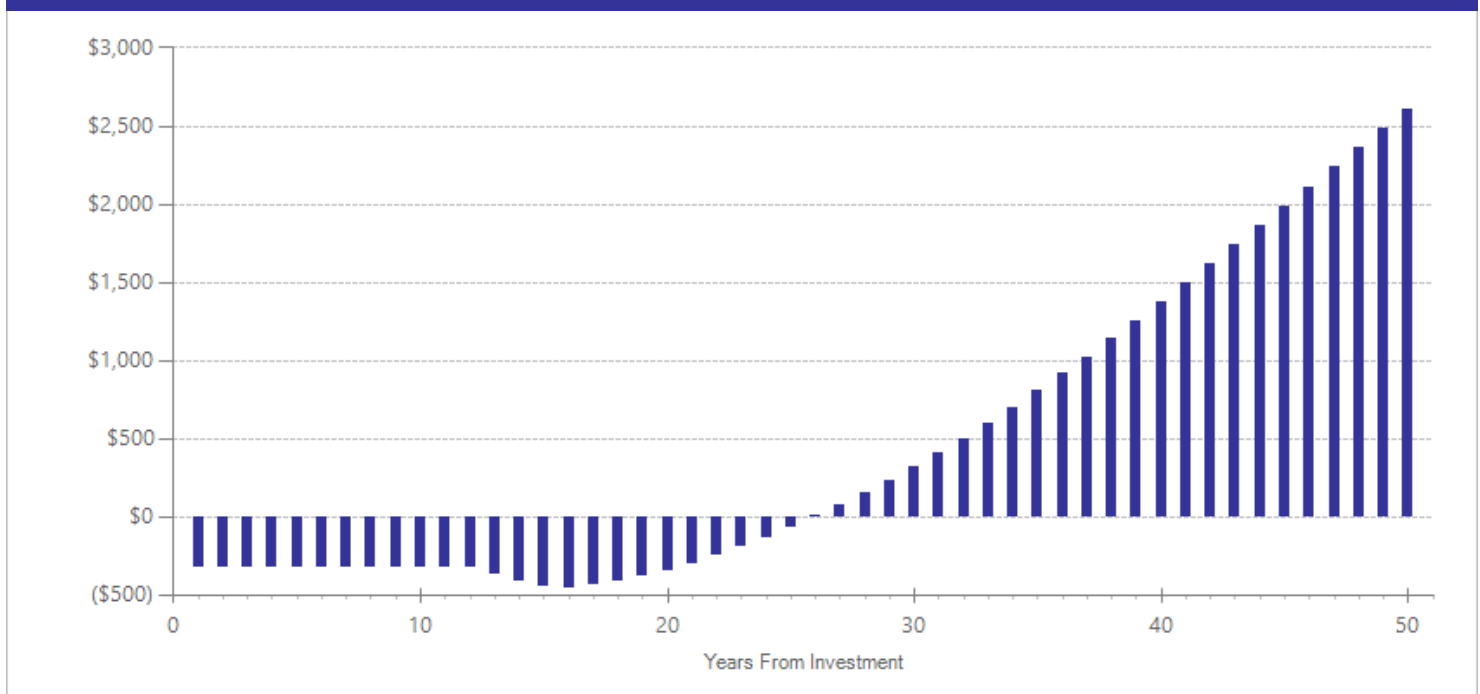
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$198	2011	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$210)
Comparison costs	\$0	2011	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

The cost estimate accounts for state and school district teacher compensation, marginal operating, and capital costs. Annual teacher costs were calculated using the 2011-12 average total (state and local) salary for Washington certificated teachers reported in the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction School District Personnel Summary Profiles. The calculation includes salaries and benefits as well as central administration and special education costs. Assumptions for capital cost calculations were provided by legislative staff, with one exception: the interest rate on bonds is from the Federal Reserve's November 2012 state and local rate. Aos, S., & Pennucci, A. (2013). *K-12 class size reductions and student outcomes: A review of the evidence and benefit-cost analysis* (Doc. No. 13-01-2201). Olympia: Washington State Institute for Public Policy.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
High school graduation	77	1000	0.008	0.004	6	0.008	0.004	17	0.008	0.163
Test scores	77	1000	0.018	0.010	6	0.007	0.005	17	0.018	0.059

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Akerhielm, K. (1995). Does class size matter?. *Economics of Education Review*, 14(3), 229-241.
- Altinok, N., & Kingdon, G. (2012). New evidence on class size effects: A pupil fixed effects approach. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 74(2), 203-234.
- Angrist, J. D., & Lavy, V. (1999). Using Maimonides' Rule to estimate the effect of class size on scholastic achievement. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(2), 533-575.
- Blatchford, P., Martin, C., Moriarty, V., Bassett, P., & Goldstein, H. (2002). *Pupil adult ratio differences and educational progress over reception and Key Stage 1* (Research Report No. 335). London: Department for Education and Skills.
- Bonesrønning, H. (2003). Class size effects on student achievement in Norway: Patterns and explanations. *Southern Economic Journal*, 69(4), 952-965.
- Bressoux, P., Kramarz, F., & Prost, C. (2008). *Teachers' training, class size and students' outcomes: Learning from administrative forecasting mistakes* [IZA Working paper]. Bonn: Institute for the Study of Labor.
- Browning, M., & Heinesen, E. (2007). Class size, teacher hours and educational attainment. *The Scandinavian Journal of Economics*, 109(2), 415-438.
- Buddin, R., & Zamarro, G. (2009). Teacher qualifications and student achievement in urban elementary schools. *Journal of Urban Economics*, 66(2), 103-115.
- Burke, M. & Sass, T. (2011). *Classroom peer effects and student achievement*. Boston, MA: Federal Reserve Bank of Boston.
- Chetty, R., Friedman, N., Hilger, N., Saez, E., Schanzenbach, D., & Yagan, D. (2010). *How does your kindergarten classroom affect your earnings? Evidence from Project STAR*.
- Cho, H., Glewwe, P., & Whitley, M. (2012). Do reductions in class size raise students' test scores? Evidence from population variation in Minnesota's elementary schools. *Economics of Education Review*, 31(3), 77-95.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2010). Teacher credentials and student achievement in high school: A cross-subject analysis with student fixed effects. *Journal of Human Resource*, 45(3), 655-681.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2006). Teacher-student matching and the assessment of teacher effectiveness. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 41(4), 778-820.
- Croninger, R.G., Rice, J.K., Rathbun, A., & Nishio, M. (2007). Teacher qualifications and early learning: Effects of certification, degree, and experience on first-grade student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 26(3), 312-324.
- Dearden, L., Ferri, J., & Meghir, C. (2002). The effect of school quality on educational attainment and wages. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 84(1), 1-20.
- Dee, T.S., & West, M.R. (2011). The non-cognitive returns to class size. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 33(1), 23-46.
- Dobbelsteen, S., Levin, J., & Oosterbeek, H. (2002). The causal effect of class size on scholastic achievement: Distinguishing the pure class size effect from the effect of changes in class composition. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 64(1), 17-38.
- Eberts, R.W., & Stone, J.A. (1987). Teacher unions and the productivity of public schools. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 40(3), 354-363.
- Ecalte, J., Magnan, A., & Gibert, F. (2006). Class size effects on literacy skills and literacy interest in first grade: A large-scale investigation. *Journal of School Psychology*, 44(3), 191-209.
- Feinstein, L., & Symons, J. (1999). Attainment in secondary school. *Oxford Economic Papers*, 51(2), 300-321.
- Ferguson, R.F., & Ladd, H.F. (1996). How and why money matters: An analysis of Alabama schools. In H. F. Ladd (Ed.), *Holding schools accountable: Performance based reform in education* (pp. 265-298). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Fredricksson, P., & Öckert, B. (2008). Resources and student achievement – Evidence from a Swedish policy reform. *The Scandinavian Journal of Economics*, 110(2), 277-296.
- Fredriksson, P., Öckert, B., & Oosterbeek, H. (2012). *Long-term effects of class size*. Uppsala: IFAU.
- Fuchs, T., & Wößmann, L. (2007). What accounts for international differences in student performance? A re-examination using PISA data. *Empirical Economics*, 32(2), 433-464.
- Goldhaber, D.D., & Brewer, D.J. (1997). Why don't schools and teachers seem to matter? Assessing the impact of unobservables on educational productivity. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 32(3), 505-523.
- Grissmer, D.W., & Flanagan, A. (2006). *Improving the achievement of Tennessee students: Analysis of the National Assessment of Education Progress*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND.

- Hægeland, T., Raaum, O., & Salvanes, K. G. (2005). *Pupil achievement, school resources and family background* (IZA Discussion Paper No. 1459). Bonn, Germany: Institute for the Study of Labor.
- Harris, D.N., & Sass, T.R. (2011). Teacher training, teacher quality and student achievement. *Journal of Public Economics*, 95(7- 8), 798-812.
- Hoxby, C.M. (2000). The effects of class size on student achievement: New evidence from population variation. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 115(4), 1239-1285.
- Iacovou, M. (2002). Class size in the early years: Is smaller really better? *Education Economics*, 10(3), 261-290.
- Jakubowski, M., & Sakowski, P. (2006). *Quasi-experimental estimates of class size effect in primary schools in Poland* (Working Paper?). Poland: Warsaw University, Faculty of Economics.
- Jepsen, C., & Rivkin, S. (2002). *Class size reduction, teacher quality, and academic achievement in California public elementary schools*. San Francisco: Public Policy Institute of California.
- Krieg, J.M. (2006). Teacher quality and attrition. *Economics of Education Review*, 25(1), 13-27.
- Krueger, A.B. (1999). Experimental estimates of education production functions. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(2), 497-532.
- Lee, J.-W., & Barro, R.J. (2001). Schooling quality in a cross-section of countries. *Economica*, 68, 465-488.
- Lee, J., & Reeves, T. (2012). Revisiting the impact of NCLB high-stakes school accountability, capacity, and resources: State NAEP 1990-2009 reading and math achievement gaps and trends. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 34(2), 209-231.
- Li, M. (2007). Bayesian proportional hazard analysis of the timing of high school dropout decisions. *Econometric Reviews*, 26(5), 529-556.
- Long, M. C. (2006). *Secondary school characteristics and early adult outcomes* (Working Paper No. 2006-06). Seattle: University of Washington, Daniel J. Evans School of Public Affairs.
- Milesi, C., & Gamoran, A. (2006). Effects of class size and instruction on kindergarten achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 28(4), 287-313.
- Molnar, A., Smith, P., Zahorik, J., Palmer, A., Halbach, A., & Ehrle, K. (1999). Evaluating the SAGE program: A pilot program in targeted pupil-teacher reduction in Wisconsin. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 21(2), 165-177.
- NICHD Early Child Care Research Network. (2004). Does class size in first grade relate to children's academic and social performance or observed classroom processes?. *Developmental Psychology*, 40(5), 651-664.
- Pirog, M.A., & Magee, C. (1997). High school completion: The influence of schools, families, and adolescent parenting. *Social Science Quarterly*, 78(3), 710-724.
- Pong, S.-i., & Pallas, A. (2001). Class size and eighth-grade math achievement in the United States and abroad. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 23(3), 251-273.
- Ready, D.D., & Lee, V.E. (2006). Optimal context size in elementary schools: Disentangling the effects of class size and school size. In T. Loveless & F. M. Hess (Eds.), *Brookings papers on education policy, 2006/2007* (pp. 99-135). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Rivkin, S. G., Hanushek, E. A., & Kain, J. F. (2005). Teachers, schools, and academic achievement. *Econometrica*, 73(2), 417-458.
- Rumberger, R. W., & Thomas, S. L. (2000). The distribution of dropout and turnover rates among urban and suburban high schools. *Sociology of Education*, 73(1), 39-67.
- Steele, F., Vignoles, A., & Jenkins, A. (2007). The effect of school resources on pupil attainment: A multilevel simultaneous equation modelling approach. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series A (Statistics in Society)*, 170(3), 801-824.
- Todd, P.E., & Wolpin, K.I. (2007). The production of cognitive achievement in children: Home, school and racial test score gaps. *Journal of Human Capital*, 1(1), 91-136.
- Urquiola, M. (2006). Identifying class size effects in developing countries: Evidence from rural Bolivia. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 88(1), 171-177.
- Valdenaire, M. (2006). *Do younger pupils need smaller classes? Evidence from France* (Preliminary Draft). Paris: Paris- jourdan Sciences Economiques.
- Waldfogel, J., & Zhai, F. (2008). Effects of public preschool expenditures on the test scores of 4th graders: Evidence from TIMSS. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 14, 9-28.
- Wilson, K. (2001). The determinants of educational attainment: Modeling and estimating the human capital model and education production functions. *Southern Economic Journal*, 67(3), 518-551.
- Washington State Institute for Public Policy (2013). *The Institute's state-level fixed effects analysis of NAEP and CCD data is reported in this Technical Appendix*.

Class size: reducing average class size by one student in grade 2 Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated January 2013.

Program Description: Washington State's prototypical school funding formula allocates funding for an average class size of 25.23 students in grades K–3 (RCW 28A.150.260). We estimate the benefits and costs of reducing 2nd grade average class sizes by one student.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$205	Benefit to cost ratio	\$2.85
Participants	\$355	Benefits minus costs	\$388
Others	\$123	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$86)	benefits greater than the costs	67 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$598</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$210)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	\$388		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Crime	\$0	\$1	\$3	\$1	\$5
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$366	\$166	\$162	\$0	\$693
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$10)	\$38	(\$41)	\$19	\$5
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$105)	(\$105)
Totals	\$355	\$205	\$123	(\$86)	\$598

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

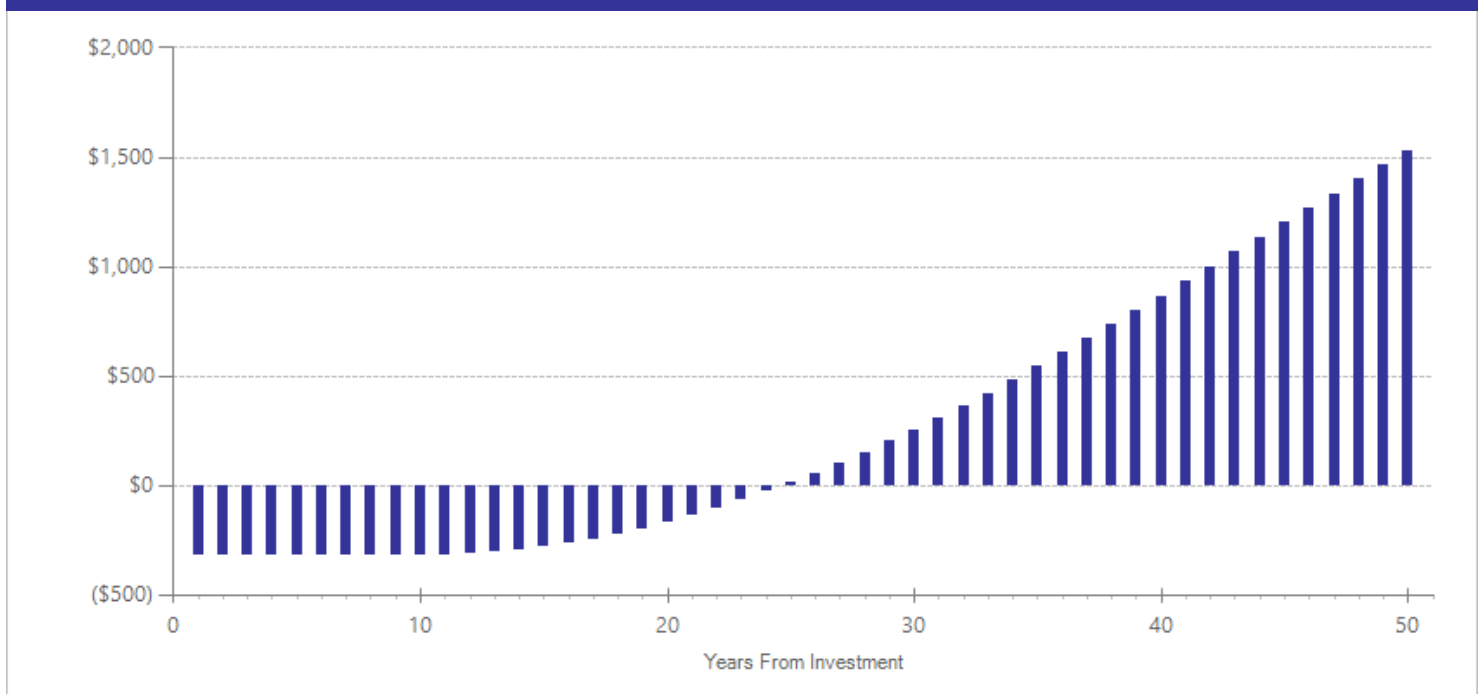
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$198	2011	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$210)
Comparison costs	\$0	2011	Cost range (+ or -)	0 %

The cost estimate accounts for state and school district teacher compensation, marginal operating, and capital costs. Annual teacher costs are calculated using the 2011-12 average total (state and local) salary for Washington certificated teachers reported in the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction School District Personnel Summary Profiles. The calculation includes salaries and benefits as well as central administration and special education costs. Assumptions for capital cost calculations were provided by legislative staff, with one exception: the interest rate on bonds is from the Federal Reserve's November 2012 state and local rate. Aos, S., & Pennucci, A. (2013). *K-12 class size reductions and student outcomes: A review of the evidence and benefit-cost analysis* (Doc. No. 13-01-2201). Olympia: Washington State Institute for Public Policy.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
High school graduation	77	1000	0.005	0.004	7	0.005	0.004	17	0.005	0.204
Test scores	77	1000	0.010	0.009	7	0.005	0.005	17	0.010	0.286

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Akerhielm, K. (1995). Does class size matter?. *Economics of Education Review*, 14(3), 229-241.
- Altinok, N., & Kingdon, G. (2012). New evidence on class size effects: A pupil fixed effects approach. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 74(2), 203-234.
- Angrist, J.D., & Lavy, V. (1999). Using Maimonides' Rule to estimate the effect of class size on scholastic achievement. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(2), 533-575.
- Blatchford, P., Martin, C., Moriarty, V., Bassett, P., & Goldstein, H. (2002). *Pupil adult ratio differences and educational progress over reception and Key Stage 1 (Research Report No. 335)*. London: Department for Education and Skills.
- Bonesrønning, H. (2003). Class size effects on student achievement in Norway: Patterns and explanations. *Southern Economic Journal*, 69(4), 952-965.
- Bressoux, P., Kramarz, F., & Prost, C. (2008). *Teachers' training, class size and students' outcomes: Learning from administrative forecasting mistakes* [IZA Working paper]. Bonn: Institute for the Study of Labor.
- Browning, M., & Heinesen, E. (2007). Class size, teacher hours and educational attainment. *The Scandinavian Journal of Economics*, 109(2), 415-438.
- Buddin, R., & Zamarro, G. (2009). Teacher qualifications and student achievement in urban elementary schools. *Journal of Urban Economics*, 66(2), 103-115.
- Burke, M. & Sass, T. (2011). *Classroom peer effects and student achievement*. Boston, MA: Federal Reserve Bank of Boston.
- Chetty, R., Friedman, N., Hilger, N., Saez, E., Schanzenbach, D., & Yagan, D. (2010). *How does your kindergarten classroom affect your earnings? Evidence from Project STAR*.
- Cho, H., Glewwe, P., & Whitley, M. (2012). Do reductions in class size raise students' test scores? Evidence from population variation in Minnesota's elementary schools. *Economics of Education Review*, 31(3), 77-95.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2010). Teacher credentials and student achievement in high school: A cross-subject analysis with student fixed effects. *Journal of Human Resource*, 45(3), 655-681.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2006). Teacher-student matching and the assessment of teacher effectiveness. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 41(4), 778-820.
- Croninger, R.G., Rice, J.K., Rathbun, A., & Nishio, M. (2007). Teacher qualifications and early learning: Effects of certification, degree, and experience on first-grade student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 26(3), 312-324.
- Dearden, L., Ferri, J., & Meghir, C. (2002). The effect of school quality on educational attainment and wages. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 84(1), 1-20.
- Dee, T.S., & West, M.R. (2011). The non-cognitive returns to class size. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 33(1), 23-46.
- Dobbelsteen, S., Levin, J., & Oosterbeek, H. (2002). The causal effect of class size on scholastic achievement: Distinguishing the pure class size effect from the effect of changes in class composition. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 64(1), 17-38.
- Eberts, R.W., & Stone, J.A. (1987). Teacher unions and the productivity of public schools. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 40(3), 354-363.
- Ecalte, J., Magnan, A., & Gibert, F. (2006). Class size effects on literacy skills and literacy interest in first grade: A large-scale investigation. *Journal of School Psychology*, 44(3), 191-209.
- Feinstein, L., & Symons, J. (1999). Attainment in secondary school. *Oxford Economic Papers*, 51(2), 300-321.
- Ferguson, R.F., & Ladd, H.F. (1996). How and why money matters: An analysis of Alabama schools. In H. F. Ladd (Ed.), *Holding schools accountable: Performance based reform in education* (pp. 265-298). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Fredricksson, P., & Öckert, B. (2008). Resources and student achievement – Evidence from a Swedish policy reform. *The Scandinavian Journal of Economics*, 110(2), 277-296.
- Fredriksson, P., Öckert, B., & Oosterbeek, H. (2012). *Long-term effects of class size*. Uppsala: IFAU.
- Fuchs, T., & Wößmann, L. (2007). What accounts for international differences in student performance? A re-examination using PISA data. *Empirical Economics*, 32(2), 433-464.
- Goldhaber, D.D., & Brewer, D.J. (1997). Why don't schools and teachers seem to matter? Assessing the impact of unobservables on educational productivity. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 32(3), 505-523.
- Grissmer, D.W., & Flanagan, A. (2006). *Improving the achievement of Tennessee students: Analysis of the National Assessment of Education Progress*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND.

- Hægeland, T., Raaum, O., & Salvanes, K.G. (2005). *Pupil achievement, school resources and family background* (IZA Discussion Paper No. 1459). Bonn, Germany: Institute for the Study of Labor.
- Harris, D.N., & Sass, T.R. (2011). Teacher training, teacher quality and student achievement. *Journal of Public Economics*, 95(7- 8), 798-812.
- Hoxby, C.M. (2000). The effects of class size on student achievement: New evidence from population variation. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 115(4), 1239-1285.
- Iacovou, M. (2002). Class size in the early years: Is smaller really better?. *Education Economics*, 10(3), 261-290.
- Jakubowski, M., & Sakowski, P. (2006). *Quasi-experimental estimates of class size effect in primary schools in Poland* (Working Paper?). Poland: Warsaw University, Faculty of Economics.
- Jepsen, C., & Rivkin, S. (2002). *Class size reduction, teacher quality, and academic achievement in California public elementary schools*. San Francisco: Public Policy Institute of California.
- Krieg, J.M. (2006). Teacher quality and attrition. *Economics of Education Review*, 25(1), 13-27.
- Krueger, A.B. (1999). Experimental estimates of education production functions. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(2), 497-532.
- Lee, J.-W., & Barro, R.J. (2001). Schooling quality in a cross-section of countries. *Economica*, 68, 465-488.
- Lee, J., & Reeves, T. (2012). Revisiting the impact of NCLB high-stakes school accountability, capacity, and resources: State NAEP 1990-2009 reading and math achievement gaps and trends. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 34(2), 209-231.
- Li, M. (2007). Bayesian proportional hazard analysis of the timing of high school dropout decisions. *Econometric Reviews*, 26(5), 529-556.
- Long, M.C. (2006). *Secondary school characteristics and early adult outcomes* (Working Paper No. 2006-06). Seattle: University of Washington, Daniel J. Evans School of Public Affairs.
- Milesi, C., & Gamoran, A. (2006). Effects of class size and instruction on kindergarten achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 28(4), 287-313.
- Molnar, A., Smith, P., Zahorik, J., Palmer, A., Halbach, A., & Ehrle, K. (1999). Evaluating the SAGE program: A pilot program in targeted pupil-teacher reduction in Wisconsin. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 21(2), 165-177.
- NICHD Early Child Care Research Network. (2004). Does class size in first grade relate to children's academic and social performance or observed classroom processes?. *Developmental Psychology*, 40(5), 651-664.
- Pirog, M.A., & Magee, C. (1997). High school completion: The influence of schools, families, and adolescent parenting. *Social Science Quarterly*, 78(3), 710-724.
- Pong, S.-i., & Pallas, A. (2001). Class size and eighth-grade math achievement in the United States and abroad. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 23(3), 251-273.
- Ready, D.D., & Lee, V.E. (2006). Optimal context size in elementary schools: Disentangling the effects of class size and school size. In T. Loveless & F. M. Hess (Eds.), *Brookings papers on education policy, 2006/2007* (pp. 99-135). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Rivkin, S.G., Hanushek, E.A., & Kain, J.F. (2005). Teachers, schools, and academic achievement. *Econometrica*, 73(2), 417-458.
- Rumberger, R.W., & Thomas, S.L. (2000). The distribution of dropout and turnover rates among urban and suburban high schools. *Sociology of Education*, 73(1), 39-67.
- Steele, F., Vignoles, A., & Jenkins, A. (2007). The effect of school resources on pupil attainment: A multilevel simultaneous equation modelling approach. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series A (Statistics in Society)*, 170(3), 801-824.
- Todd, P.E., & Wolpin, K.I. (2007). The production of cognitive achievement in children: Home, school and racial test score gaps. *Journal of Human Capital*, 1(1), 91-136.
- Urquiola, M. (2006). Identifying class size effects in developing countries: Evidence from rural Bolivia. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 88(1), 171-177.
- Valdenaire, M. (2006). *Do younger pupils need smaller classes? Evidence from France* (Preliminary Draft). Paris: Paris- Jourdan Sciences Economiques.
- Waldfogel, J., & Zhai, F. (2008). Effects of public preschool expenditures on the test scores of 4th graders: Evidence from TIMSS. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 14, 9-28.
- Wilson, K. (2001). The determinants of educational attainment: Modeling and estimating the human capital model and education production functions. *Southern Economic Journal*, 67(3), 518-551.
- Washington State Institute for Public Policy (2013). *The Institute's state-level fixed effects analysis of NAEP and CCD data is reported in this Technical Appendix*.
- Goldhaber, D., & Anthony, E. (2007). Can teacher quality be effectively assessed? National board certification as a signal of effective teaching. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 89(1), 134-150.
- Goldhaber, D., Liddle, S., Theobald, R., & Walch, J. (2010). *Teacher effectiveness and the achievement of Washington's Students in Mathematics* (CEDR Working Paper 2010-06). Bothell: University of Washington Bothell, Center for Education Data & Research.
- Hanushek, E.A. (1992). The trade-off between child quantity and quality. *Journal of Political Economy*, 100(1), 84-117.
- Hill, H.C., Rowan, B., & Ball, D.L. (2005). Effects of teachers' mathematical knowledge for teaching on student achievement. *American Educational Research Journal*, 42(2), 371-406.
- Huang, F.L., & Moon, T.R. (2009). Is experience the best teacher? A multilevel analysis of teacher characteristics and student achievement in low performing schools. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*, 21(3), 209-234.
- Jacob, B.A., & Lefgren, L. (2008). Can principals identify effective teachers? Evidence on subjective performance evaluation in education. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 26(1), 101-136.
- Jepsen, C., & Rivkin, S. (2002). *Class size reduction, teacher quality, and academic achievement in California public elementary schools*. San Francisco: Public Policy Institute of California.
- Kane, T.J., Rockoff, J.E., & Staiger, D.O. (2008). What does certification tell us about teacher effectiveness? Evidence from New York City. *Economics of Education Review*, 27(6), 615-631.
- Koedel, C., & Betts, J.R. (2007). *Re-examining the role of teacher quality in the educational production function*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Missouri-Columbia, Department of Economics.
- Krieg, J.M. (2006). Teacher quality and attrition. *Economics of Education Review*, 25(1), 13-27.

- Kukla-Acevedo, S. (2009). Do teacher characteristics matter? New results on the effects of teacher preparation on student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 28(1), 49-57.
- Ladd, H.F., Sass, T.R., & Harris, D.N. (2007). *The impact of national board certified teachers on student achievement in Florida and North Carolina: A summary of the evidence prepared for the National Academies Committee on the evaluation of the impact of teacher certification by NBPTS*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Leak, J.A., & Farkas, G. (2011). *Effects of teacher credentials, coursework, and certification on student achievement in math and reading in kindergarten: An ECLS-K study*. Evanston, IL: Society for Research on Educational Effectiveness.
- Leigh, A.K. (2010). Estimating teacher effectiveness from two-year changes in students' test scores. *Economics of Education Review*, 29(3), 480-488.
- Ost, B. (2009). *How do teachers improve? The relative importance of specific and general human capital*. Unpublished manuscript, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY.
- Pil, F.K., & Leana, C. (2009). Applying organizational research to public school reform: The effects of teacher human and social capital on student performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(6), 1101-1124.
- Rockoff, J.E. (2004). The impact of individual teachers on student achievement: Evidence from panel data. *The American Economic Review*, 94(2), 247-252.
- Subedi, B.R., Swan, B., & Hynes, M.C. (2011). Are school factors important for measuring teacher effectiveness? A multilevel technique to predict student gains through a value-added approach. *Education Research International*, 2011. doi: 10.1155/2011/532737
- Xu, Z., Hannaway, J., & Taylor, C. (2009). *Making a difference? The effects of Teach for America in high school* (Working Paper 17. Revised). Washington, DC: The Urban Institute, National Center for Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Education Research.

Class size: reducing average class size by one student in grade 3 Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated January 2013.

Program Description: Washington State's prototypical school funding formula allocates funding for an average class size of 25.23 students in grades K–3 (RCW 28A.150.260). We estimate the benefits and costs of reducing 3rd grade average class sizes by one student.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$170	Benefit to cost ratio	\$2.30
Participants	\$298	Benefits minus costs	\$273
Others	\$105	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$90)	benefits greater than the costs	60 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$484</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$210)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	\$273		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Crime	\$0	\$1	\$2	\$1	\$4
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$306	\$139	\$136	\$0	\$581
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$8)	\$30	(\$33)	\$15	\$4
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$105)	(\$105)
Totals	\$298	\$170	\$105	(\$90)	\$484

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

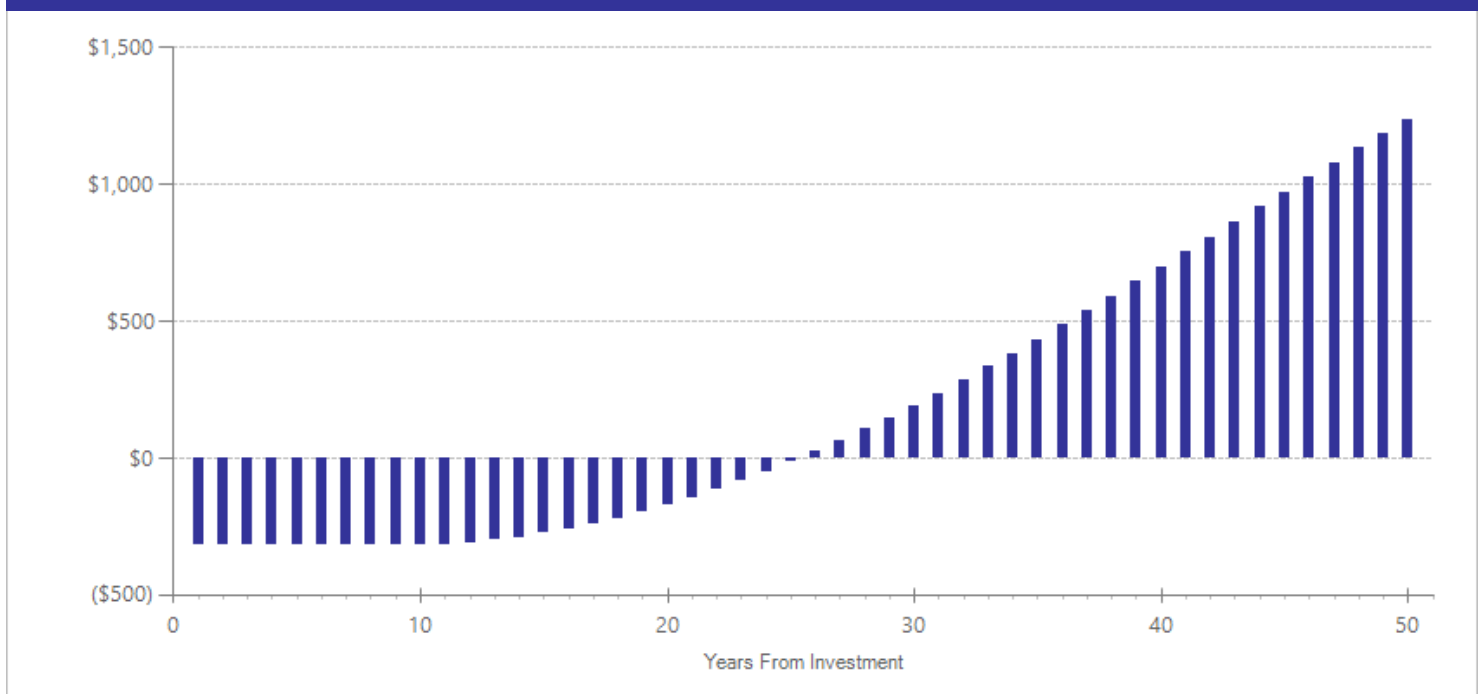
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$198	2011	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$210)
Comparison costs	\$0	2011	Cost range (+ or -)	0 %

The cost estimate accounts for state and school district teacher compensation, marginal operating, and capital costs. Annual teacher costs are calculated using the 2011-12 average total (state and local) salary for Washington certificated teachers reported in the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction School District Personnel Summary Profiles. The calculation includes salaries and benefits as well as central administration and special education costs. Assumptions for capital cost calculations were provided by legislative staff, with one exception: the interest rate on bonds is from the Federal Reserve's November 2012 state and local rate. Aos, S., & Pennucci, A. (2013). *K-12 class size reductions and student outcomes: A review of the evidence and benefit-cost analysis* (Doc. No. 13-01-2201). Olympia: Washington State Institute for Public Policy.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
High school graduation	77	1000	0.004	0.004	8	0.004	0.004	17	0.004	0.317
Test scores	77	1000	0.007	0.009	8	0.004	0.005	17	0.007	0.452

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Akerhielm, K. (1995). Does class size matter?. *Economics of Education Review*, 14(3), 229-241.
- Altinok, N., & Kingdon, G. (2012). New evidence on class size effects: A pupil fixed effects approach. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 74(2), 203-234.
- Angrist, J.D., & Lavy, V. (1999). Using Maimonides' Rule to estimate the effect of class size on scholastic achievement. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(2), 533-575.
- Blatchford, P., Martin, C., Moriarty, V., Bassett, P., & Goldstein, H. (2002). *Pupil adult ratio differences and educational progress over reception and Key Stage 1* (Research Report No. 335). London: Department for Education and Skills.
- Bonesrønning, H. (2003). Class size effects on student achievement in Norway: Patterns and explanations. *Southern Economic Journal*, 69(4), 952-965.
- Bressoux, P., Kramarz, F., & Prost, C. (2008). *Teachers' training, class size and students' outcomes: Learning from administrative forecasting mistakes* [IZA Working paper]. Bonn: Institute for the Study of Labor.
- Browning, M., & Heinesen, E. (2007). Class size, teacher hours and educational attainment. *The Scandinavian Journal of Economics*, 109(2), 415-438.
- Buddin, R., & Zamarro, G. (2009). Teacher qualifications and student achievement in urban elementary schools. *Journal of Urban Economics*, 66(2), 103-115.
- Burke, M. & Sass, T. (2011). *Classroom peer effects and student achievement*. Boston, MA: Federal Reserve Bank of Boston.
- Chetty, R., Friedman, N., Hilger, N., Saez, E., Schanzenbach, D., & Yagan, D. (2010). *How does your kindergarten classroom affect your earnings? Evidence from Project STAR*.
- Cho, H., Glewwe, P., & Whitley, M. (2012). Do reductions in class size raise students' test scores? Evidence from population variation in Minnesota's elementary schools. *Economics of Education Review*, 31(3), 77-95.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2010). Teacher credentials and student achievement in high school: A cross-subject analysis with student fixed effects. *Journal of Human Resource*, 45(3), 655-681.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2006). Teacher-student matching and the assessment of teacher effectiveness. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 41(4), 778-820.
- Croninger, R.G., Rice, J.K., Rathbun, A., & Nishio, M. (2007). Teacher qualifications and early learning: Effects of certification, degree, and experience on first-grade student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 26(3), 312-324.
- Dearden, L., Ferri, J., & Meghir, C. (2002). The effect of school quality on educational attainment and wages. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 84(1), 1-20.
- Dee, T.S., & West, M.R. (2011). The non-cognitive returns to class size. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 33(1), 23-46.
- Dobbelsteen, S., Levin, J., & Oosterbeek, H. (2002). The causal effect of class size on scholastic achievement: Distinguishing the pure class size effect from the effect of changes in class composition. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 64(1), 17-38.
- Eberts, R.W., & Stone, J.A. (1987). Teacher unions and the productivity of public schools. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 40(3), 354-363.
- Ecalte, J., Magnan, A., & Gibert, F. (2006). Class size effects on literacy skills and literacy interest in first grade: A large-scale investigation. *Journal of School Psychology*, 44(3), 191-209.
- Feinstein, L., & Symons, J. (1999). Attainment in secondary school. *Oxford Economic Papers*, 51(2), 300-321.
- Ferguson, R.F., & Ladd, H.F. (1996). How and why money matters: An analysis of Alabama schools. In H. F. Ladd (Ed.), *Holding schools accountable: Performance based reform in education* (pp. 265-298). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Fredricksson, P., & Öckert, B. (2008). Resources and student achievement – Evidence from a Swedish policy reform. *The Scandinavian Journal of Economics*, 110(2), 277-296.
- Fredriksson, P., Öckert, B., & Oosterbeek, H. (2012). *Long-term effects of class size*. Uppsala: IFAU.
- Fuchs, T., & Wößmann, L. (2007). What accounts for international differences in student performance? A re-examination using PISA data. *Empirical Economics*, 32(2), 433-464.
- Goldhaber, D.D., & Brewer, D.J. (1997). Why don't schools and teachers seem to matter? Assessing the impact of unobservables on educational productivity. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 32(3), 505-523.
- Grissmer, D.W., & Flanagan, A. (2006). *Improving the achievement of Tennessee students: Analysis of the National Assessment of Education Progress*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND.

- Hægeland, T., Raaum, O., & Salvanes, K.G. (2005). *Pupil achievement, school resources and family background (IZA Discussion Paper No. 1459)*. Bonn, Germany: Institute for the Study of Labor.
- Harris, D.N., & Sass, T.R. (2011). Teacher training, teacher quality and student achievement. *Journal of Public Economics*, 95(7- 8), 798-812.
- Hoxby, C.M. (2000). The effects of class size on student achievement: New evidence from population variation. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 115(4), 1239-1285.
- Iacovou, M. (2002). Class size in the early years: Is smaller really better?. *Education Economics*, 10(3), 261-290.
- Jakubowski, M., & Sakowski, P. (2006). *Quasi-experimental estimates of class size effect in primary schools in Poland (Working Paper?)*. Poland: Warsaw University, Faculty of Economics.
- Jepsen, C., & Rivkin, S. (2002). *Class size reduction, teacher quality, and academic achievement in California public elementary schools*. San Francisco: Public Policy Institute of California.
- Krieg, J.M. (2006). Teacher quality and attrition. *Economics of Education Review*, 25(1), 13-27.
- Krueger, A.B. (1999). Experimental estimates of education production functions. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(2), 497-532.
- Lee, J.-W., & Barro, R.J. (2001). Schooling quality in a cross-section of countries. *Economica*, 68, 465-488.
- Lee, J., & Reeves, T. (2012). Revisiting the impact of NCLB high-stakes school accountability, capacity, and resources: State NAEP 1990-2009 reading and math achievement gaps and trends. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 34(2), 209-231.
- Li, M. (2007). Bayesian proportional hazard analysis of the timing of high school dropout decisions. *Econometric Reviews*, 26(5), 529-556.
- Long, M.C. (2006). *Secondary school characteristics and early adult outcomes (Working Paper No. 2006-06)*. Seattle: University of Washington, Daniel J. Evans School of Public Affairs.
- Milesi, C., & Gamoran, A. (2006). Effects of class size and instruction on kindergarten achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 28(4), 287-313.
- Molnar, A., Smith, P., Zahorik, J., Palmer, A., Halbach, A., & Ehrle, K. (1999). Evaluating the SAGE program: A pilot program in targeted pupil-teacher reduction in Wisconsin. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 21(2), 165-177.
- NICHD Early Child Care Research Network. (2004). Does class size in first grade relate to children's academic and social performance or observed classroom processes?. *Developmental Psychology*, 40(5), 651-664.
- Pirog, M.A., & Magee, C. (1997). High school completion: The influence of schools, families, and adolescent parenting. *Social Science Quarterly*, 78(3), 710-724.
- Pong, S.-i., & Pallas, A. (2001). Class size and eighth-grade math achievement in the United States and abroad. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 23(3), 251-273.
- Ready, D.D., & Lee, V.E. (2006). Optimal context size in elementary schools: Disentangling the effects of class size and school size. In T. Loveless & F. M. Hess (Eds.), *Brookings papers on education policy, 2006/2007* (pp. 99-135). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Rivkin, S.G., Hanushek, E.A., & Kain, J.F. (2005). Teachers, schools, and academic achievement. *Econometrica*, 73(2), 417-458.
- Rumberger, R.W., & Thomas, S.L. (2000). The distribution of dropout and turnover rates among urban and suburban high schools. *Sociology of Education*, 73(1), 39-67.
- Steele, F., Vignoles, A., & Jenkins, A. (2007). The effect of school resources on pupil attainment: A multilevel simultaneous equation modelling approach. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series A (Statistics in Society)*, 170(3), 801-824.
- Todd, P.E., & Wolpin, K.I. (2007). The production of cognitive achievement in children: Home, school and racial test score gaps. *Journal of Human Capital*, 1(1), 91-136.
- Urquiola, M. (2006). Identifying class size effects in developing countries: Evidence from rural Bolivia. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 88(1), 171-177.
- Valdenaire, M. (2006). *Do younger pupils need smaller classes? Evidence from France (Preliminary Draft)*. Paris: Paris- Jourdan Sciences Economiques.
- Waldfogel, J., & Zhai, F. (2008). Effects of public preschool expenditures on the test scores of 4th graders: Evidence from TIMSS. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 14, 9-28.
- Wilson, K. (2001). The determinants of educational attainment: Modeling and estimating the human capital model and education production functions. *Southern Economic Journal*, 67(3), 518-551.
- Washington State Institute for Public Policy (2013). *The Institute's state-level fixed effects analysis of NAEP and CCD data is reported in this Technical Appendix*.
- Goldhaber, D., & Anthony, E. (2007). Can teacher quality be effectively assessed? National board certification as a signal of effective teaching. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 89(1), 134-150.
- Goldhaber, D., Liddle, S., Theobald, R., & Walch, J. (2010). *Teacher effectiveness and the achievement of Washington's Students in Mathematics (CEDR Working Paper 2010-06)*. Bothell: University of Washington Bothell, Center for Education Data & Research.
- Hanushek, E.A. (1992). The trade-off between child quantity and quality. *Journal of Political Economy*, 100(1), 84-117.
- Hill, H.C., Rowan, B., & Ball, D.L. (2005). Effects of teachers' mathematical knowledge for teaching on student achievement. *American Educational Research Journal*, 42(2), 371-406.
- Huang, F.L., & Moon, T.R. (2009). Is experience the best teacher? A multilevel analysis of teacher characteristics and student achievement in low performing schools. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*, 21(3), 209-234.
- Jacob, B.A., & Lefgren, L. (2008). Can principals identify effective teachers? Evidence on subjective performance evaluation in education. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 26(1), 101-136.
- Jepsen, C., & Rivkin, S. (2002). *Class size reduction, teacher quality, and academic achievement in California public elementary schools*. San Francisco: Public Policy Institute of California.
- Kane, T.J., Rockoff, J.E., & Staiger, D.O. (2008). What does certification tell us about teacher effectiveness? Evidence from New York City. *Economics of Education Review*, 27(6), 615-631.
- Koedel, C., & Betts, J.R. (2007). *Re-examining the role of teacher quality in the educational production function*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Missouri-Columbia, Department of Economics.
- Krieg, J.M. (2006). Teacher quality and attrition. *Economics of Education Review*, 25(1), 13-27.

- Kukla-Acevedo, S. (2009). Do teacher characteristics matter? New results on the effects of teacher preparation on student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 28(1), 49-57.
- Ladd, H.F., Sass, T.R., & Harris, D.N. (2007). *The impact of national board certified teachers on student achievement in Florida and North Carolina: A summary of the evidence prepared for the National Academies Committee on the evaluation of the impact of teacher certification by NBPTS*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Leak, J.A., & Farkas, G. (2011). *Effects of teacher credentials, coursework, and certification on student achievement in math and reading in kindergarten: An ECLS-K study*. Evanston, IL: Society for Research on Educational Effectiveness.
- Leigh, A.K. (2010). Estimating teacher effectiveness from two-year changes in students' test scores. *Economics of Education Review*, 29(3), 480-488.
- Ost, B. (2009). *How do teachers improve? The relative importance of specific and general human capital*. Unpublished manuscript, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY.
- Pil, F.K., & Leana, C. (2009). Applying organizational research to public school reform: The effects of teacher human and social capital on student performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(6), 1101-1124.
- Rockoff, J.E. (2004). The impact of individual teachers on student achievement: Evidence from panel data. *The American Economic Review*, 94(2), 247-252.
- Subedi, B.R., Swan, B., & Hynes, M.C. (2011). Are school factors important for measuring teacher effectiveness? A multilevel technique to predict student gains through a value-added approach. *Education Research International*, 2011. doi: 10.1155/2011/532737
- Xu, Z., Hannaway, J., & Taylor, C. (2009). *Making a difference? The effects of Teach for America in high school* (Working Paper 17. Revised). Washington, DC: The Urban Institute, National Center for Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Education Research.

Class size: reducing average class size by one student in one grade, 4-6 Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated January 2013.

Program Description: Washington State's prototypical school funding formula allocates funding for an average class size of 27 students in grades 4-6 (RCW 28A.150.260). We estimate the benefits and costs of reducing 4th-6th grade average class sizes by one student.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:

Taxpayers	\$127	Benefit to cost ratio	\$1.82
Participants	\$224	Benefits minus costs	\$156
Others	\$79	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$84)	benefits greater than the costs	54 %
<hr/> Total benefits	<hr/> \$346		
Net program cost	(\$190)		
Benefits minus cost	\$156		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to:¹

Benefits to:

	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Crime	\$0	\$1	\$2	\$0	\$3
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$230	\$104	\$101	\$0	\$435
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$6)	\$22	(\$24)	\$11	\$3
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$95)	(\$95)
<hr/> Totals	<hr/> \$224	<hr/> \$127	<hr/> \$79	<hr/> (\$84)	<hr/> \$346

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

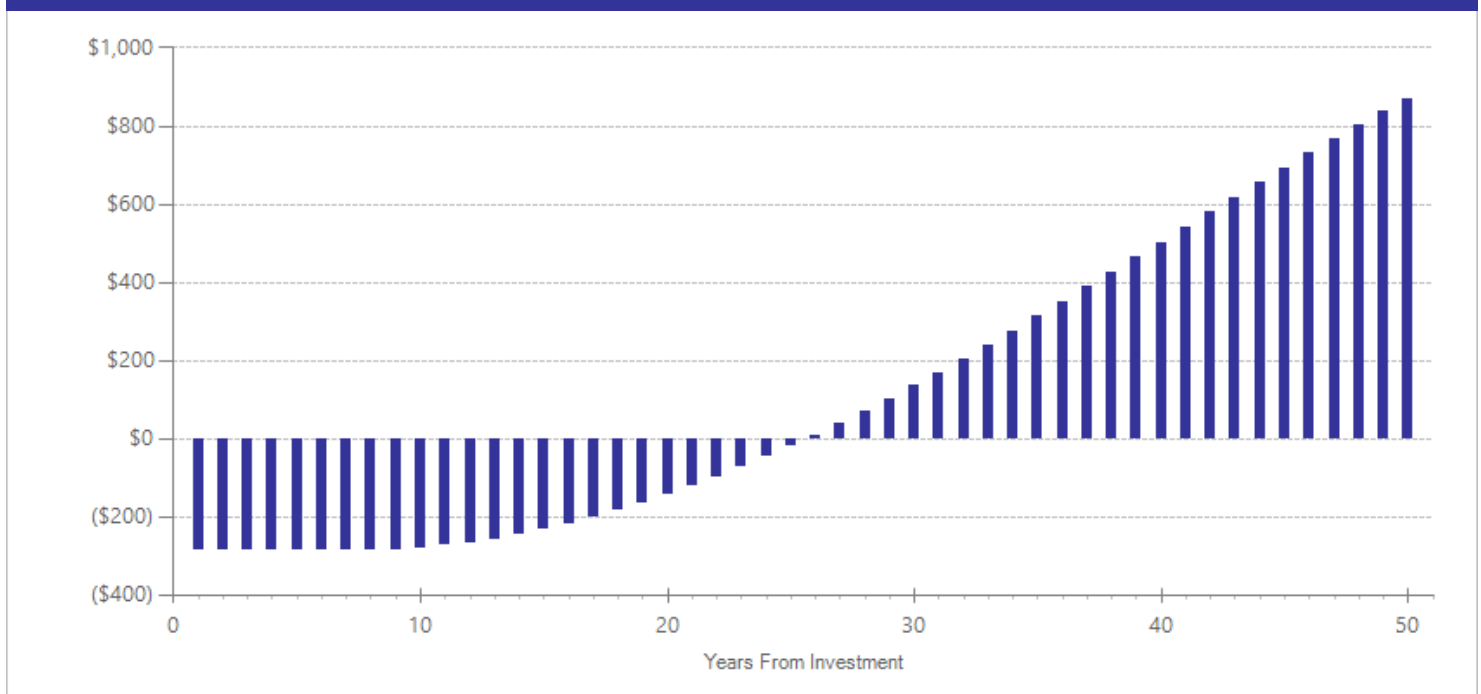
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$179	2011	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$190)
Comparison costs	\$0	2011	Cost range (+ or -)	0 %

The cost estimate accounts for state and school district teacher compensation, marginal operating, and capital costs. Annual teacher costs were calculated using the 2011-12 average total (state and local) salary for Washington certificated teachers reported in the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction School District Personnel Summary Profiles. The calculation includes salaries and benefits as well as central administration and special education costs. Assumptions for capital cost calculations were provided by legislative staff, with one exception: the interest rate on bonds is from the Federal Reserve's November 2012 state and local rate. Aos, S., & Pennucci, A. (2013). *K-12 class size reductions and student outcomes: A review of the evidence and benefit-cost analysis* (Doc. No. 13-01-2201). Olympia: Washington State Institute for Public Policy.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
High school graduation	77	1000	0.003	0.003	10	0.003	0.003	17	0.003	0.431
Test scores	77	1000	0.004	0.008	10	0.003	0.006	17	0.004	0.621

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Akerhielm, K. (1995). Does class size matter?. *Economics of Education Review*, 14(3), 229-241.
- Altinok, N., & Kingdon, G. (2012). New evidence on class size effects: A pupil fixed effects approach. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 74(2), 203-234.
- Angrist, J.D., & Lavy, V. (1999). Using Maimonides' Rule to estimate the effect of class size on scholastic achievement. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(2), 533-575.
- Blatchford, P., Martin, C., Moriarty, V., Bassett, P., & Goldstein, H. (2002). *Pupil adult ratio differences and educational progress over reception and Key Stage 1* (Research Report No. 335). London: Department for Education and Skills.
- Bonesrønning, H. (2003). Class size effects on student achievement in Norway: Patterns and explanations. *Southern Economic Journal*, 69(4), 952-965.
- Bressoux, P., Kramarz, F., & Prost, C. (2008). *Teachers' training, class size and students' outcomes: Learning from administrative forecasting mistakes* [IZA Working paper]. Bonn: Institute for the Study of Labor.
- Browning, M., & Heinesen, E. (2007). Class size, teacher hours and educational attainment. *The Scandinavian Journal of Economics*, 109(2), 415-438.
- Buddin, R., & Zamarro, G. (2009). Teacher qualifications and student achievement in urban elementary schools. *Journal of Urban Economics*, 66(2), 103-115.
- Burke, M. & Sass, T. (2011). *Classroom peer effects and student achievement*. Boston, MA: Federal Reserve Bank of Boston.
- Chetty, R., Friedman, N., Hilger, N., Saez, E., Schanzenbach, D., & Yagan, D. (2010). *How does your kindergarten classroom affect your earnings? Evidence from Project STAR*.
- Cho, H., Glewwe, P., & Whitley, M. (2012). Do reductions in class size raise students' test scores? Evidence from population variation in Minnesota's elementary schools. *Economics of Education Review*, 31(3), 77-95.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2010). Teacher credentials and student achievement in high school: A cross-subject analysis with student fixed effects. *Journal of Human Resource*, 45(3), 655-681.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2006). Teacher-student matching and the assessment of teacher effectiveness. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 41(4), 778-820.
- Croninger, R.G., Rice, J.K., Rathbun, A., & Nishio, M. (2007). Teacher qualifications and early learning: Effects of certification, degree, and experience on first-grade student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 26(3), 312-324.
- Dearden, L., Ferri, J., & Meghir, C. (2002). The effect of school quality on educational attainment and wages. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 84(1), 1-20.
- Dee, T.S., & West, M.R. (2011). The non-cognitive returns to class size. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 33(1), 23-46.
- Dobbelsteen, S., Levin, J., & Oosterbeek, H. (2002). The causal effect of class size on scholastic achievement: Distinguishing the pure class size effect from the effect of changes in class composition. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 64(1), 17-38.
- Eberts, R.W., & Stone, J.A. (1987). Teacher unions and the productivity of public schools. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 40(3), 354-363.
- Ecalte, J., Magnan, A., & Gibert, F. (2006). Class size effects on literacy skills and literacy interest in first grade: A large-scale investigation. *Journal of School Psychology*, 44(3), 191-209.
- Feinstein, L., & Symons, J. (1999). Attainment in secondary school. *Oxford Economic Papers*, 51(2), 300-321.
- Ferguson, R.F., & Ladd, H.F. (1996). How and why money matters: An analysis of Alabama schools. In H. F. Ladd (Ed.), *Holding schools accountable: Performance based reform in education* (pp. 265-298). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Fredricksson, P., & Öckert, B. (2008). Resources and student achievement – Evidence from a Swedish policy reform. *The Scandinavian Journal of Economics*, 110(2), 277-296.
- Fredriksson, P., Öckert, B., & Oosterbeek, H. (2012). *Long-term effects of class size*. Uppsala: IFAU.
- Fuchs, T., & Wößmann, L. (2007). What accounts for international differences in student performance? A re-examination using PISA data. *Empirical Economics*, 32(2), 433-464.
- Goldhaber, D.D., & Brewer, D.J. (1997). Why don't schools and teachers seem to matter? Assessing the impact of unobservables on educational productivity. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 32(3), 505-523.
- Grissmer, D.W., & Flanagan, A. (2006). *Improving the achievement of Tennessee students: Analysis of the National Assessment of Education Progress*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND.

- Hægeland, T., Raaum, O., & Salvanes, K.G. (2005). *Pupil achievement, school resources and family background (IZA Discussion Paper No. 1459)*. Bonn, Germany: Institute for the Study of Labor.
- Harris, D.N., & Sass, T.R. (2011). Teacher training, teacher quality and student achievement. *Journal of Public Economics*, 95(7- 8), 798-812.
- Hoxby, C.M. (2000). The effects of class size on student achievement: New evidence from population variation. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 115(4), 1239-1285.
- Iacovou, M. (2002). Class size in the early years: Is smaller really better?. *Education Economics*, 10(3), 261-290.
- Jakubowski, M., & Sakowski, P. (2006). *Quasi-experimental estimates of class size effect in primary schools in Poland (Working Paper?)*. Poland: Warsaw University, Faculty of Economics.
- Jepsen, C., & Rivkin, S. (2002). *Class size reduction, teacher quality, and academic achievement in California public elementary schools*. San Francisco: Public Policy Institute of California.
- Krieg, J.M. (2006). Teacher quality and attrition. *Economics of Education Review*, 25(1), 13-27.
- Krueger, A.B. (1999). Experimental estimates of education production functions. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(2), 497-532.
- Lee, J.-W., & Barro, R.J. (2001). Schooling quality in a cross-section of countries. *Economica*, 68, 465-488.
- Lee, J., & Reeves, T. (2012). Revisiting the impact of NCLB high-stakes school accountability, capacity, and resources: State NAEP 1990-2009 reading and math achievement gaps and trends. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 34(2), 209-231.
- Li, M. (2007). Bayesian proportional hazard analysis of the timing of high school dropout decisions. *Econometric Reviews*, 26(5), 529-556.
- Long, M.C. (2006). *Secondary school characteristics and early adult outcomes (Working Paper No. 2006-06)*. Seattle: University of Washington, Daniel J. Evans School of Public Affairs.
- Milesi, C., & Gamoran, A. (2006). Effects of class size and instruction on kindergarten achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 28(4), 287-313.
- Molnar, A., Smith, P., Zahorik, J., Palmer, A., Halbach, A., & Ehrle, K. (1999). Evaluating the SAGE program: A pilot program in targeted pupil-teacher reduction in Wisconsin. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 21(2), 165-177.
- NICHD Early Child Care Research Network. (2004). Does class size in first grade relate to children's academic and social performance or observed classroom processes?. *Developmental Psychology*, 40(5), 651-664.
- Pirog, M.A., & Magee, C. (1997). High school completion: The influence of schools, families, and adolescent parenting. *Social Science Quarterly*, 78(3), 710-724.
- Pong, S.-i., & Pallas, A. (2001). Class size and eighth-grade math achievement in the United States and abroad. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 23(3), 251-273.
- Ready, D.D., & Lee, V.E. (2006). Optimal context size in elementary schools: Disentangling the effects of class size and school size. In T. Loveless & F. M. Hess (Eds.), *Brookings papers on education policy, 2006/2007* (pp. 99-135). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Rivkin, S.G., Hanushek, E.A., & Kain, J.F. (2005). Teachers, schools, and academic achievement. *Econometrica*, 73(2), 417-458.
- Rumberger, R.W., & Thomas, S.L. (2000). The distribution of dropout and turnover rates among urban and suburban high schools. *Sociology of Education*, 73(1), 39-67.
- Steele, F., Vignoles, A., & Jenkins, A. (2007). The effect of school resources on pupil attainment: A multilevel simultaneous equation modelling approach. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series A (Statistics in Society)*, 170(3), 801-824.
- Todd, P.E., & Wolpin, K.I. (2007). The production of cognitive achievement in children: Home, school and racial test score gaps. *Journal of Human Capital*, 1(1), 91-136.
- Urquiola, M. (2006). Identifying class size effects in developing countries: Evidence from rural Bolivia. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 88(1), 171-177.
- Valdenaire, M. (2006). *Do younger pupils need smaller classes? Evidence from France (Preliminary Draft)*. Paris: Paris- Jourdan Sciences Economiques.
- Waldfogel, J., & Zhai, F. (2008). Effects of public preschool expenditures on the test scores of 4th graders: Evidence from TIMSS. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 14, 9-28.
- Wilson, K. (2001). The determinants of educational attainment: Modeling and estimating the human capital model and education production functions. *Southern Economic Journal*, 67(3), 518-551.
- Washington State Institute for Public Policy (2013). *The Institute's state-level fixed effects analysis of NAEP and CCD data is reported in this Technical Appendix*.
- Goldhaber, D., & Anthony, E. (2007). Can teacher quality be effectively assessed? National board certification as a signal of effective teaching. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 89(1), 134-150.
- Goldhaber, D., Liddle, S., Theobald, R., & Walch, J. (2010). *Teacher effectiveness and the achievement of Washington's Students in Mathematics (CEDR Working Paper 2010-06)*. Bothell: University of Washington Bothell, Center for Education Data & Research.
- Hanushek, E.A. (1992). The trade-off between child quantity and quality. *Journal of Political Economy*, 100(1), 84-117.
- Hill, H.C., Rowan, B., & Ball, D. L. (2005). Effects of teachers' mathematical knowledge for teaching on student achievement. *American Educational Research Journal*, 42(2), 371-406.
- Huang, F.L., & Moon, T.R. (2009). Is experience the best teacher? A multilevel analysis of teacher characteristics and student achievement in low performing schools. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*, 21(3), 209-234.
- Jacob, B.A., & Lefgren, L. (2008). Can principals identify effective teachers? Evidence on subjective performance evaluation in education. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 26(1), 101-136.
- Jepsen, C., & Rivkin, S. (2002). *Class size reduction, teacher quality, and academic achievement in California public elementary schools*. San Francisco: Public Policy Institute of California.
- Kane, T.J., Rockoff, J.E., & Staiger, D.O. (2008). What does certification tell us about teacher effectiveness? Evidence from New York City. *Economics of Education Review*, 27(6), 615-631.
- Koedel, C., & Betts, J.R. (2007). *Re-examining the role of teacher quality in the educational production function*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Missouri-Columbia, Department of Economics.
- Krieg, J.M. (2006). Teacher quality and attrition. *Economics of Education Review*, 25(1), 13-27.

- Kukla-Acevedo, S. (2009). Do teacher characteristics matter? New results on the effects of teacher preparation on student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 28(1), 49-57.
- Ladd, H.F., Sass, T.R., & Harris, D.N. (2007). *The impact of national board certified teachers on student achievement in Florida and North Carolina: A summary of the evidence prepared for the National Academies Committee on the evaluation of the impact of teacher certification by NBPTS*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Leak, J.A., & Farkas, G. (2011). *Effects of teacher credentials, coursework, and certification on student achievement in math and reading in kindergarten: An ECLS-K study*. Evanston, IL: Society for Research on Educational Effectiveness.
- Leigh, A.K. (2010). Estimating teacher effectiveness from two-year changes in students' test scores. *Economics of Education Review*, 29(3), 480-488.
- Ost, B. (2009). *How do teachers improve? The relative importance of specific and general human capital*. Unpublished manuscript, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY.
- Pil, F.K., & Leana, C. (2009). Applying organizational research to public school reform: The effects of teacher human and social capital on student performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(6), 1101-1124.
- Rockoff, J.E. (2004). The impact of individual teachers on student achievement: Evidence from panel data. *The American Economic Review*, 94(2), 247-252.
- Subedi, B.R., Swan, B., & Hynes, M.C. (2011). Are school factors important for measuring teacher effectiveness? A multilevel technique to predict student gains through a value-added approach. *Education Research International*. doi: 10.1155/2011/532737
- Xu, Z., Hannaway, J., & Taylor, C. (2009). *Making a difference? The effects of Teach for America in high school* (Working Paper 17. Revised). Washington, DC: The Urban Institute, National Center for Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Education Research.

Class size: reducing average class size by one student in one grade, 9-12 Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated January 2013.

Program Description: Washington State's prototypical school funding formula allocates funding for an average class size of 28.74 students in grades 9 through 12 (RCW 28A.150.260). We estimate the benefits and costs of reducing high school average class sizes by one student.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:

Taxpayers	\$111	Benefit to cost ratio	\$1.85
Participants	\$204	Benefits minus costs	\$144
Others	\$76	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$77)	benefits greater than the costs	53 %
Total benefits	\$314		
Net program cost	(\$170)		
Benefits minus cost	\$144		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to:¹

Benefits to:

	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Crime	\$0	\$1	\$1	\$0	\$2
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$208	\$95	\$92	\$0	\$395
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$4)	\$16	(\$18)	\$8	\$2
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$85)	(\$85)
Totals	\$204	\$111	\$76	(\$77)	\$314

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

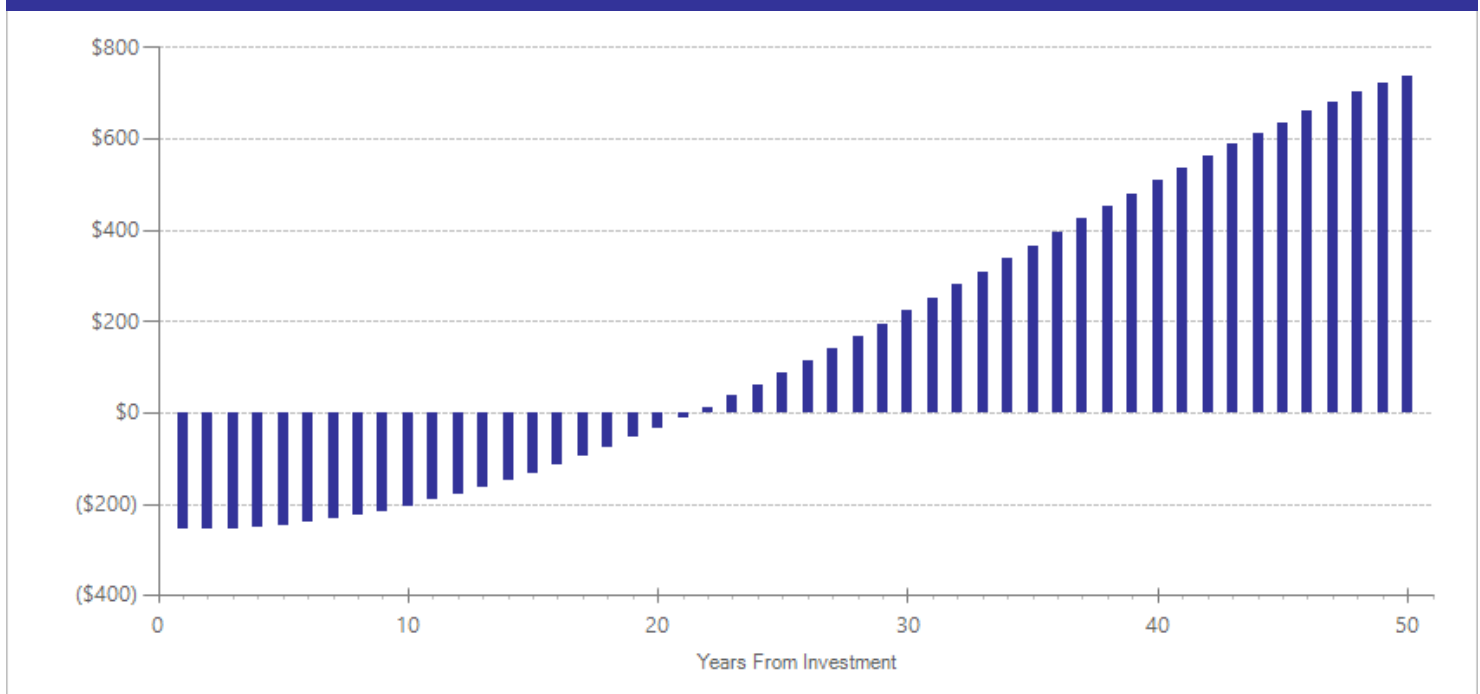
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$160	2011	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$170)
Comparison costs	\$0	2011	Cost range (+ or -)	0 %

The cost estimate accounts for state and school district teacher compensation, marginal operating, and capital costs. Annual teacher costs are calculated using the 2011-12 average total (state and local) salary for Washington certificated teachers reported in the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction School District Personnel Summary Profiles. The calculation includes salaries and benefits as well as central administration and special education costs. Assumptions for capital cost calculations were provided by legislative staff, with one exception: the interest rate on bonds is from the Federal Reserve's November 2012 state and local rate. Aos, S., & Pennucci, A. (2013). *K-12 class size reductions and student outcomes: A review of the evidence and benefit-cost analysis* (Doc. No. 13-01-2201). Olympia: Washington State Institute for Public Policy.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
High school graduation	77	1000	0.002	0.003	16	0.002	0.003	17	0.002	0.583
Test scores	77	1000	0.002	0.008	16	0.002	0.007	17	0.002	0.781

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Akerhielm, K. (1995). Does class size matter?. *Economics of Education Review*, 14(3), 229-241.
- Altinok, N., & Kingdon, G. (2012). New evidence on class size effects: A pupil fixed effects approach. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 74(2), 203-234.
- Angrist, J.D., & Lavy, V. (1999). Using Maimonides' Rule to estimate the effect of class size on scholastic achievement. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(2), 533-575.
- Blatchford, P., Martin, C., Moriarty, V., Bassett, P., & Goldstein, H. (2002). *Pupil adult ratio differences and educational progress over reception and Key Stage 1* (Research Report No. 335). London: Department for Education and Skills.
- Bonesrønning, H. (2003). Class size effects on student achievement in Norway: Patterns and explanations. *Southern Economic Journal*, 69(4), 952-965.
- Bressoux, P., Kramarz, F., & Prost, C. (2008). *Teachers' training, class size and students' outcomes: Learning from administrative forecasting mistakes* [IZA Working paper]. Bonn: Institute for the Study of Labor.
- Browning, M., & Heinesen, E. (2007). Class size, teacher hours and educational attainment. *The Scandinavian Journal of Economics*, 109(2), 415-438.
- Buddin, R., & Zamarro, G. (2009). Teacher qualifications and student achievement in urban elementary schools. *Journal of Urban Economics*, 66(2), 103-115.
- Burke, M. & Sass, T. (2011). *Classroom peer effects and student achievement*. Boston, MA: Federal Reserve Bank of Boston.
- Chetty, R., Friedman, N., Hilger, N., Saez, E., Schanzenbach, D., & Yagan, D. (2010). *How does your kindergarten classroom affect your earnings?* Evidence from Project STAR.
- Cho, H., Glewwe, P., & Whitley, M. (2012). Do reductions in class size raise students' test scores? Evidence from population variation in Minnesota's elementary schools. *Economics of Education Review*, 31(3), 77-95.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2010). Teacher credentials and student achievement in high school: A cross-subject analysis with student fixed effects. *Journal of Human Resource*, 45(3), 655-681.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2006). Teacher-student matching and the assessment of teacher effectiveness. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 41(4), 778-820.
- Croninger, R.G., Rice, J.K., Rathbun, A., & Nishio, M. (2007). Teacher qualifications and early learning: Effects of certification, degree, and experience on first-grade student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 26(3), 312-324.
- Dearden, L., Ferri, J., & Meghir, C. (2002). The effect of school quality on educational attainment and wages. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 84(1), 1-20.
- Dee, T.S., & West, M.R. (2011). The non-cognitive returns to class size. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 33(1), 23-46.
- Dobbelsteen, S., Levin, J., & Oosterbeek, H. (2002). The causal effect of class size on scholastic achievement: Distinguishing the pure class size effect from the effect of changes in class composition. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 64(1), 17-38.
- Eberts, R.W., & Stone, J.A. (1987). Teacher unions and the productivity of public schools. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 40(3), 354-363.
- Ecalte, J., Magnan, A., & Gibert, F. (2006). Class size effects on literacy skills and literacy interest in first grade: A large-scale investigation. *Journal of School Psychology*, 44(3), 191-209.
- Feinstein, L., & Symons, J. (1999). Attainment in secondary school. *Oxford Economic Papers*, 51(2), 300-321.
- Ferguson, R.F., & Ladd, H.F. (1996). How and why money matters: An analysis of Alabama schools. In H. F. Ladd (Ed.), *Holding schools accountable: Performance based reform in education* (pp. 265-298). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Fredricksson, P., & Öckert, B. (2008). Resources and student achievement – Evidence from a Swedish policy reform. *The Scandinavian Journal of Economics*, 110(2), 277-296.
- Fredriksson, P., Öckert, B., & Oosterbeek, H. (2012). *Long-term effects of class size*. Uppsala: IFAU.
- Fuchs, T., & Wößmann, L. (2007). What accounts for international differences in student performance? A re-examination using PISA data. *Empirical Economics*, 32(2), 433-464.
- Goldhaber, D. D., & Brewer, D. J. (1997). Why don't schools and teachers seem to matter? Assessing the impact of unobservables on educational productivity. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 32(3), 505-523.
- Grissmer, D. W., & Flanagan, A. (2006). *Improving the achievement of Tennessee students: Analysis of the National Assessment of Education Progress*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND.

- Hægeland, T., Raaum, O., & Salvanes, K. G. (2005). *Pupil achievement, school resources and family background* (IZA Discussion Paper No. 1459). Bonn, Germany: Institute for the Study of Labor.
- Harris, D. N., & Sass, T. R. (2011). Teacher training, teacher quality and student achievement. *Journal of Public Economics*, 95(7- 8), 798-812.
- Hoxby, C. M. (2000). The effects of class size on student achievement: New evidence from population variation. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 115(4), 1239-1285.
- Iacovou, M. (2002). Class size in the early years: Is smaller really better?. *Education Economics*, 10(3), 261-290.
- Jakubowski, M., & Sakowski, P. (2006). *Quasi-experimental estimates of class size effect in primary schools in Poland* (Working Paper?). Poland: Warsaw University, Faculty of Economics.
- Jepsen, C., & Rivkin, S. (2002). *Class size reduction, teacher quality, and academic achievement in California public elementary schools*. San Francisco: Public Policy Institute of California.
- Krieg, J. M. (2006). Teacher quality and attrition. *Economics of Education Review*, 25(1), 13-27.
- Krueger, A. B. (1999). Experimental estimates of education production functions. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(2), 497-532.
- Lee, J.-W., & Barro, R. J. (2001). Schooling quality in a cross-section of countries. *Economica*, 68, 465-488.
- Lee, J., & Reeves, T. (2012). Revisiting the impact of NCLB high-stakes school accountability, capacity, and resources: State NAEP 1990-2009 reading and math achievement gaps and trends. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 34(2), 209-231.
- Li, M. (2007). Bayesian proportional hazard analysis of the timing of high school dropout decisions. *Econometric Reviews*, 26(5), 529-556.
- Long, M. C. (2006). *Secondary school characteristics and early adult outcomes* (Working Paper No. 2006-06). Seattle: University of Washington, Daniel J. Evans School of Public Affairs.
- Milesi, C., & Gamoran, A. (2006). Effects of class size and instruction on kindergarten achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 28(4), 287-313.
- Molnar, A., Smith, P., Zahorik, J., Palmer, A., Halbach, A., & Ehrle, K. (1999). Evaluating the SAGE program: A pilot program in targeted pupil-teacher reduction in Wisconsin. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 21(2), 165-177.
- NICHD Early Child Care Research Network. (2004). Does class size in first grade relate to children's academic and social performance or observed classroom processes?. *Developmental Psychology*, 40(5), 651-664.
- Pirog, M. A., & Magee, C. (1997). High school completion: The influence of schools, families, and adolescent parenting. *Social Science Quarterly*, 78(3), 710-724.
- Pong, S.-i., & Pallas, A. (2001). Class size and eighth-grade math achievement in the United States and abroad. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 23(3), 251-273.
- Ready, D. D., & Lee, V. E. (2006). Optimal context size in elementary schools: Disentangling the effects of class size and school size. In T. Loveless & F. M. Hess (Eds.), *Brookings papers on education policy, 2006/2007* (pp. 99-135). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Rivkin, S. G., Hanushek, E. A., & Kain, J. F. (2005). Teachers, schools, and academic achievement. *Econometrica*, 73(2), 417-458.
- Rumberger, R. W., & Thomas, S. L. (2000). The distribution of dropout and turnover rates among urban and suburban high schools. *Sociology of Education*, 73(1), 39-67.
- Steele, F., Vignoles, A., & Jenkins, A. (2007). The effect of school resources on pupil attainment: A multilevel simultaneous equation modelling approach. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series A (Statistics in Society)*, 170(3), 801-824.
- Todd, P. E., & Wolpin, K. I. (2007). The production of cognitive achievement in children: Home, school and racial test score gaps. *Journal of Human Capital*, 1(1), 91-136.
- Urquiola, M. (2006). Identifying class size effects in developing countries: Evidence from rural Bolivia. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 88(1), 171-177.
- Valdenaire, M. (2006). *Do younger pupils need smaller classes? Evidence from France* (Preliminary Draft). Paris: Paris- Jourdan Sciences Economiques.
- Waldfogel, J., & Zhai, F. (2008). Effects of public preschool expenditures on the test scores of 4th graders: Evidence from TIMSS. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 14, 9-28.
- Wilson, K. (2001). The determinants of educational attainment: Modeling and estimating the human capital model and education production functions. *Southern Economic Journal*, 67(3), 518-551.
- Washington State Institute for Public Policy (2013). *The Institute's state-level fixed effects analysis of NAEP and CCD data is reported in this Technical Appendix*.
- Goldhaber, D., & Anthony, E. (2007). Can teacher quality be effectively assessed? National board certification as a signal of effective teaching. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 89(1), 134-150.
- Goldhaber, D., Liddle, S., Theobald, R., & Walch, J. (2010). *Teacher effectiveness and the achievement of Washington's Students in Mathematics* (CEDR Working Paper 2010-06). Bothell: University of Washington Bothell, Center for Education Data & Research.
- Hanushek, E. A. (1992). The trade-off between child quantity and quality. *Journal of Political Economy*, 100(1), 84-117.
- Hill, H. C., Rowan, B., & Ball, D. L. (2005). Effects of teachers' mathematical knowledge for teaching on student achievement. *American Educational Research Journal*, 42(2), 371-406.
- Huang, F. L., & Moon, T. R. (2009). Is experience the best teacher? A multilevel analysis of teacher characteristics and student achievement in low performing schools. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*, 21(3), 209-234.
- Jacob, B. A., & Lefgren, L. (2008). Can principals identify effective teachers? Evidence on subjective performance evaluation in education. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 26(1), 101-136.
- Jepsen, C., & Rivkin, S. (2002). *Class size reduction, teacher quality, and academic achievement in California public elementary schools*. San Francisco: Public Policy Institute of California.
- Kane, T. J., Rockoff, J. E., & Staiger, D. O. (2008). What does certification tell us about teacher effectiveness? Evidence from New York City. *Economics of Education Review*, 27(6), 615-631.
- Koedel, C., & Betts, J. R. (2007). *Re-examining the role of teacher quality in the educational production function*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Missouri-Columbia, Department of Economics.
- Krieg, J. M. (2006). Teacher quality and attrition. *Economics of Education Review*, 25(1), 13-27.

- Kukla-Acevedo, S. (2009). Do teacher characteristics matter? New results on the effects of teacher preparation on student achievement. *Economics of Education Review, 28*(1), 49-57.
- Ladd, H. F., Sass, T. R., & Harris, D. N. (2007). *The impact of national board certified teachers on student achievement in Florida and North Carolina: A summary of the evidence prepared for the National Academies Committee on the evaluation of the impact of teacher certification by NBPTS*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Leak, J. A., & Farkas, G. (2011). *Effects of teacher credentials, coursework, and certification on student achievement in math and reading in kindergarten: An ECLS-K study*. Evanston, IL: Society for Research on Educational Effectiveness.
- Leigh, A. K. (2010). Estimating teacher effectiveness from two-year changes in students' test scores. *Economics of Education Review, 29*(3), 480-488.
- Ost, B. (2009). *How do teachers improve? The relative importance of specific and general human capital*. Unpublished manuscript, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY.
- Pil, F. K., & Leana, C. (2009). Applying organizational research to public school reform: The effects of teacher human and social capital on student performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 52*(6), 1101-1124.
- Rockoff, J. E. (2004). The impact of individual teachers on student achievement: Evidence from panel data. *The American Economic Review, 94*(2), 247-252.
- Subedi, B. R., Swan, B., & Hynes, M. C. (2011). Are school factors important for measuring teacher effectiveness? A multilevel technique to predict student gains through a value-added approach. *Education Research International, 2011*. doi: 10.1155/2011/532737
- Xu, Z., Hannaway, J., & Taylor, C. (2009). *Making a difference? The effects of Teach for America in high school* (Working Paper 17. Revised). Washington, DC: The Urban Institute, National Center for Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Education Research.

Class size: reducing average class size by one student in one grade, 7-8 Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated January 2013.

Program Description: Washington State's prototypical school funding formula allocates funding for an average class size of 28.53 students in grades 7 and 8 (RCW 28A.150.260). We estimate the benefits and costs of reducing 7th and 8th grade average class sizes by one student.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:

Taxpayers	\$111	Benefit to cost ratio	\$1.77
Participants	\$198	Benefits minus costs	\$133
Others	\$72	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$77)	benefits greater than the costs	53 %
<hr/> Total benefits	<hr/> \$305		
Net program cost	(\$172)		
Benefits minus cost	\$133		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to:¹

Benefits to:

	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Crime	\$0	\$1	\$1	\$0	\$2
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$203	\$92	\$91	\$0	\$386
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$5)	\$18	(\$20)	\$9	\$2
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$86)	(\$86)
<hr/> Totals	<hr/> \$198	<hr/> \$111	<hr/> \$72	<hr/> (\$77)	<hr/> \$305

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

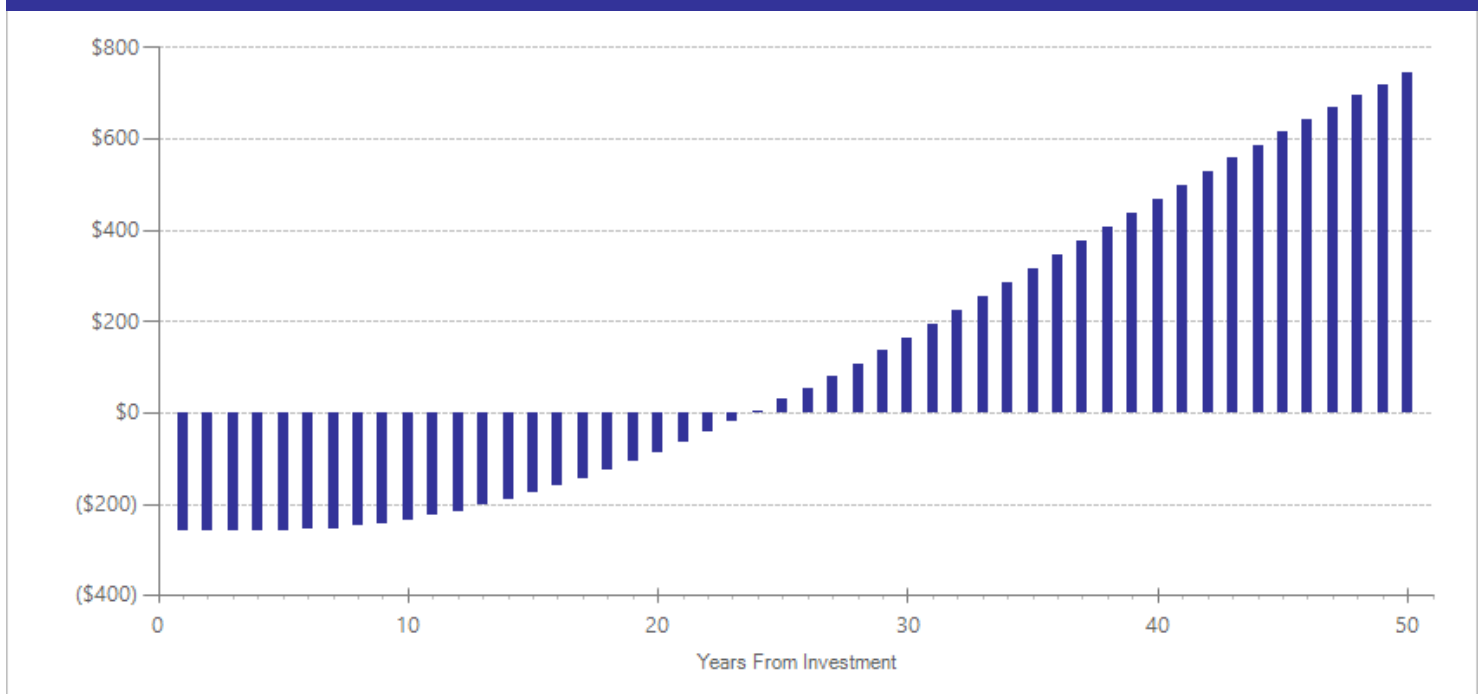
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$162	2011	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$172)
Comparison costs	\$0	2011	Cost range (+ or -)	0 %

The cost estimate accounts for state and school district teacher compensation, marginal operating, and capital costs. Annual teacher costs are calculated using the 2011-12 average total (state and local) salary for Washington certificated teachers reported in the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction School District Personnel Summary Profiles. The calculation includes salaries and benefits as well as central administration and special education costs. Assumptions for capital cost calculations were provided by legislative staff, with one exception: the interest rate on bonds is from the Federal Reserve's November 2012 state and local rate. Aos, S., & Pennucci, A. (2013). *K-12 class size reductions and student outcomes: A review of the evidence and benefit-cost analysis* (Doc. No. 13-01-2201). Olympia: Washington State Institute for Public Policy.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
High school graduation	77	1000	0.002	0.003	13	0.002	0.003	17	0.002	0.532
Test scores	77	1000	0.003	0.008	13	0.002	0.006	17	0.003	0.723

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Akerhielm, K. (1995). Does class size matter? *Economics of Education Review*, 14(3), 229-241.
- Altinok, N., & Kingdon, G. (2012). New evidence on class size effects: A pupil fixed effects approach. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 74(2), 203-234.
- Angrist, J.D., & Lavy, V. (1999). Using Maimonides' Rule to estimate the effect of class size on scholastic achievement. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(2), 533-575.
- Blatchford, P., Martin, C., Moriarty, V., Bassett, P., & Goldstein, H. (2002). *Pupil adult ratio differences and educational progress over reception and Key Stage 1 (Research Report No. 335)*. London: Department for Education and Skills.
- Bonesrønning, H. (2003). Class size effects on student achievement in Norway: Patterns and explanations. *Southern Economic Journal*, 69(4), 952-965.
- Bressoux, P., Kramarz, F., & Prost, C. (2008). *Teachers' training, class size and students' outcomes: Learning from administrative forecasting mistakes* [IZA Working paper]. Bonn: Institute for the Study of Labor.
- Browning, M., & Heinesen, E. (2007). Class size, teacher hours and educational attainment. *The Scandinavian Journal of Economics*, 109(2), 415-438.
- Buddin, R., & Zamarro, G. (2009). Teacher qualifications and student achievement in urban elementary schools. *Journal of Urban Economics*, 66(2), 103-115.
- Burke, M. & Sass, T. (2011). *Classroom peer effects and student achievement*. Boston, MA: Federal Reserve Bank of Boston.
- Chetty, R., Friedman, N., Hilger, N., Saez, E., Schanzenbach, D., & Yagan, D. (2010). *How does your kindergarten classroom affect your earnings? Evidence from Project STAR*.
- Cho, H., Glewwe, P., & Whitley, M. (2012). Do reductions in class size raise students' test scores? Evidence from population variation in Minnesota's elementary schools. *Economics of Education Review*, 31(3), 77-95.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2010). Teacher credentials and student achievement in high school: A cross-subject analysis with student fixed effects. *Journal of Human Resource*, 45(3), 655-681.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2006). Teacher-student matching and the assessment of teacher effectiveness. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 41(4), 778-820.
- Croninger, R.G., Rice, J.K., Rathbun, A., & Nishio, M. (2007). Teacher qualifications and early learning: Effects of certification, degree, and experience on first-grade student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 26(3), 312-324.
- Dearden, L., Ferri, J., & Meghir, C. (2002). The effect of school quality on educational attainment and wages. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 84(1), 1-20.
- Dee, T.S., & West, M.R. (2011). The non-cognitive returns to class size. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 33(1), 23-46.
- Dobbelsteen, S., Levin, J., & Oosterbeek, H. (2002). The causal effect of class size on scholastic achievement: Distinguishing the pure class size effect from the effect of changes in class composition. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 64(1), 17-38.
- Eberts, R.W., & Stone, J.A. (1987). Teacher unions and the productivity of public schools. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 40(3), 354-363.
- Ecalte, J., Magnan, A., & Gibert, F. (2006). Class size effects on literacy skills and literacy interest in first grade: A large-scale investigation. *Journal of School Psychology*, 44(3), 191-209.
- Feinstein, L., & Symons, J. (1999). Attainment in secondary school. *Oxford Economic Papers*, 51(2), 300-321.
- Ferguson, R.F., & Ladd, H.F. (1996). How and why money matters: An analysis of Alabama schools. In H. F. Ladd (Ed.), *Holding schools accountable: Performance based reform in education* (pp. 265-298). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Fredricksson, P., & Öckert, B. (2008). Resources and student achievement – Evidence from a Swedish policy reform. *The Scandinavian Journal of Economics*, 110(2), 277-296.
- Fredriksson, P., Öckert, B., & Oosterbeek, H. (2012). *Long-term effects of class size*. Uppsala: IFAU.
- Fuchs, T., & Wößmann, L. (2007). What accounts for international differences in student performance? A re-examination using PISA data. *Empirical Economics*, 32(2), 433-464.
- Goldhaber, D.D., & Brewer, D.J. (1997). Why don't schools and teachers seem to matter? Assessing the impact of unobservables on educational productivity. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 32(3), 505-523.
- Grissmer, D.W., & Flanagan, A. (2006). *Improving the achievement of Tennessee students: Analysis of the National Assessment of Education Progress*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND.

- Hægeland, T., Raaum, O., & Salvanes, K.G. (2005). *Pupil achievement, school resources and family background (IZA Discussion Paper No. 1459)*. Bonn, Germany: Institute for the Study of Labor.
- Harris, D.N., & Sass, T.R. (2011). Teacher training, teacher quality and student achievement. *Journal of Public Economics*, 95(7- 8), 798-812.
- Hoxby, C.M. (2000). The effects of class size on student achievement: New evidence from population variation. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 115(4), 1239-1285.
- Iacovou, M. (2002). Class size in the early years: Is smaller really better?. *Education Economics*, 10(3), 261-290.
- Jakubowski, M., & Sakowski, P. (2006). *Quasi-experimental estimates of class size effect in primary schools in Poland (Working Paper?)*. Poland: Warsaw University, Faculty of Economics.
- Jepsen, C., & Rivkin, S. (2002). *Class size reduction, teacher quality, and academic achievement in California public elementary schools*. San Francisco: Public Policy Institute of California.
- Krieg, J.M. (2006). Teacher quality and attrition. *Economics of Education Review*, 25(1), 13-27.
- Krueger, A.B. (1999). Experimental estimates of education production functions. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(2), 497-532.
- Lee, J.-W., & Barro, R.J. (2001). Schooling quality in a cross-section of countries. *Economica*, 68, 465-488.
- Lee, J., & Reeves, T. (2012). Revisiting the impact of NCLB high-stakes school accountability, capacity, and resources: State NAEP 1990-2009 reading and math achievement gaps and trends. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 34(2), 209-231.
- Li, M. (2007). Bayesian proportional hazard analysis of the timing of high school dropout decisions. *Econometric Reviews*, 26(5), 529-556.
- Long, M.C. (2006). *Secondary school characteristics and early adult outcomes (Working Paper No. 2006-06)*. Seattle: University of Washington, Daniel J. Evans School of Public Affairs.
- Milesi, C., & Gamoran, A. (2006). Effects of class size and instruction on kindergarten achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 28(4), 287-313.
- Molnar, A., Smith, P., Zahorik, J., Palmer, A., Halbach, A., & Ehrle, K. (1999). Evaluating the SAGE program: A pilot program in targeted pupil-teacher reduction in Wisconsin. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 21(2), 165-177.
- NICHD Early Child Care Research Network. (2004). Does class size in first grade relate to children's academic and social performance or observed classroom processes?. *Developmental Psychology*, 40(5), 651-664.
- Pirog, M.A., & Magee, C. (1997). High school completion: The influence of schools, families, and adolescent parenting. *Social Science Quarterly*, 78(3), 710-724.
- Pong, S.-i., & Pallas, A. (2001). Class size and eighth-grade math achievement in the United States and abroad. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 23(3), 251-273.
- Ready, D.D., & Lee, V.E. (2006). Optimal context size in elementary schools: Disentangling the effects of class size and school size. In T. Loveless & F. M. Hess (Eds.), *Brookings papers on education policy, 2006/2007* (pp. 99-135). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Rivkin, S.G., Hanushek, E.A., & Kain, J.F. (2005). Teachers, schools, and academic achievement. *Econometrica*, 73(2), 417-458.
- Rumberger, R.W., & Thomas, S.L. (2000). The distribution of dropout and turnover rates among urban and suburban high schools. *Sociology of Education*, 73(1), 39-67.
- Steele, F., Vignoles, A., & Jenkins, A. (2007). The effect of school resources on pupil attainment: A multilevel simultaneous equation modelling approach. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series A (Statistics in Society)*, 170(3), 801-824.
- Todd, P.E., & Wolpin, K.I. (2007). The production of cognitive achievement in children: Home, school and racial test score gaps. *Journal of Human Capital*, 1(1), 91-136.
- Urquiola, M. (2006). Identifying class size effects in developing countries: Evidence from rural Bolivia. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 88(1), 171-177.
- Valdenaire, M. (2006). *Do younger pupils need smaller classes? Evidence from France (Preliminary Draft)*. Paris: Paris- Jourdan Sciences Economiques.
- Waldfogel, J., & Zhai, F. (2008). Effects of public preschool expenditures on the test scores of 4th graders: Evidence from TIMSS. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 14, 9-28.
- Wilson, K. (2001). The determinants of educational attainment: Modeling and estimating the human capital model and education production functions. *Southern Economic Journal*, 67(3), 518-551.
- Washington State Institute for Public Policy (2013). *The Institute's state-level fixed effects analysis of NAEP and CCD data is reported in this Technical Appendix*.
- Goldhaber, D., & Anthony, E. (2007). Can teacher quality be effectively assessed? National board certification as a signal of effective teaching. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 89(1), 134-150.
- Goldhaber, D., Liddle, S., Theobald, R., & Walch, J. (2010). *Teacher effectiveness and the achievement of Washington's Students in Mathematics (CEDR Working Paper 2010-06)*. Bothell: University of Washington Bothell, Center for Education Data & Research.
- Hanushek, E.A. (1992). The trade-off between child quantity and quality. *Journal of Political Economy*, 100(1), 84-117.
- Hill, H.C., Rowan, B., & Ball, D.L. (2005). Effects of teachers' mathematical knowledge for teaching on student achievement. *American Educational Research Journal*, 42(2), 371-406.
- Huang, F.L., & Moon, T.R. (2009). Is experience the best teacher? A multilevel analysis of teacher characteristics and student achievement in low performing schools. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*, 21(3), 209-234.
- Jacob, B.A., & Lefgren, L. (2008). Can principals identify effective teachers? Evidence on subjective performance evaluation in education. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 26(1), 101-136.
- Jepsen, C., & Rivkin, S. (2002). *Class size reduction, teacher quality, and academic achievement in California public elementary schools*. San Francisco: Public Policy Institute of California.
- Kane, T.J., Rockoff, J.E., & Staiger, D.O. (2008). What does certification tell us about teacher effectiveness? Evidence from New York City. *Economics of Education Review*, 27(6), 615-631.
- Koedel, C., & Betts, J.R. (2007). *Re-examining the role of teacher quality in the educational production function*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Missouri-Columbia, Department of Economics.
- Krieg, J.M. (2006). Teacher quality and attrition. *Economics of Education Review*, 25(1), 13-27.

- Kukla-Acevedo, S. (2009). Do teacher characteristics matter? New results on the effects of teacher preparation on student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 28(1), 49-57.
- Ladd, H.F., Sass, T.R., & Harris, D.N. (2007). *The impact of national board certified teachers on student achievement in Florida and North Carolina: A summary of the evidence prepared for the National Academies Committee on the evaluation of the impact of teacher certification by NBPTS*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Leak, J.A., & Farkas, G. (2011). *Effects of teacher credentials, coursework, and certification on student achievement in math and reading in kindergarten: An ECLS-K study*. Evanston, IL: Society for Research on Educational Effectiveness.
- Leigh, A.K. (2010). Estimating teacher effectiveness from two-year changes in students' test scores. *Economics of Education Review*, 29(3), 480-488.
- Ost, B. (2009). *How do teachers improve? The relative importance of specific and general human capital*. Unpublished manuscript, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY.
- Pil, F.K., & Leana, C. (2009). Applying organizational research to public school reform: The effects of teacher human and social capital on student performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(6), 1101-1124.
- Rockoff, J.E. (2004). The impact of individual teachers on student achievement: Evidence from panel data. *The American Economic Review*, 94(2), 247-252.
- Subedi, B.R., Swan, B., & Hynes, M.C. (2011). Are school factors important for measuring teacher effectiveness? A multilevel technique to predict student gains through a value-added approach. *Education Research International*, 2011. doi: 10.1155/2011/532737
- Xu, Z., Hannaway, J., & Taylor, C. (2009). *Making a difference? The effects of Teach for America in high school* (Working Paper 17. Revised). Washington, DC: The Urban Institute, National Center for Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Education Research.

Second Step Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated May 2015.

Program Description: Second Step is a classroom-based social skills program for reducing aggressive behavior in elementary school-aged children. Second Step focuses on teaching social-emotional competencies and self-regulation skills including nonviolent response techniques. Lessons are taught by a trained teacher in a classroom setting.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$32	Benefit to cost ratio	\$0.57
Participants	\$38	Benefits minus costs	(\$51)
Others	\$35	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$36)	benefits greater than the costs	30 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$69</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$121)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	(\$51)		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Crime	\$0	\$3	\$7	\$1	\$11
Labor market earnings associated with high school graduation	\$37	\$17	\$17	\$17	\$88
K-12 special education	\$0	\$4	\$0	\$2	\$6
Health care associated with disruptive behavior disorder	\$3	\$10	\$12	\$5	\$30
Costs of higher education	(\$3)	(\$2)	(\$1)	(\$1)	(\$6)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$60)	(\$60)
<u>Totals</u>	<u>\$38</u>	<u>\$32</u>	<u>\$35</u>	<u>(\$36)</u>	<u>\$69</u>

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

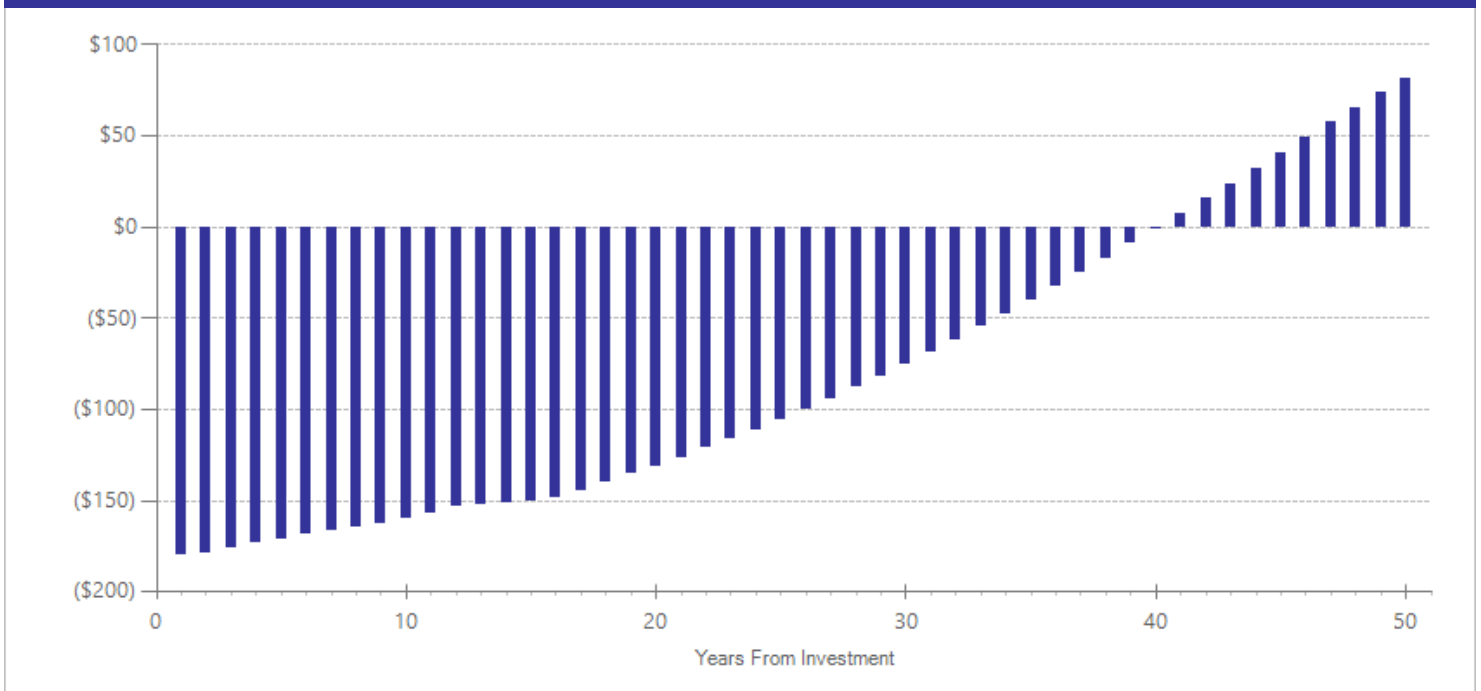
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$117	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$121)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

To estimate costs, we assume that teachers spend an average of 15 hours teaching Second Step lessons (30 sessions of 30 minutes) and attend a two-day training. To estimate a per-student annual cost, we calculated the value of teacher time using average Washington State compensation costs (including benefits) for a K-8 teacher as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction and divide by the number of students in a prototypical elementary school. The estimate also includes curriculum cost as reported by Second Step (<https://store.cfchildren.org/elementary-kindergarten--grade-5-c29.aspx>) and registration costs for teachers to attend two days of training (<http://legacy.nreppadmin.net/ViewIntervention.aspx?id=66>).

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder symptoms	1	3637	-0.108	0.024	6	0.000	0.005	7	-0.108	0.001
Externalizing behavior symptoms	3	4214	-0.060	0.041	7	-0.028	0.024	10	-0.060	0.172
School attendance [^]	1	1074	0.203	0.144	10	0.203	0.144	10	0.203	0.159
Suspensions/expulsions [^]	1	1074	0.028	0.144	10	0.028	0.144	10	0.028	0.849

[^]WSIPP's benefit-cost model does not monetize this outcome.

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Grossman, D.C., Neckerman, H.J., Koepsell, T.D., Liu, P.Y., Asher, K.N., Beland, K., . . . Rivara, F.P. (1997). Effectiveness of a violence prevention curriculum among children in elementary school: A randomized controlled trial. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 277(20), 1605-1611.
- Low, S., Cook, C.R., Smolkowski, K., & Buntain-Ricklefs, J. (2015). Promoting social-emotional competence: An evaluation of the elementary version of Second Step®. *Journal of School Psychology*, 53(6), 463-477.
- Neace, W.P., & Muñoz, M.A. (2012). Pushing the boundaries of education: Evaluating the impact of Second Step®: A violence prevention curriculum with psychosocial and non-cognitive measures. *Child & Youth Services*, 33(1), 46-69.
- Sullivan, T.N., Sutherland, K.S., Farrell, A.D., & Taylor, K.A. (2015). An evaluation of Second Step: What are the benefits for youth with and without disabilities?. *Remedial and special education*, 36(5), 286-298.

Teacher professional development: Not targeted

Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: Generally, professional development (PD) for K–12 teachers includes activities such as workshops, conferences, summer institutes, and time set aside during the school year for staff development. The evaluations included in this analysis examine impacts on student outcomes from providing more time and funding for teacher PD without directing how those resources are used.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$4	Benefit to cost ratio	(\$0.32)
Participants	\$8	Benefits minus costs	(\$117)
Others	\$4	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$44)	benefits greater than the costs	35 %
Total benefits	(\$28)		
Net program cost	(\$89)		
Benefits minus cost	(\$117)		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$8	\$4	\$4	\$0	\$16
Health care associated with educational attainment	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$0
Costs of higher education	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$0
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$44)	(\$44)
Totals	\$8	\$4	\$4	(\$44)	(\$28)

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²“Others” includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³“Indirect benefits” includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

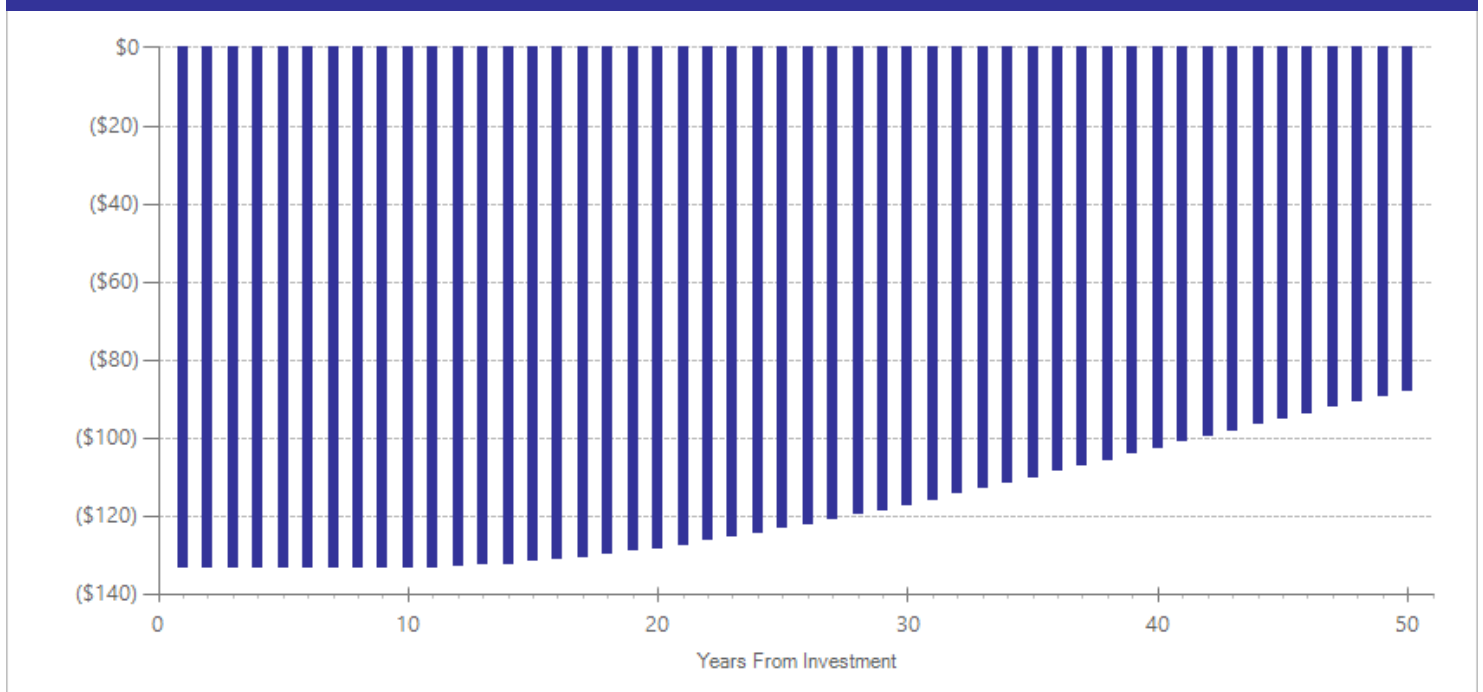
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$86	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$89)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

In the evaluations included in the meta-analysis, teachers received an average of 20 additional hours of non-targeted professional development (PD) in comparison with the usual amount of PD time. We calculated the value of PD time using average teacher salaries (including benefits) in Washington State as reported by the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we divided compensation costs by the number of students per classroom in Washington's prototypical schools formula and add per-student materials, supplies, and operating costs to account for the overhead (i.e. facility and administrative costs) associated with providing PD.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	12	461497	0.000	0.002	11	0.000	0.002	17	0.000	0.996

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Angrist, J.D., & Lavy, V. (2001). Does teacher training affect pupil learning? Evidence from matched comparisons in Jerusalem public schools. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 19(2), 343-369.
- Antoniou, P., & Kyriakides, L. (2013). A Dynamic Integrated Approach to teacher professional development: Impact and sustainability of the effects on improving teacher behaviour and student outcomes. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 29(1), 1-12.
- Cardelle-Elawar, M. (1995). Effects of metacognitive instruction on low achievers in mathematics problems. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 11(1), 81-95.
- Dalton, E.A. (2010). *Relationship between professional development expenditures and student achievement*. (Doctoral dissertation, Tarleton State University, 2010, UMI No. 3428757).
- Duffy, G.G., Roehler, L.R., Meloth, M.S., Vavrus, L.G., Book, C., Putnam, J., & Wesselman, R. (1986). The relationship between explicit verbal explanations during reading skill instruction and student awareness and achievement: A study of reading teacher effects. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21(3), 237-252.
- Harris, D.N., & Sass, T.R. (2011). Teacher training, teacher quality and student achievement. *Journal of Public Economics*, 95(7-8), 798-812.
- Jacob, B.A., & Lefgren, L. (2004). The impact of teacher training on student achievement: Quasi-experimental evidence from school reform efforts in Chicago. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 39(1), 50-79.
- McGill-Franzen, A., Allington, R.L., Yokoi, L., & Brooks, G. (1999). Putting books in the classroom seems necessary but not sufficient. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 93(2), 67-74.
- Siegle, D. & McCoach, D. (2007). Increasing student mathematics self-efficacy through teacher training. *The Journal of Secondary Gifted Education*, 18(2), 278-331.
- Sloan, H.A. (1993). Direct instruction in fourth and fifth grade classrooms. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 54(08), 2837A.

Full-day kindergarten Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated December 2013.

Program Description: In this analysis, we compare the effects of full day kindergarten programs with the effects of half day kindergarten among public school students.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$445	Benefit to cost ratio	\$0.14
Participants	\$924	Benefits minus costs	(\$2,384)
Others	\$393	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$1,383)	benefits greater than the costs	37 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>\$378</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$2,762)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	(\$2,384)		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$946	\$430	\$425	\$0	\$1,801
Health care associated with educational attainment	(\$7)	\$25	(\$27)	\$13	\$4
Costs of higher education	(\$15)	(\$10)	(\$5)	(\$5)	(\$35)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$1,391)	(\$1,391)
<u>Totals</u>	<u>\$924</u>	<u>\$445</u>	<u>\$393</u>	<u>(\$1,383)</u>	<u>\$378</u>

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

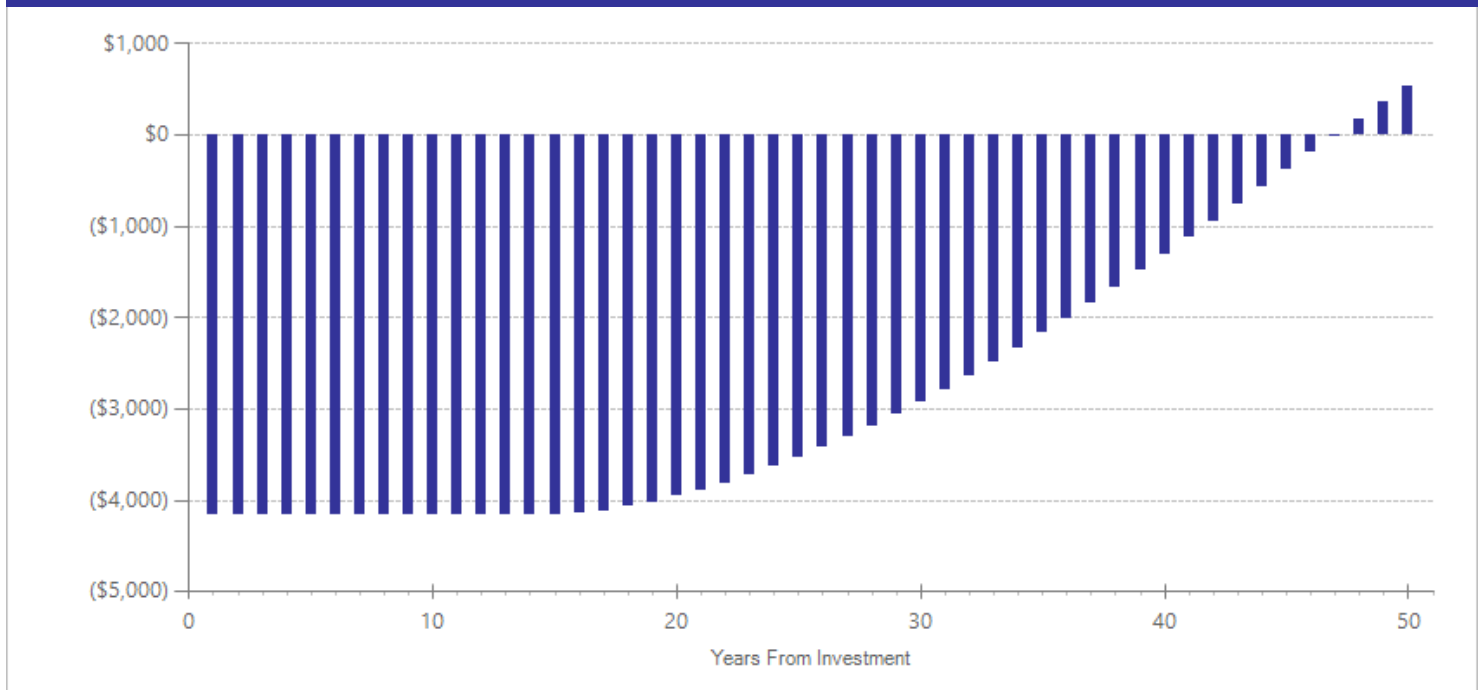
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$3,151	2012	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$2,762)
Comparison costs	\$505	2012	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

Treatment costs are the increased cost to provide full-day kindergarten rather than half-day kindergarten including twice the staff costs and additional classroom space. We estimated the construction costs of new classrooms based on a kindergarten class size of twenty, 90 square foot of space per student and \$188.55 (2012 dollars) of construction costs per square foot; We estimated that 50% of the comparison group students who were eligible would use a half day of child care subsidies. We estimated that 48.91% of students would be eligible for child care subsidies based on the number of students eligible for free and reduced-priced meals (Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction. (2012). 2012-2013 Washington Public School Free and Reduced-Price Meal Eligibility. <http://k12.wa.us/ChildNutrition/Reports/FreeReducedMeals.aspx> and Department of Early Learning. (2013). Child Care Subsidy Rates. <http://www.del.wa.gov/publications/subsidy/docs/ChildCareSubsidyRates.pdf>)

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	2	23127	0.022	0.091	8	0.012	0.068	17	0.022	0.812

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Cannon, S.J., Jacknowitz, A., & Painter, G. (2006). Is full better than half? Examining the longitudinal effects of full-day kindergarten attendance. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 25(2), 299-321.
- Cannon, J.S., Jacknowitz, A., & Painter, G. (2011). The effect of attending full-day kindergarten on English learner students. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 30(2), 287-309.
- Chang, M., & Singh, K. (2008). Is all-day kindergarten better for children's academic performance? Evidence from the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study. *Australian Journal of Early Childhood*, 33(4), 35-42.
- DeCicca, P. (2007). Does full-day kindergarten matter? Evidence from the first two years of schooling. *Economics of Education Review*, 26(1), 67-82.
- Holmes, C.T., & McConnell, B.M. (1990). *Full-day versus half-day kindergarten: An experimental study*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association: Boston, MA.
- Le, V.-N., Kirby, S.N., Barney, H., Setodji, C. M., & Gershwin, D. (2006). *School readiness, full-day kindergarten, and student achievement: An empirical investigation*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.
- Lee, V. E., Burkam, D.T., Ready, D.D., Honigman, J., & Meisels, S.J. (2006). Full-day versus half-day kindergarten: In which program do children learn more? *American Journal of Education*, 112(2), 163-208.
- Votruba-Drzal, E., Li-Grining, C.P., & Maldonado-Carre o, C. (2008). A developmental perspective on full- versus part-day kindergarten and children's academic trajectories through fifth grade. *Child Development*, 79(4), 957-978.
- Warburton, W.P., Warburton, R.N., & Hertzman, C. (2012). Does full day kindergarten help kids? *Canadian Public Policy*, 38(4), 591-603.
- Zvoch, K., Reynolds, R.E., & Parker, R.P. (2008). Full-day kindergarten and student literacy growth: Does a lengthened school day make a difference? *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 23(1), 94-107.

Educator professional development: Use of data to guide instruction Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: One form of professional development (PD) involves training senior/mentoring/coaching teachers how to use student academic assessment data to modify and improve instruction. In this "train the trainers" approach, teacher-leaders directly receive the training and then share what they have learned with classroom teachers. This type of PD is usually paired with computer software that tracks and reports student assessment data to teachers. The specific types of assessments and software evaluated and included in this meta-analysis are (in no particular order) Individualized Student Instruction (ISI) using A2i software and Ohio's Personalized Assessment Reporting System (PARS).

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	(\$803)	Benefit to cost ratio	(\$174.30)
Participants	(\$1,667)	Benefits minus costs	(\$3,213)
Others	(\$703)	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$22)	benefits greater than the costs	31 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>(\$3,195)</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$18)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	(\$3,213)		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	(\$1,710)	(\$777)	(\$762)	\$0	(\$3,249)
Health care associated with educational attainment	\$13	(\$46)	\$51	(\$23)	(\$6)
Costs of higher education	\$30	\$20	\$9	\$10	\$69
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$9)	(\$9)
Totals	(\$1,667)	(\$803)	(\$703)	(\$22)	(\$3,195)

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

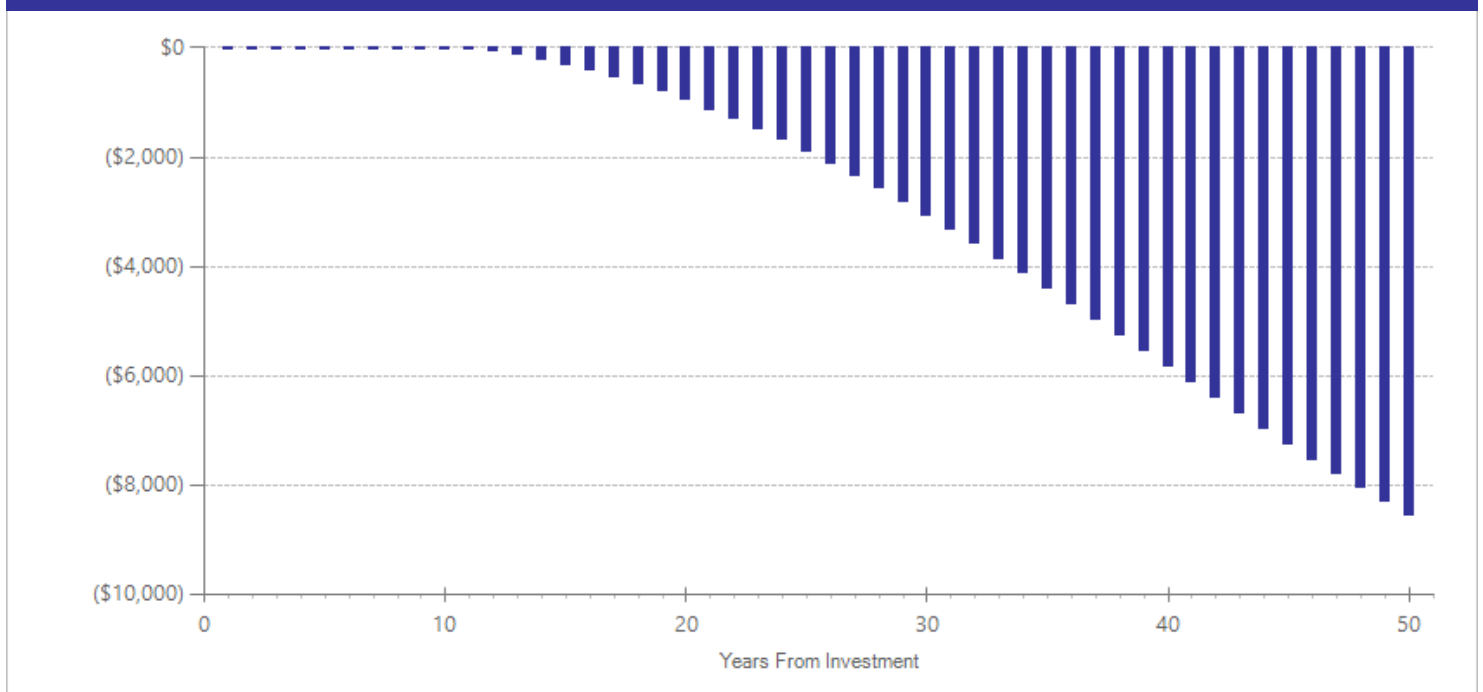
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$18	2013	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$18)
Comparison costs	\$0	2013	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

In the evaluations included in this meta-analysis, educators received an average of three hours of training in how to use student assessment data to guide instruction. We calculated the value of PD time using average teacher salaries (including benefits) as reported by the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we divided compensation costs by the number of students per classroom in Washington's prototypical schools formula and added per-student materials, supplies, and operating costs to account for the overhead (i.e. facility, computer, and administrative costs) associated with providing PD.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	2	26047	-0.030	0.036	10	-0.020	0.040	17	-0.030	0.409

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Carlson, D., Borman, G.D., & Robinson, M. (2011). A multistate district-level cluster randomized trial of the impact of data-driven reform on reading and mathematics achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 33*(3), 378-398.
- May, H., & Robinson, M.A. (2007). *A randomized evaluation of Ohio's personalized assessment report system (PARS)*. Madison, WI: Consortium for Policy Research in Education.

"Check-in" behavior interventions

Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated May 2015.

Program Description: Check-in behavior interventions provide support for at-risk students in grades K–12 in order to reduce dropouts, promote engagement at school, and reduce problem behaviors. Typically, students must check-in with a designated adult at the school each day. The designated adult collects and monitors data on at-risk indicators (e.g. tardiness, absenteeism, discipline referrals, and poor grades); provides feedback and mentoring; facilitates individualized interventions as appropriate; and ensures communication with parents. The programs included in this analysis are (in no particular order) Check-In, Check-Out (also known as the Behavior Education Program); Check and Connect; and Check, Connect, and Expect.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	(\$371)	Benefit to cost ratio	(\$1.71)
Participants	(\$888)	Benefits minus costs	(\$3,656)
Others	(\$389)	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$660)	benefits greater than the costs	46 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>(\$2,307)</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$1,349)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	(\$3,656)		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Crime	\$0	\$5	\$11	\$2	\$18
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	(\$892)	(\$405)	(\$419)	\$0	(\$1,716)
K-12 grade repetition	\$0	\$5	\$0	\$3	\$8
K-12 special education	\$0	\$9	\$0	\$5	\$14
Health care associated with disruptive behavior disorder	\$5	\$16	\$20	\$8	\$49
Costs of higher education	(\$1)	(\$1)	\$0	(\$1)	(\$3)
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$676)	(\$676)
Totals	(\$888)	(\$371)	(\$389)	(\$660)	(\$2,307)

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

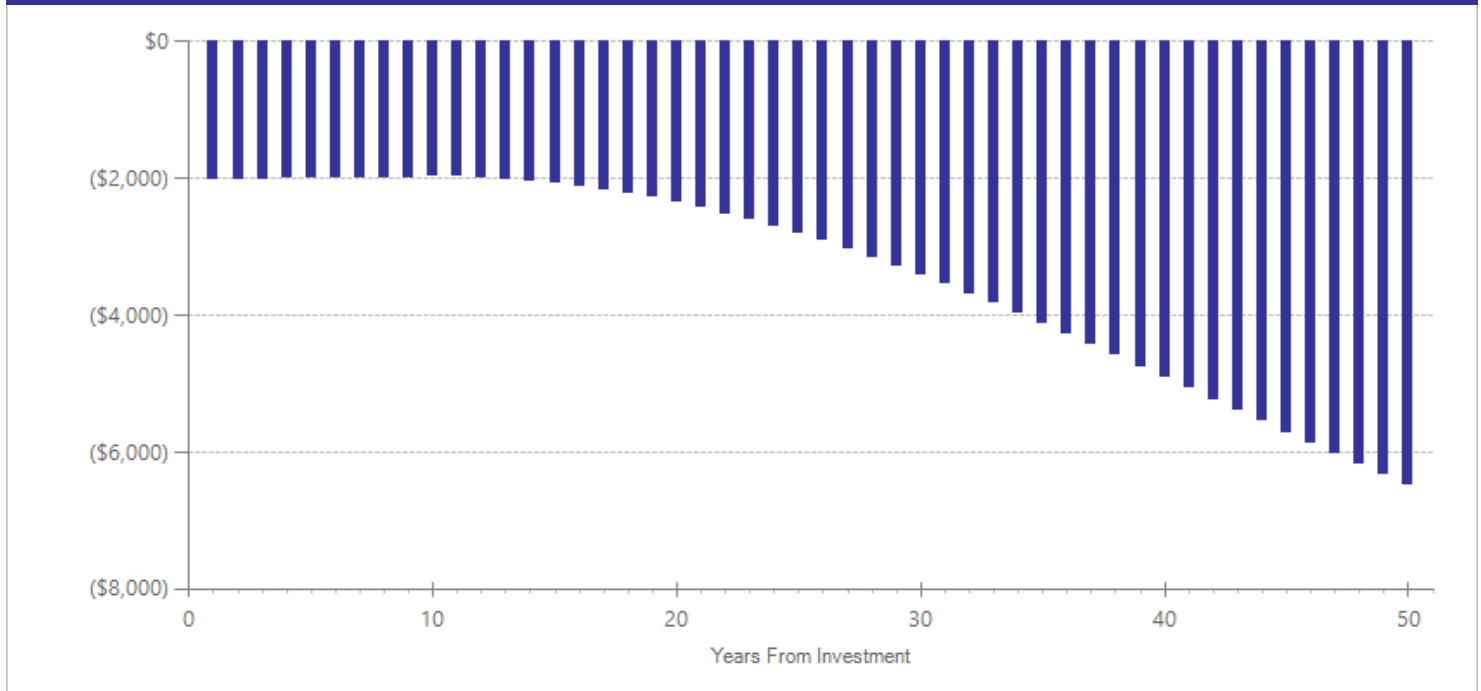
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$1,329	2014	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$1,349)
Comparison costs	\$0	2014	Cost range (+ or -)	30 %

Costs for check-in programs can vary depending on the type and intensity of the intervention. To calculate a per-student annual cost, we use the average between a minimal check-in program facilitated by a paraprofessional serving a caseload of up to 15 students and a more intensive program facilitated by a school counselor with a caseload of up to 35 students. We use average Washington State compensation costs (including benefits) for K-12 staff as reported by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction and include training time in our estimate. Program implementation details are based in part on information provided by the following sources: National Center on Intensive Intervention. (n.d.) Behavior Education Program (BEP) or Check-in/Check-out (CICO). Retrieved from <http://www.intensiveintervention.org/chart/behavioral-intervention-chart> and Coalition for Evidence-Based Policy. (2015). Check and Connect. Retrieved from <http://evidencebasedprograms.org/1366-2/check-and-connect>.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Externalizing behavior symptoms	1	121	-0.094	0.209	9	-0.045	0.110	12	-0.218	0.298
Grade point average [^]	1	89	0.070	0.146	15	0.070	0.146	15	0.070	0.633
Internalizing symptoms	1	121	-0.140	0.209	9	-0.102	0.168	11	-0.325	0.122
Office discipline referrals [^]	2	116	-0.276	0.143	15	-0.276	0.143	15	-0.276	0.054
School attendance [^]	1	89	0.010	0.146	15	0.010	0.146	15	0.010	0.945
Test scores	1	121	-0.016	0.209	9	-0.010	0.230	17	-0.037	0.858

[^]WSIPP's benefit-cost model does not monetize this outcome.

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Cheney, D.A., Stage, S.A., Hawken, L.S., Lynass, L., Mielenz, C., & Waugh, M. (2009). A 2-year outcome study of the Check, Connect, and Expect intervention for students at risk for severe behavior problems. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 17*(4), 226-243.
- Maynard, B.R., Kjellstrand, E.K., & Thompson, A.M. (2014). Effects of Check and Connect on attendance, behavior, and academics: A randomized effectiveness trial. *Research on Social Work Practice, 24*(3), 296-309.
- Simonsen, B., Myers, D., & Briere, D. (2010). Comparing a behavioral Check-In/Check-Out (CICO) intervention to standard practice in an urban middle school setting using an experimental group design. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 13*(1), 31-48.

Even Start Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated April 2012.

Program Description: Even Start is a federally-funded program that provides early childhood education, adult education (including basic education and/or instruction for English language learners), parenting education, and parent-child literacy activities to low-income families with young children.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	(\$716)	Benefit to cost ratio	(\$1.15)
Participants	(\$1,482)	Benefits minus costs	(\$9,283)
Others	(\$603)	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$2,158)	benefits greater than the costs	31 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>(\$4,959)</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$4,324)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	(\$9,283)		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	(\$1,527)	(\$693)	(\$675)	\$0	(\$2,895)
Health care associated with educational attainment	\$16	(\$57)	\$63	(\$27)	(\$5)
Costs of higher education	\$29	\$34	\$9	\$16	\$88
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$2,147)	(\$2,147)
Totals	(\$1,482)	(\$716)	(\$603)	(\$2,158)	(\$4,959)

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

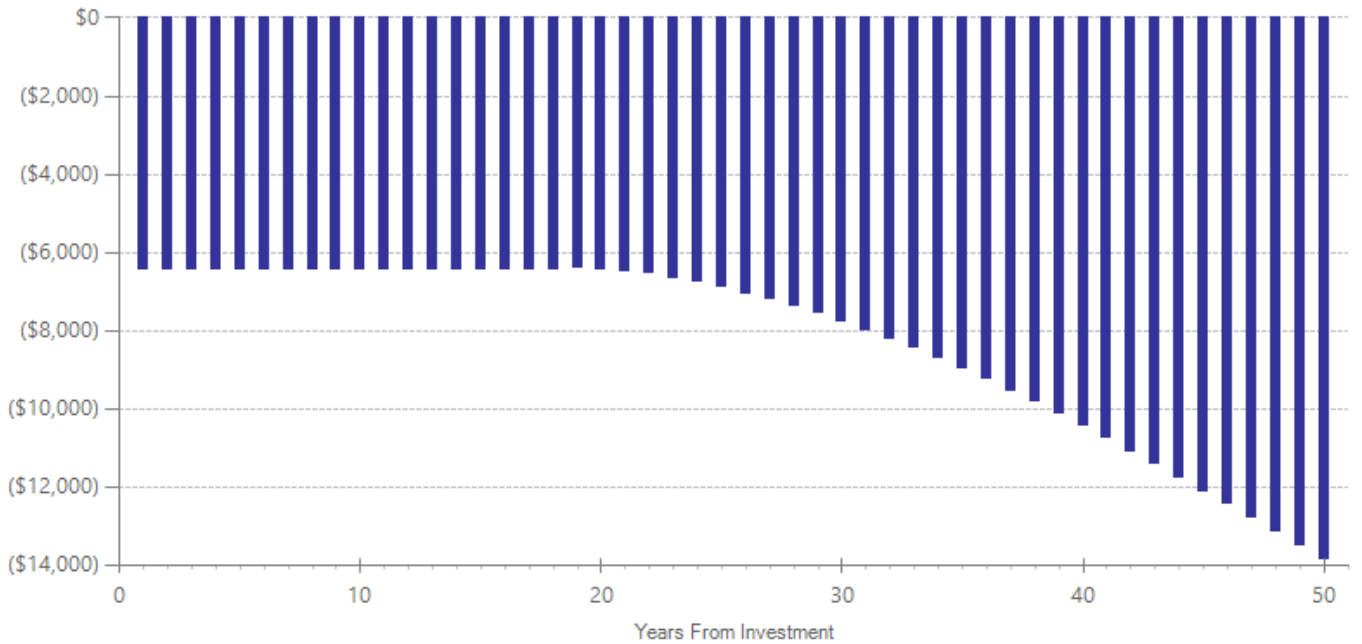
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$4,708	2001	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$4,324)
Comparison costs	\$1,679	2010	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

Families typically participate in Even Start for a year or less. Per-family costs from St. Pierre, R.G., Ricciuti, A., Tao, F., Creps, C., Swartz, J., Lee, W., Parsad, A., & Rimdzius, T. (2003). *Third National Even Start Evaluation: Program impacts and implications for improvement*. Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates, Inc.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	Primary or secondary participant	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
				First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
				ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	Primary	2	183	-0.051	0.142	6	-0.021	0.156	17	-0.051	0.718
Adult literacy [^]	Secondary	2	234	0.006	0.124	31	0.006	0.124	31	0.006	0.961
Employment ^{^^}	Secondary	2	234	0.004	0.216	31	0.004	0.216	31	0.004	0.984
GED attainment [^]	Secondary	2	249	0.074	0.234	31	0.074	0.234	31	0.074	0.753

[^]WSIPP’s benefit-cost model does not monetize this outcome.

^{^^}WSIPP does not include this outcome when conducting benefit-cost analysis for this program.

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- St. Pierre, R., Ricciuti, A., Tao, F., Creps, C., Swartz, J., Lee, W., . . . Rimdzius, T. (2003). *Third national Even Start evaluation: Program impacts and implications for improvement*. Cambridge: Abt Associates.
- St. Pierre, R., Swartz, J., Gamse, B., Murray, S., Deck, D., & Nickel, P. (1995). *National evaluation of the Even Start Family Literacy Program*. Cambridge: Abt Associates.

Early Head Start Pre-K to 12 Education

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2017. Literature review updated April 2012.

Program Description: Early Head Start is a federally-funded program for low-income pregnant women and families with infants or toddlers that aims to enhance children's development and health and strengthen families. Families can receive services until the children are three years old. Early Head Start accounts for 10% of the Head Start budget; program providers determine the specific services offered following Head Start guidelines.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant

Benefits to:			
Taxpayers	\$2,176	Benefit to cost ratio	(\$0.13)
Participants	\$713	Benefits minus costs	(\$12,617)
Others	\$357	Chance the program will produce	
Indirect	(\$4,740)	benefits greater than the costs	25 %
<u>Total benefits</u>	<u>(\$1,494)</u>		
<u>Net program cost</u>	<u>(\$11,123)</u>		
Benefits minus cost	(\$12,617)		

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2016). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant

Benefits from changes to: ¹	Benefits to:				
	Participants	Taxpayers	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total
Crime	\$0	\$4	\$9	\$2	\$14
Labor market earnings associated with test scores	\$575	\$261	\$250	\$0	\$1,086
K-12 grade repetition	\$0	\$37	\$0	\$19	\$56
K-12 special education	\$0	\$599	\$0	\$301	\$900
Health care associated with disruptive behavior disorder	\$2	\$6	\$8	\$3	\$20
Costs of higher education	(\$11)	(\$13)	(\$4)	(\$7)	(\$35)
Subtotals	\$566	\$894	\$262	\$317	\$2,040
From secondary participant					
Labor market earnings associated with major depression	\$531	\$241	\$0	\$6	\$778
Health care associated with major depression	\$25	\$77	\$95	\$38	\$234
Public assistance	(\$409)	\$963	\$0	\$483	\$1,037
Subtotals	\$147	\$1,281	\$95	\$527	\$2,050
Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$5,585)	(\$5,585)
Totals	\$713	\$2,176	\$357	(\$4,740)	(\$1,494)

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.

³"Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

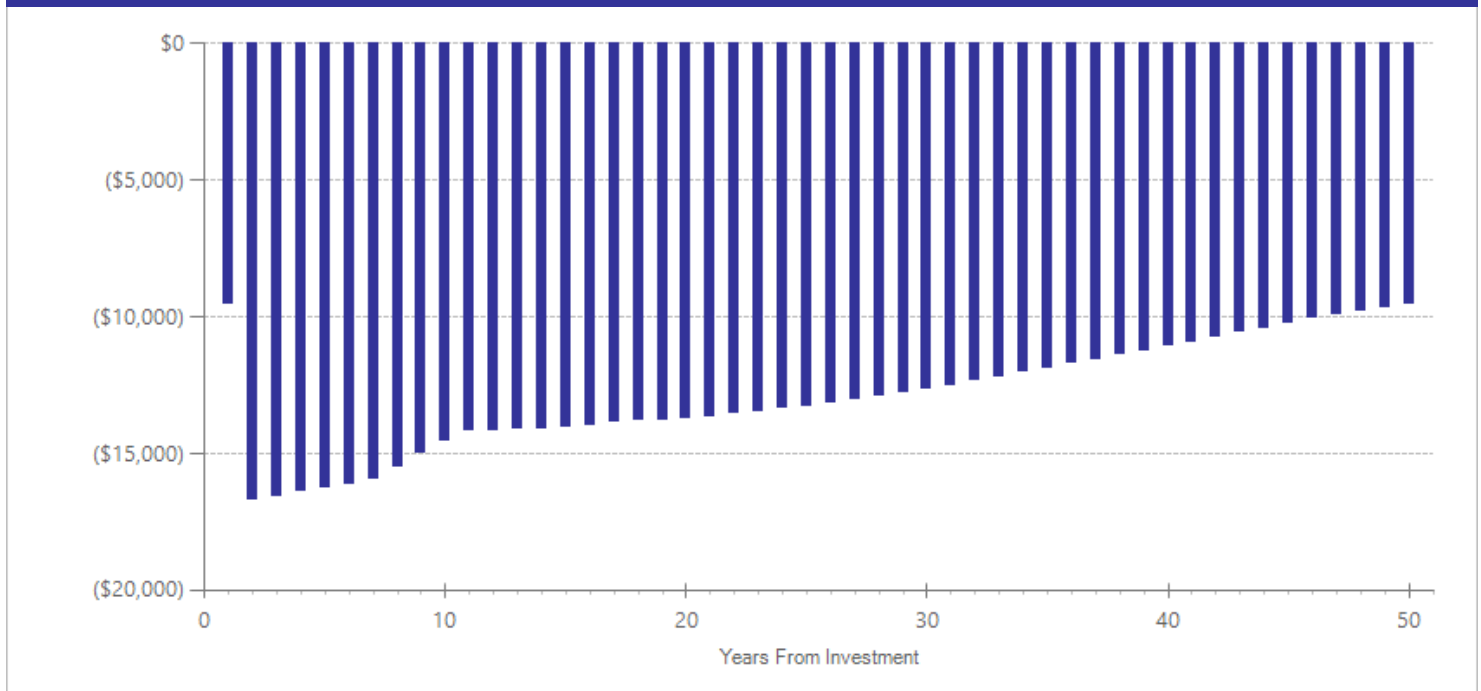
Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant

	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary	
Program costs	\$7,600	2010	Present value of net program costs (in 2016 dollars)	(\$11,123)
Comparison costs	\$1,679	2010	Cost range (+ or -)	10 %

Families who participate in Early Head Start typically participate for 1.75 years. Per-family costs from the US Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children & Families, FY 2010.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment or treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in non-discounted dollars to simplify the “break-even” point from a budgeting perspective. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	Primary or secondary participant	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
				First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
				ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Crime	Primary	1	842	0.000	0.050	10	0.000	0.050	20	0.000	1.000
Externalizing behavior symptoms	Primary	1	842	-0.038	0.050	10	-0.018	0.027	13	-0.038	0.447
Internalizing symptoms	Primary	1	842	-0.052	0.050	10	-0.038	0.042	12	-0.052	0.296
K-12 grade repetition	Primary	1	842	-0.041	0.088	10	-0.041	0.088	17	-0.041	0.637
K-12 special education	Primary	1	842	-0.093	0.081	10	-0.093	0.081	17	-0.093	0.252
Test scores	Primary	1	842	0.011	0.052	10	0.007	0.057	17	0.011	0.827
Employment ^{^^}	Secondary	1	842	0.000	0.050	29	0.000	0.050	39	0.000	1.000
Major depressive disorder	Secondary	1	842	-0.045	0.050	29	-0.023	0.274	31	-0.045	0.364
Public assistance	Secondary	1	842	-0.073	0.060	29	-0.073	0.060	39	-0.073	0.224
Substance misuse [^]	Secondary	1	842	-0.008	0.112	29	-0.008	0.112	39	-0.008	0.940
Years of education	Secondary	1	842	0.000	0.050	29	0.000	0.050	39	0.000	1.000

[^]WSIPP's benefit-cost model does not monetize this outcome.

^{^^}WSIPP does not include this outcome when conducting benefit-cost analysis for this program.

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Roggman, L.A., Boyce, L.K., & Cook, G.A. (2009). Keeping kids on track: Impacts of a parenting-focused early head start program on attachment security and cognitive development. *Early Education and Development, 20*(6), 920-941.
- Vogel, C.A., Xue, Y., Moiduddin, E.M., Carlson, B.L., & Kisker, E. (2010). *Early Head Start children in grade 5: Long-term follow-up of the Early Head Start research and evaluation study sample* (Final Report) (Document No. PR10-61). Princeton, NJ: Mathematica Policy Research.

Daily Behavior Report Cards

Pre-K to 12 Education

Literature review updated April 2018.

Program Description: Daily behavior report cards (DBRC) are a systematic method of communicating with parents about a student's behavior in school. Typically, teachers identify students exhibiting behavior problems for participation. The report cards are sent home with the child or electronically, and the student must return the form the following morning with the parent's signature. Behavioral reinforcements or consequences are delivered to students by parents or teachers and are selected based on the individual child. In this analysis, teachers issued electronic report cards to students in 3rd grade over a three-week period, and parents issued behavioral rewards or consequences.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects										
Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder symptoms	1	31	-0.065	0.340	8	0.000	0.017	9	-0.284	0.405
Externalizing behavior symptoms	1	31	-0.158	0.340	8	-0.075	0.179	11	-0.685	0.049
Internalizing symptoms	1	31	-1.070	0.359	8	-0.779	0.410	10	-1.070	0.003

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

Williams, K., Noell, G.H., Jones, B.A., & Gansle, K.A. (2012). Modifying students' classroom behaviors using an Electronic Daily Behavior Report Card. *Children and Family Behavioral Therapy*, 34(4), 269-289.

Charter schools: overall impact

Pre-K to 12 Education

Literature review updated August 2013.

Program Description: A charter school is a public school governed under a “charter,” or contract, between the group operating the school and an authorizing agency, typically a state or local jurisdiction. Charter schools are often exempt from some state or local rules and regulations but must meet accountability standards articulated in its charter. The studies included in this analysis measure the impact of attending a charter school compared to a traditional public school. We present the findings for reading scores here.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects										
Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	65	1597623	0.013	0.007	12	0.010	0.007	17	0.013	0.057

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Abdulkadiroglu, A., Angrist, J.D., Dynarski, S.M., Kane, T.J., and Pathak, P.A. (2011). Accountability and flexibility in public schools: Evidence from Boston's charters and pilots. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 126(2): 699-748.
- Angrist, J.D., Dynarski, S.M., Kane, T.J., Pathak, P.A., & Walters, C.R. (2012). Who benefits from KIPP? *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*. Advance online publication. doi: 10.1002/pam.21647.
- Angrist, J.D., Pathak, P.A., & Walters, C.R. (2012). *Explaining Charter School Effectiveness (Working Paper 12-11)*. Cambridge, MA: Department of Economics, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- Bettinger, E. P. (2005). The effect of charter schools on charter students and public schools. *Economics of Education Review*, 24(2): 133-147.
- Betts, J.R., Rice, L.A., Zau, A.C., Tang, Y.E., & Koedel, C.R. (2006). *Does school choice work? Effects on student integration and achievement*. San Francisco, CA: Public Policy Institute of California.
- Bifulco, R., & Ladd, H. F. (2006). The impacts of charter schools on student achievement: evidence from North Carolina. *Education Finance and Policy*, 1(1): 50-90.
- Booker, K., Gilpatric, S. M., Gronberg, T., & Jansen, D. (2007). The impact of charter school attendance on student performance. *Journal of Public Economics*, 91(5): 849-876.
- Carruthers, C. K. (2012). New schools, new students, new teachers: Evaluating the effectiveness of charter schools. *Economics of Education Review*, 31(2): 280-292.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2009a). *Charter school performance in Arizona*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2009b). *Charter school performance in Arkansas*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2009c). *Charter school performance in California*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.

- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2009d). *Charter school performance in Colorado*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2009e). *Charter school performance in the District of Columbia*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2009f). *Charter school performance in Florida*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2009g). *Charter school performance in Georgia*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2009h). *Charter school performance in Illinois*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2009i). *Charter school performance in Louisiana*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2009j). *Charter school performance in Minnesota*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2009k). *Charter school performance in Missouri*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2009l). *Charter school performance in New Mexico*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2009m). *Charter school performance in North Carolina*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2009n). *Charter school performance in Ohio*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2009o). *Charter school performance in Texas*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2011a). *Charter school performance in Indiana*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2011b). *Charter school performance in Pennsylvania*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2012). *Charter school performance in New Jersey*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2013a). *Charter school performance in Massachusetts*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2013b). *Charter school performance in Michigan*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO). (2013c). *Charter school performance in New York City*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Dobbie, W., and Fryer, R. (2012). *Getting beneath the veil of effective schools: Evidence from New York City*. Unpublished manuscript, Cambridge, MA: Harvard University.
- Gleason, P., Clark, M., Tuttle, C.C., Dwoyer, E., & Silverberg, M. (2010). *The evaluation of charter school impacts (Report No. NCEE 2010-4029)*. Washington D.C.: United States Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance.
- Herman, J.L., Wang, J., Rickles, J., Hsu, V., Monroe, S., Leon, S., & Straubhaar, R. (2012). *Evaluation of Green Dot's Locke transformation project: Findings for cohort 1 and 2 students (CRESST Report 815)*. Los Angeles, CA: University of California, Los Angeles, Graduate School of Education & Information Studies, National Center for Research on Evaluation, Standards, & Student Testing.
- Hoxby, C.M., & Rockoff, J.E. (2005). *The impact of charter schools on student achievement*. Cambridge, MA: Author. Retrieved from <http://www.rand.org/content/dam/rand/www/external/labor/seminars/adp/pdfs/2005hoxby.pdf>.
- Hoxby, C. M., Kang, J. L., & Murarka, S. (2009). *Technical Report: How New York City Charter Schools Affect Achievement*. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research
- Imberman, S.A. (2011). Achievement and behavior in charter schools: Drawing a more complete picture. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 93(2): 416-435.
- Ni, Y., & Rorrer, A. K. (2012). Twice considered: Charter schools and student achievement in Utah. *Economics of Education Review*, 31(5): 835-849.
- Nicotera, A., Mendiburo, M., & Berends, M. (2009). *Charter school effects in an urban school district: An analysis of student achievement gains in Indianapolis*. Paper presented at the National Center on School Choice Conference at Vanderbilt University, Nashville, TN.
- Ross, S. M., McDonald, A. J., Alberg, M., & McSparrin-Gallagher, B. (2007). Achievement and Climate Outcomes for the Knowledge Is Power Program in an Inner-City Middle School. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, 12(2): 137-165.
- Sass, T.R. (2006). Charter schools and student achievement in Florida. *Education Finance and Policy*, 1(1): 91-122.
- Solmon, L., Paark, K., & Garcia, D. (2001). *Does charter school attendance improve test scores? The Arizona results*. Phoenix, AZ: Goldwater Institute, Center for Market-Based Education.
- Supovitz, J., & Rikoon, S. (2010). *Early achievement impacts of the Harlem Success Academy charter schools in New York City*. Unpublished manuscript. Graduate School of Education, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA.
- Tuttle, C.C., Gill, B., Gleason, P., Knechtel, V., Nicholas-Barrer, I., & Resch, A. (2013). *KIPP middle schools: Impacts on achievement and other outcomes*. Washington DC: Mathematica Policy Research.
- Witte, J. F., Wolf, P. J., Carlson, D., & Dean, A. (2012). *Milwaukee Independent Charter Schools Study: Final Report on Four-Year Achievement Gains (SCDP Milwaukee Evaluation Report #31)*. Fayetteville, AR: University of Arkansas, Department of Education Reform, School Choice Demonstration Project.
- Woodworth, K.R., David, J.L., Guha, R., Wang, H., & Lopez-Torkos, A. (2008). *San Francisco Bay area KIPP schools: A study of early implementation and achievement (Final Report)*. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International.
- Zimmer, R., & Buddin, R. (2006). Charter school performance in two large urban districts. *Journal of Urban Economics*, 60(2): 307-326.

Zimmer, R., Gill, B., Booker, K., Lavertu, S., & Witte, J. (2012). Examining charter student achievement effects across seven states. *Economics of Education Review*, 31(2): 213-224.

Academic vocabulary instruction

Pre-K to 12 Education

Literature review updated March 2018.

Program Description: Academic Vocabulary Instruction is a structured approach to teaching specialized vocabulary words that appear frequently in expository, informational, and academic texts across disciplines (especially in secondary grades) but that are not commonly used in spoken English, such as hypothesis, generate, and domain. The program included in this analysis (Academic Language Instruction for All Students, or ALIAS) was designed for use in classrooms with low performance in English Language Arts and high numbers of English Language Learners. The program provided daily lessons to middle school students over 20 weeks, covered 70 vocabulary words, and provided teachers with materials and monthly implementation support meetings.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects										
Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	1	971	0.019	0.044	11	0.013	0.048	17	0.043	0.326

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

Lesaux, N.K., Kieffer, M.J., Kelley, J.G., & Harris, J.R. (2014). Effects of academic vocabulary instruction for linguistically diverse adolescents: Evidence from a randomized field trial. *American Educational Research Journal*, 51(6), 1159-1194.

Pre-K and elementary bilingual instruction for English language learners

Pre-K to 12 Education

Literature review updated June 2014.

Program Description: Bilingual instructional programs provide English language learner (ELL) students with classroom instruction partially in their native language and partially in English. The evaluations included in this analysis compare programs that use bilingual instruction to those in which instruction is conducted entirely in English, such as English as a Second Language (ESL) teaching strategies.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	21	58227	0.014	0.006	9	0.008	0.006	17	0.014	0.016

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Alvarez, J.M. (1975). Comparison of academic aspirations and achievement in bilingual versus monolingual classrooms. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 36(02), 693A.
- Bacon, H.L., Kidd, G.D., & Seaberg, J.J. (1982). The effectiveness of bilingual instruction with Cherokee Indian students. *Journal of American Indian Education*, 21(2), 34-43.
- Barnett, W.S., Yarosz, D.J., Thomas, J., Jung, K., & Blanco, D. (2007). Two-way and monolingual English immersion in preschool education: An experimental comparison. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 22(3), 277-293.
- Caldero'n, M., Hertz-Lazarowitz, R., & Slavin, R. (1998). Effects of bilingual cooperative integrated reading and composition on students making the transition from Spanish to English reading. *The Elementary School Journal*, 99(2), 153-165.
- Carlisle, J.F., & Beeman, M.M. (2000). The effects of language of instruction on the reading and writing achievement of first-grade Hispanic children. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 4(4), 331-353.
- Covey, D.D. (1973). An analytical study of secondary freshmen bilingual education and its effect on academic achievement and attitude of Mexican American students. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 33(09), 4789A.
- Danoff, M.N., Coles, G.J., McLaughlin, D.H., & Reynolds, D.J. (1978). *Evaluation of the impact of ESEA Title VII Spanish/English Bilingual Education Program. Volume III: Year two impact data, educational process, and in-depth analysis*. Palo Alto, CA: American Institutes for Research. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 154635)
- Duran, L.K., Roseth, C.J., & Hoffman, P. (2010). An experimental study comparing English-only and Transitional Bilingual Education on Spanish-speaking preschoolers' early literacy development. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 25(2), 207-217.
- Elizondo de Weffer, R.C. (1973). Effects of first language instruction in academic and psychological development of bilingual children. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 33(11), 5991A.
- Farver, J.A.M., Lonigan, C.J., & Eppe, S. (2009). Effective early literacy skill development for young Spanish-speaking English language learners: An experimental study of two methods. *Child Development*, 80(3), 703-719.
- Huzar, H. (1973). *The effects of an English-Spanish primary-grade reading program on second- and third-grade students* (Master's thesis, Rutgers University). (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 085683)

- Jepsen, C. (2010). Bilingual education and English proficiency. *Education Finance and Policy, 5*(2), 200-227.
- Kaufman, M. (1968). Will instruction in reading Spanish affect ability in reading English? *Journal of Reading, 11*(7), 521-527. Lampman, H. P. (1973). *Southeastern New Mexico bilingual program: Final report*. Artesia, NM: Artesia Public Schools. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 081529)
- Layden, R.G. (1973). The relationship between the language of instruction and the development of self-concept, classroom climate, and achievement of Spanish speaking Puerto Rican children. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 33*(12), 6733A.
- Lopez, M.G., & Tashakkori, A. (2006). Differential outcomes of two bilingual education programs on English language learners. *Bilingual Research Journal, 30*(1), 123-145.
- Matsudaira, J.D. (2005). *Sinking or swimming? Evaluating the impact of English immersion versus bilingual education*. Berkeley: University of California, Berkeley; Robert Wood Johnson Scholars in Health Policy Program.
- Plante, A.J. (1976). *A study of the effectiveness of the Connecticut "Pairing" model of bilingual-bicultural education*. Hamden, CT: Connecticut Staff Development Cooperative. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 125260)
- Ryan, A.M. (2007). Two tests of the effectiveness of bilingual education in preschool. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education, 21*(4), 352-363.
- Slavin, R.E., Madden, N., Calderon, M., Chamberlain, A., & Hennessy, M. (2010). *Reading and language outcomes of a five-year randomized evaluation of transitional bilingual education*. Unpublished manuscript. Retrieved June 16, 2011 from http://www.edweek.org/media/bilingual_pdf.pdf
- Tong, F., Irby, B., Lara-Alecio, R., & Mathes, P. (2008). English and Spanish acquisition by Hispanic second graders in developmental bilingual programs. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 30*(4), 500-529.

Charter schools: urban charter schools

Pre-K to 12 Education

Literature review updated August 2013.

Program Description: Charter schools have traditionally been located in cities; many are designed to serve minority students in high-poverty areas. A body of literature suggests that charter schools located in urban areas may be more effective than charters located outside of the urban core. The studies in this analysis measure the impact of attending a charter school compared to a traditional public school in urban areas. The analysis includes findings from specific cities (e.g. New York or Chicago), as well as statewide studies that examine impacts by urbanicity. We present the findings for reading scores here.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	38	339551	0.044	0.013	12	0.034	0.014	17	0.044	0.001

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Abdulkadiroglu, A., Angrist, J.D., Dynarski, S.M., Kane, T.J., and Pathak, P.A. (2011). Accountability and flexibility in public schools: Evidence from Boston's charters and pilots. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 126(2): 699-748.
- Angrist, J.D., Dynarski, S.M., Kane, T.J., Pathak, P.A., & Walters, C.R. (2012a). *Who benefits from KIPP? Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*. Advance online publication. doi: 10.1002/pam.21647.
- Angrist, J.D., Pathak, P.A., & Walters, C.R. (2012b). *Explaining Charter School Effectiveness (Working Paper 12-11)*. Cambridge, MA: Department of Economics, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- Betts, J.R., Rice, L.A., Zau, A.C., Tang, Y.E., & Koedel, C.R. (2006). *Does school choice work? Effects on student integration and achievement*. San Francisco, CA: Public Policy Institute of California.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes. (CREDO) (2009a). *Charter school performance in Colorado*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes. (CREDO) (2009b). *Charter school performance in Illinois*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes. (CREDO) (2009c). *Charter school performance in the District of Columbia*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes.(CREDO) (2012). *Charter school performance in New Jersey*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes. (CREDO) (2013a). *Charter school performance in Massachusetts*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes.(CREDO) (2013b). *Charter school performance in Michigan*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.

- Center for Research on Education Outcomes. (CREDO) (2013c). *Charter school performance in New York City*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Dobbie, W., and Fryer, R. (2012). *Getting beneath the veil of effective schools: Evidence from New York City*. Unpublished manuscript, Cambridge, MA: Harvard University.
- Hoxby, C. M., Kang, J. L., & Murarka, S. (2009). *Technical Report: How New York City Charter Schools Affect Achievement*. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research
- Hoxby, C.M., & Rockoff, J.E. (2005). *The impact of charter schools on student achievement*. Cambridge, MA: Author. Retrieved from <http://www.rand.org/content/dam/rand/www/external/labor/seminars/adp/pdfs/2005hoxby.pdf>.
- Imberman, S.A. (2011). Achievement and behavior in charter schools: Drawing a more complete picture. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 93(2): 416-435.
- Nicotera, A., Mendiburo, M., & Berends, M. (2009). *Charter school effects in an urban school district: An analysis of student achievement gains in Indianapolis*. Paper presented at the National Center on School Choice Conference at Vanderbilt University, Nashville, TN.
- Ross, S. M., McDonald, A. J., Alberg, M., & McSparrin-Gallagher, B. (2007). Achievement and Climate Outcomes for the Knowledge Is Power Program in an Inner-City Middle School. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, 12(2): 137-165.
- Supovitz, J., & Rikoon, S. (2010). *Early achievement impacts of the Harlem Success Academy charter schools in New York City*. Unpublished manuscript. Graduate School of Education, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA.
- Witte, J. F., Wolf, P. J., Carlson, D., & Dean, A. (2012). *Milwaukee Independent Charter Schools Study: Final Report on Four-Year Achievement Gains (SCDP Milwaukee Evaluation Report #31)*. Fayetteville, AR: University of Arkansas, Department of Education Reform, School Choice Demonstration Project.
- Woodworth, K.R., David, J.L., Guha, R., Wang, H., & Lopez-Torkos, A. (2008). *San Francisco Bay area KIPP schools: A study of early implementation and achievement (Final Report)*. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International.
- Zimmer, R., & Buddin, R. (2006). Charter school performance in two large urban districts. *Journal of Urban Economics*, 60(2): 307-326.
- Zimmer, R., Gill, B., Booker, K., Lavertu, S., & Witte, J. (2012). Examining charter student achievement effects across seven states. *Economics of Education Review*, 31(2): 213-224.

Principal quality Pre-K to 12 Education

Literature review updated August 2013.

Program Description: Do school principals directly affect student academic outcomes? The studies in this analysis use a "fixed effects" statistical approach to examine variation in principal quality. The studies focus on principals that move from one school to another; impacts on student outcomes can be estimated for different principals in the same school. The effects presented here represent the impact on test scores from a principal who is one standard deviation above average principal effectiveness.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects										
Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	6	2580828	0.107	0.020	11	0.077	0.022	17	0.107	0.001

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Branch, G.F., Hanushek, E.A., & Rivkin, S.G. (2012). *Estimating the Effect of Leaders on Public Sector Productivity: The Case of School Principals (Working Paper 17803)*. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Chiang, H., Lipscomb, S., & Gill, B. (2012). *Is school value-added indicative of principal quality? (Working Paper)*. Washington, DC: Mathematica Policy Research.
- Clark, D., Martorell, P., & Rockoff, J. (2009). *School principals and school performance (Working Paper 38)*. National Center for Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Education Research.
- Dhuey, E., & Smith, J. (2012a). *How important are school principals in the production of student achievement?* Retrieved from The Society of Labor Economists website: <http://sole-jole.org/13170.pdf>.
- Dhuey, E. & Smith, J. (2012b). *How school principals influence student learning (Working Paper)*. Toronto, ON: University of Toronto.
- Grissom, J.A., Kalogrides, D., & Loeb, S. (2012). *Using student test scores to measure principal performance (Working Paper 18568)*. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Supovitz, J., Sirinides, P., & May, H. (2010). How principals and peers influence teaching and learning. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 46(1): 31-56.

Charter schools: Knowledge Is Power Program (KIPP)

Pre-K to 12 Education

Literature review updated August 2013.

Program Description: The Knowledge Is Power Program (KIPP) is a network of public charter schools operating in 20 states and the District of Columbia. The schools predominantly enroll low-income and minority students. The studies included in this analysis are of KIPP middle schools around the country and measure the impact of attending a KIPP school compared to a traditional public school. The evidence suggests that KIPP charter schools improve test scores in both reading and math. We present the findings for reading scores here.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects										
Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	9	16665	0.053	0.011	11	0.038	0.012	17	0.053	0.001

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Angrist, J.D., Dynarski, S.M., Kane, T.J., Pathak, P.A., & Walters, C.R. (2012). *Who benefits from KIPP? Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*. Advance online publication. doi: 10.1002/pam.21647.
- Ross, S. M., McDonald, A. J., Alberg, M., & McSparrin-Gallagher, B. (2007). Achievement and Climate Outcomes for the Knowledge Is Power Program in an Inner-City Middle School. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, 12(2): 137-165.
- Tuttle, C.C., Gill, B., Gleason, P., Knechtel, V., Nicholas-Barrer, I., & Resch, A. (2013). *KIPP middle schools: Impacts on achievement and other outcomes*. Washington DC: Mathematica Policy Research.
- Woodworth, K.R., David, J.L., Guha, R., Wang, H., & Lopez-Torkos, A. (2008). *San Francisco Bay area KIPP schools: A study of early implementation and achievement (Final Report)*. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International.

Teacher in-subject graduate degrees

Pre-K to 12 Education

Literature review updated April 2012.

Program Description: This analysis examines the impact of having a teacher with a graduate degree in the subject that they teach (e.g., a math teacher with a graduate degree in mathematics), versus having a teacher without a graduate degree, holding all other measured school, teacher, and student characteristics equal.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects										
Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	7	58621	0.028	0.011	11	0.020	0.012	17	0.028	0.013

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Aaronson, D., Barrow, L., & Sander, W. (2007). Teachers and student achievement in the Chicago public high schools. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 25(1), 95-135.
- Croninger, R.G., Rice, J.K., Rathbun, A., & Nishio, M. (2007). Teacher qualifications and early learning: Effects of certification, degree, and experience on first-grade student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 26(3), 312-324.
- Goldhaber, D.D., & Brewer, D.J. (1997). Why don't schools and teachers seem to matter? Assessing the impact of unobservables on educational productivity. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 32(3), 505-523.
- Goldhaber, D.D., & Brewer, D.J. (2000). Does teacher certification matter? High school teacher certification status and student achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 22(2), 129-145.
- Dee, T.S., & Cohodes, S.R. (2008). Out-of-field teachers and student achievement: Evidence from matched-pairs comparisons. *Public Finance Review*, 36(1), 7-32.
- Rockoff, J.E., Jacob, B.A., Kane, T.J., & Staiger, D.O. (2011). Can you recognize an effective teacher when you recruit one? *Education Finance and Policy*, 6(1), 43-74.
- Subedi, B.R., Swan, B., & Hynes, M.C. (2011). Are school factors important for measuring teacher effectiveness? A multilevel technique to predict student gains through a value-added approach. *Education Research International*.

Teacher graduate degrees Pre-K to 12 Education

Literature review updated April 2012.

Program Description: This analysis examines the impact of having a teacher with a graduate degree, versus having a teacher without a graduate degree, holding all other measured school, teacher, and student characteristics equal.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects										
Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	31	5242072	0.000	0.002	11	0.000	0.002	17	0.000	0.931

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Archibald, S. (2006). Narrowing in on educational resources that do affect student achievement. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 81(4), 23-42.
- Buddin, R., & Zamarro, G. (2009). *Teacher qualifications and middle school student achievement* (Working Paper WR-671- IES). Santa Monica, CA: RAND.
- Buddin, R., & Zamarro, G. (2009). Teacher qualifications and student achievement in urban elementary schools. *Journal of Urban Economics* 66(2), 103-115.
- Cavalluzzo, L.C. (2004). *Is national board certification an effective signal of teacher quality?* Alexandria, VA: The CNA Corporation.
- Chingos, M.M., & Peterson, P.E. (2011). It's easier to pick a good teacher than to train one: Familiar and new results on the correlates of teacher effectiveness. *Economics of Education Review*, 30(3), 449-465.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2006). Teacher-student matching and the assessment of teacher effectiveness. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 41(4), 778-820.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2007). Teacher credentials and student achievement: Longitudinal analysis with student fixed effects. *Economics of Education Review*, 26(6), 673-682.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2010). Teacher credentials and student achievement in high school: A cross-subject analysis with student fixed effects. *Journal of Human Resources*, 45(3), 655-681.
- Corcoran, S.P., Jennings, J.L., & Beveridge, A.A. (2011). *Teacher effectiveness on high- and low-stakes tests*. Unpublished manuscript, New York University.
- Croninger, R.G., Rice, J. K., Rathbun, A., & Nishio, M. (2007). Teacher qualifications and early learning: Effects of certification, degree, and experience on first-grade student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 26(3), 312-324.
- Goldhaber, D., & Anthony, E. (2007). Can teacher quality be effectively assessed? National board certification as a signal of effective teaching. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 89(1), 134-150.
- Goldhaber, D.D., & Brewer, D.J. (1996). Evaluating the effect of teacher degree level on educational performance. In W. J. Fowler, Jr. (Ed.), *Developments in school finance, 1996: Fiscal proceedings from the Annual NCES State Data Conference* (pp. 197-210). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.
- Goldhaber, D.D., & Brewer, D.J. (1997). Why don't schools and teachers seem to matter? Assessing the impact of unobservables on educational productivity. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 32(3), 505-523.
- Goldhaber, D.D., & Brewer, D.J. (2000). Does teacher certification matter? High school teacher certification status and student achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 22(2), 129-145.

- Goldhaber, D.D., Brewer, D.J., & Anderson, D.J. (1999). A three-way components analysis of educational productivity. *Education Economics*, 7(3), 199-208.
- Hanushek, E.A. (1992). The trade-off between child quantity and quality. *Journal of Political Economy*, 100(1), 84-117.
- Harris, D.N., & Sass, T.R. (2011). Teacher training, teacher quality and student achievement. *Journal of Public Economics*, 95(7- 8), 798-812.
- Huang, F.L., & Moon, T.R. (2009). Is experience the best teacher? A multilevel analysis of teacher characteristics and student achievement in low performing schools. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*, 21(3), 209-234.
- Jacob, B.A., & Lefgren, L. (2008). Can principals identify effective teachers? Evidence on subjective performance evaluation in education. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 26(1), 101-136.
- Koedel, C., & Betts, J.R. (2007). *Re-examining the role of teacher quality in the educational production function*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Missouri-Columbia, Department of Economics.
- Krieg, J. M. (2006). Teacher quality and attrition. *Economics of Education Review*, 25(1), 13-27.
- Krueger, A.B. (1999). Experimental estimates of education production functions. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(2), 497-532.
- Ladd, H. F., Sass, T.R., & Harris, D.N. (2007). *The impact of national board certified teachers on student achievement in Florida and North Carolina: A summary of the evidence prepared for the National Academies Committee on the evaluation of the impact of teacher certification by NBPTS*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Leak, J.A., & Farkas, G. (2011). *Effects of teacher credentials, coursework, and certification on student achievement in math and reading in kindergarten: An ECLS-K study*. Evanston, IL: Society for Research on Educational Effectiveness.
- Leigh, A.K. (2010). Estimating teacher effectiveness from two-year changes in students' test scores. *Economics of Education Review*, 29(3), 480-488.
- Rockoff, J.E., Jacob, B.A., Kane, T.J., & Staiger, D.O. (2011). Can you recognize an effective teacher when you recruit one? *Education Finance and Policy*, 6(1), 43-74.

Model early childhood education programs

Pre-K to 12 Education

Literature review updated December 2013.

Program Description: This analysis focuses on pre-kindergarten programs developed and administered by researchers primarily in the 1960s and 1970s, including demonstration and pilot programs such as Abecedarian and Perry Preschool. The curriculum and philosophy of these programs varied widely and programs ranged in length from one to five years.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects											
Outcomes measured	Primary or secondary participant	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
				First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
				ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Crime	Primary	2	110	-0.322	0.214	29	-0.322	0.214	39	-0.322	0.132
High school graduation	Primary	3	203	0.314	0.265	18	0.314	0.265	18	0.314	0.237
K-12 grade repetition	Primary	3	192	-0.463	0.253	17	-0.463	0.253	17	-0.463	0.067
K-12 special education	Primary	3	204	-0.470	0.263	17	-0.470	0.263	17	-0.470	0.074
Teen births under age 18	Primary	2	109	-0.441	0.395	17	-0.441	0.395	17	-0.441	0.265
Test scores	Primary	2	309	0.568	0.123	4	0.119	0.136	17	0.568	0.001
Teen births (second generation)	Secondary	2	109	-0.441	0.395	17	-0.441	0.395	17	-0.441	0.265

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Barnett, W.S., & Masse, L.N. (2007). Comparative benefit-cost analysis of the Abecedarian program and its policy implications. *Economics of Education Review*, 26(1), 113-125.
- Campbell, F.A., Pungello, E.P., Burchinal, M., Kainz, K., Pan, Y., Wasik, B.H., Barbarin, O.A., Sparling, J.J., & Ramey, C.T. (2012). Adult outcomes as a function of an early childhood educational program: An Abecedarian Project follow-up. *Developmental Psychology*, 48(4), 1033-43.
- Campbell, F.A., Ramey, C.T., Pungello, E.P., Sparling, J., & Miller-Johnson, S. (2002). Early childhood education: Young adult outcomes from the Abecedarian project. *Applied Developmental Science*, 6(1), 42-57.
- Deutsch, M., Taleporos, E., & Victor, J. (1974). A brief synopsis of an initial enrichment program in early childhood. In S. Ryan (Ed.), *A report on longitudinal evaluations of preschool programs, Volume 1: Longitudinal evaluations* (pp. 49-60). Washington, DC: Office of Child Development, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.
- Heckman, J.J., Pinto, R., Shaikh, A.M., & Yavitz, A. (2011). *Inference with imperfect randomization: The case of the Perry Preschool program* (Working Paper No. 16935). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Karnes, M.B., Shwedel, A.M., & Williams, M.B. (1983). A comparison of five approaches for educating young children from low-income homes. In The Consortium for Longitudinal Studies (Contributors), *As the twig is bent . . . : Lasting effects of preschool* (pp. 133-169). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

- Schweinhart, L. J., Barnes, H.V., & Weikart, D.P. (1993). *Significant benefits: The High/Scope Perry Preschool Study through age 27*. Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Press, 1993.
- Schweinhart, L.J., Montie, J., Xiang, Z., Barnett, W.S., Belfield, C.R., & Nores, M. (2005). *Lifetime effects: The High/Scope Perry preschool study through age 40*. Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Press.
- Wasik, B.H., Ramey, C.T., Bryant, D.M., & Sparling, J.J. (1990) A longitudinal study of two early intervention strategies: Project CARE. *Child Development*, 61(6), 1682-1896.

Transition programs for incoming kindergarteners

Pre-K to 12 Education

Literature review updated March 2018.

Program Description: Transition programs for incoming kindergarteners provide support to at-risk students and their caregivers in order to enhance school readiness, improve academic and social skills, and increase caregiver involvement in school. In the program included in this analysis (Kids in Transition to School [KITS]), students attend 24 structured group sessions over two months in the summer prior to kindergarten entry and two months in the fall after school begins. The sessions focus on early literacy, prosocial skills, and self-regulation. In addition, caregivers attend 12 workshops with a focus on parenting skills, behavior management, and strategies to help their student develop literacy skills and consistent academic routines.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects										
Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Externalizing behavior symptoms	1	102	-0.094	0.282	6	-0.045	0.147	9	-0.218	0.440
Test scores	1	102	0.052	0.215	5	0.016	0.236	17	0.122	0.570

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Pears, K.C., Kim, H.K., & Fisher, P.A. (2012). Effects of a school readiness intervention for children in foster care on oppositional and aggressive behaviors in kindergarten. *Children and Youth Services Review, 34*(12), 2361-2366.
- Pears, K.C., Fisher, P.A., Kim, H.K., Bruce, J., Healey, C.V., & Yoerger, K. (2013). Immediate effects of a school readiness intervention for children in foster care. *Early Education & Development, 24*(6), 771-791.

Teacher experience

Pre-K to 12 Education

Literature review updated April 2012.

Program Description: We performed an analysis of how student test scores improved as their teacher's years of experience increased—more experienced teachers are compared with beginning teachers. This estimate represents the average annual gain in the first five years of teaching.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects										
Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	53	14393842	0.058	0.005	11	0.042	0.005	17	0.058	0.001

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Aaronson, D., Barrow, L., & Sander, W. (2007). Teachers and student achievement in the Chicago public high schools. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 25(1), 95-135.
- Akerhielm, K. (1995). Does class size matter? *Economics of Education Review*, 14(3), 229-241.
- Archibald, S. (2006). Narrowing in on educational resources that do affect student achievement. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 81(4), 23-42.
- Borland, M. V., Howsen, R. M., & Trawick, M. W. (2005). An investigation of the effect of class size on student academic achievement. *Education Economics*, 13(1), 73-83.
- Boyd, D., Lankford, H., Loeb, S., Rockoff, J., & Wyckoff, J. (2008). The narrowing gap in New York City teacher qualifications and its implications for student achievement in high-poverty schools. *Journal of Policy Analysis & Management*, 27(4), 793-818.
- Brown, B.W., & Saks, D.H. (1975). The production and distribution of cognitive skills within schools. *Journal of Political Economy*, 83(3), 571-593.
- Buddin, R., & Zamarro, G. (2009). Teacher qualifications and student achievement in urban elementary schools. *Journal of Urban Economics* 66(2), 103-115.
- Chingos, M.M., & Peterson, P.E. (2011). It's easier to pick a good teacher than to train one: Familiar and new results on the correlates of teacher effectiveness. *Economics of Education Review*, 30(3), 449-465.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2006). Teacher-student matching and the assessment of teacher effectiveness. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 41(4), 778-820.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2007). Teacher credentials and student achievement: Longitudinal analysis with student fixed effects. *Economics of Education Review*, 26(6), 673-682.
- Clotfelter, C.T., Ladd, H.F., & Vigdor, J.L. (2010). Teacher credentials and student achievement in high school: A cross-subject analysis with student fixed effects. *Journal of Human Resources*, 45(3), 655-681.
- Corcoran, S.P., Jennings, J.L., & Beveridge, A.A. (2011). *Teacher effectiveness on high- and low-stakes tests*. Unpublished manuscript, New York University.
- Croninger, R.G., Rice, J. K., Rathbun, A., & Nishio, M. (2007). Teacher qualifications and early learning: Effects of certification, degree, and experience on first-grade student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 26(3), 312-324.
- Goldhaber, D.D., & Brewer, D.J. (1996). Evaluating the effect of teacher degree level on educational performance. In W. J. Fowler, Jr. (Ed.), *Developments in school finance, 1996: Fiscal proceedings from the Annual NCES State Data Conference* (pp. 197-210). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

- Goldhaber, D.D., & Brewer, D.J. (1997). Why don't schools and teachers seem to matter? Assessing the impact of unobservables on educational productivity. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 32(3), 505-523.
- Goldhaber, D.D., & Brewer, D.J. (2000). Does teacher certification matter? High school teacher certification status and student achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 22(2), 129-145.
- Goldhaber, D.D., Brewer, D.J., & Anderson, D.J. (1999). A three-way components analysis of educational productivity. *Education Economics*, 7(3), 199-208.
- Goldhaber, D., & Anthony, E. (2007). Can teacher quality be effectively assessed? National board certification as a signal of effective teaching. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 89(1), 134-150.
- Goldhaber, D., Liddle, S., Theobald, R., & Walch, J. (2010). *Teacher effectiveness and the achievement of Washington's Students in Mathematics* (CEDR Working Paper 2010-06). Bothell: University of Washington Bothell, Center for Education Data & Research.
- Hanushek, E.A. (1992). The trade-off between child quantity and quality. *Journal of Political Economy*, 100(1), 84-117.
- Harris, D.N., & Sass, T.R. (2011). Teacher training, teacher quality and student achievement. *Journal of Public Economics*, 95(7- 8), 798-812.
- Hill, H.C., Rowan, B., & Ball, D.L. (2005). Effects of teachers' mathematical knowledge for teaching on student achievement. *American Educational Research Journal*, 42(2), 371-406.
- Huang, F.L., & Moon, T.R. (2009). Is experience the best teacher? A multilevel analysis of teacher characteristics and student achievement in low performing schools. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*, 21(3), 209-234.
- Jacob, B.A., & Lefgren, L. (2008). Can principals identify effective teachers? Evidence on subjective performance evaluation in education. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 26(1), 101-136.
- Jepsen, C., & Rivkin, S. (2002). *Class size reduction, teacher quality, and academic achievement in California public elementary schools*. San Francisco: Public Policy Institute of California.
- Kane, T.J., Rockoff, J.E., & Staiger, D.O. (2008). What does certification tell us about teacher effectiveness? Evidence from New York City. *Economics of Education Review*, 27(6), 615-631.
- Koedel, C., & Betts, J.R. (2007). *Re-examining the role of teacher quality in the educational production function*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Missouri-Columbia, Department of Economics.
- Krieg, J.M. (2006). Teacher quality and attrition. *Economics of Education Review*, 25(1), 13-27.
- Krueger, A.B. (1999). Experimental estimates of education production functions. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(2), 497-532.
- Kukla-Acevedo, S. (2009). Do teacher characteristics matter? New results on the effects of teacher preparation on student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 28(1), 49-57.
- Ladd, H.F., Sass, T.R., & Harris, D.N. (2007). *The impact of national board certified teachers on student achievement in Florida and North Carolina: A summary of the evidence prepared for the National Academies Committee on the evaluation of the impact of teacher certification by NBPTS*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Leak, J.A., & Farkas, G. (2011). *Effects of teacher credentials, coursework, and certification on student achievement in math and reading in kindergarten: An ECLS-K study*. Evanston, IL: Society for Research on Educational Effectiveness.
- Leigh, A.K. (2010). Estimating teacher effectiveness from two-year changes in students' test scores. *Economics of Education Review*, 29(3), 480-488.
- Ost, B. (2009). *How do teachers improve? The relative importance of specific and general human capital*. Unpublished manuscript, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY.
- Pil, F.K., & Leana, C. (2009). Applying organizational research to public school reform: The effects of teacher human and social capital on student performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(6), 1101-1124.
- Rockoff, J.E. (2004). The impact of individual teachers on student achievement: Evidence from panel data. *The American Economic Review*, 94(2), 247-252.
- Subedi, B.R., Swan, B., & Hynes, M.C. (2011). Are school factors important for measuring teacher effectiveness? A multilevel technique to predict student gains through a value-added approach. *Education Research International*, 2011. doi: 10.1155/2011/532737
- Xu, Z., Hannaway, J., & Taylor, C. (2009). *Making a difference? The effects of Teach for America in high school* (Working Paper 17. Revised). Washington, DC: The Urban Institute, National Center for Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Education Research.

Charter schools: non-urban charter schools

Pre-K to 12 Education

Literature review updated August 2013.

Program Description: While charter schools traditionally operate in urban areas, there is a growing body of literature that examines the impact of attending charters located outside of central cities. This analysis include only studies that measure the impact of attending charter schools located outside of urban areas, including suburban and rural schools. The evidence suggests that charter schools located outside of urban areas have no consistent impact on student test scores compared to traditional public schools. We present the findings for reading scores here.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects

Outcomes measured	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis						Unadjusted effect size (random effects model)	
			First time ES is estimated			Second time ES is estimated			ES	p-value
			ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age		
Test scores	5	21015	0.011	0.028	11	0.008	0.031	17	0.011	0.695

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our [Technical Documentation](#).

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

- Angrist, J.D., Pathak, P.A., & Walters, C.R. (2012). *Explaining Charter School Effectiveness (Working Paper 12-11)*. Cambridge, MA: Department of Economics, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes. (CREDO) (2012). *Charter school performance in New Jersey*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes. (CREDO) (2013a). *Charter school performance in Massachusetts*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.
- Center for Research on Education Outcomes. (CREDO) (2013b). *Charter school performance in Michigan*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Center for Research on Education Outcomes.

For further information, contact:
(360) 664-9800, institute@wsipp.wa.gov

Printed on 11-14-2018



Washington State Institute for Public Policy

The Washington State Legislature created the Washington State Institute for Public Policy in 1983. A Board of Directors—representing the legislature, the governor, and public universities—governs WSIPP and guides the development of all activities. WSIPP's mission is to carry out practical research, at legislative direction, on issues of importance to Washington State.