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### Does gamification in education work? Experimental evidence from Chile.

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Published on: 01 May 2019









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#### **Working Paper**

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IDB Working Paper Series, No. IDB-WP-982

#### **Provided in Cooperation with:**

Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), Washington, DC

Suggested Citation: Araya, Roberto; Arias Ortiz, Elena; Bottan, Nicolas L.; Cristia, Julian (2019): Does gamification in education work? Experimental evidence from Chile, IDB Working Paper Series, No. IDB-WP-982, Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), Washington, DC, https://doi.org/10.18235/0001777

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IDB WORKING PAPER SERIES № IDB-WP-982

# Does Gamification in Education Work?

Experimental Evidence from Chile

Roberto Araya Elena Arias Ortiz Nicolas Bottan Julian Cristia

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## Does Gamification in Education Work?

### Experimental Evidence from Chile

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Cataloging-in-Publication data provided by the Inter-American Development Bank

Felipe Herrera Library

Does gamification in education work?: experimental evidence from Chile / Roberto Araya, Elena Arias Ortiz, Nicolas Bottan, Julián Cristia.

p. cm. — (IDB Working Paper Series; 982) Includes bibliographic references.

- 1. Gamification-Chile. 2. Educational games-Chile. 3. Educational technology-Chile.
- 4. Computer-assisted instruction-Chile. 5. Mathematics-Study and teaching-Chile. 6. Educational innovations-Chile. I. Araya, Roberto. II. Arias Ortiz, Elena. III. Bottan, Nicolas. IV. Cristia, Julián. V. Inter-American Development Bank. Department of Research and Chief Economist. VI. Series. IDB-WP-982

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#### Abstract1

Gamification, or the introduction of game elements to non-game contexts, has the potential to improve learning by increasing student motivation. However, there is little rigorous evidence about its effectiveness. In this paper, we experimentally evaluate an innovative technology program that uses gamification to increase math learning in low-performing primary schools in Chile. The ConectaIdeas program involves two weekly sessions in a computer lab during which students use an online platform to solve math exercises. The platform tracks how many exercises students perform and features different types of individual and group competitions to promote student motivation. Results indicate large positive effects on math learning of about 0.27 standard deviations on the Chilean national standardized exam (no effects were found on language). The program also affected several non-academic outcomes in both positive and negative ways. On the one hand, it increased students' preference to use technology for math learning and promoted the idea among students that study effort can raise intelligence. On the other hand, the program increased math anxiety and reduced students' preferences to collaborate in teams. These results suggest that gamification could be an important tool to boost student learning, but that it may bring unintended consequences.

JEL classifications: I21, I28

Keywords: Education, Gamification, Technology, Experiments

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This project would not have materialized without the support and commitment of Ben Petrazzini. We want to especially thank Analía Jaimovich, Nora Cuevas (Mayor of San Bernardo), Ruth Carrillo, Dina Herrera, José Sotelo, and Julio Torres for their significant contributions. We also thank Xiomara Pulido, Maritza Moraga, Jimena Romero, Obed Ulloa, and Anastasiya Yarygina, who provided outstanding research assistance. The team at the Centro de Investigación Avanzada en Educación of the Universidad de Chile, including Carlos Aguirre, Raúl Gormaz, Paulina Jaure, and Arturo Prat, played a critical role in implementing this project. We acknowledge the excellent comments and suggestions by Paulo Bastos, Samuel Berlinski, Marcelo Cabrol, Alejandrina Cristia, Colleen Eddy, Sebastián Espinoza, Alfonso Flores-Lagunes, Sebastián Gallegos, Ana María Ibáñez, Mike Lovenheim, Julián Messina, Doug Miller, Francisco Pardo, Pamela Reyes-Santander, Amy Schwartz, Emiliana Vegas, Jouni Viiri, Ana Yarygina, and seminar participants at the Education Division Workshop of the Inter-American Development Bank, the 2019 Pacific Conference for Development Economics, the 2019 Annual Conference of the Society for Research on Educational Effectiveness, the 2019 Research on Improving Educational Systems Conference, and the 2019 Daniel Patrick Moynihan Syracuse/Cornell Summer Workshop in Education and Social Policy. We are grateful to María Paz Espinosa and Camila González Nakada from MIDE UC and Cecilia Lecaros from APTUS for their support in data collection activities, and for funding from the International Development Research Center and the IDB. Finally, Roberto Araya thanks PIA-CONICYT Basal Funds for Centers of Excellence Project FB0003 and is grateful for initial funding from the Corporación de Fomento de la Producción (CORFO) and from the Fondo Nacional de Desarrollo Tecnológico y Productivo (FONTEC) that supported development of the program. The views expressed in this paper are those of the authors and should not be attributed to the Inter-American Development Bank.

#### 1. Introduction

The introduction of game elements to non-game contexts – known as gamification – has become an increasingly common strategy used in education, health, and business to motivate individuals to undertake desired behaviors. For example, the "Fitbit" device tracks the number of steps that a person takes in a day, provides a congratulatory message when a targeted number of steps is achieved, and enables competition between users to further spur motivation. As this case exemplifies, the basic idea behind gamification is that the introduction of simple game elements, such as points, badges, and leaderboards, can transform a dull task into an engaging activity.

Gamification can play an important role in education, considering that student motivation has long been recognized as central for learning (Weiner 1990). However, there may be drawbacks to its use related to potential reductions in intrinsic motivation, increases in anxiety, and short-lived effects on engagement (Barata et al. 2013; McDaniel, Lindgren, and Friskics 2012; Hanus and Fox 2015). In spite of these potential drawbacks, gamification in education is a flourishing industry. Fueled by the worldwide rise in access to internet-connected devices, organizations such as Duolingo and Khan Academy support more than 10 million students every month.<sup>2</sup> Research on this topic has also increased markedly. According to Google Scholar, the number of papers published annually that contain the words "gamification" and "education" jumped from 140 in 2010 to 3,570 in 2014 and reached 9,570 in 2018.

But does gamification in education work? That is, do educational programs that introduce game elements to spur motivation generate large learning gains? Unfortunately, in spite of the large number of studies on gamification in education, there is a dearth of rigorous empirical evidence measuring its effects on learning.

This paper seeks to contribute to filling this gap by experimentally evaluating a program that uses gamification intensely to improve academic achievement. The program, called ConectaIdeas, aims to improve math learning among fourth-grade students in Chile. Participating students practice math exercises on an online platform during two weekly 90-minute learning sessions during regular school time. The program employs an array of gamification strategies to promote intensive use of the learning platform. First, the platform shows each student how many

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Duolingo is an app for language acquisition. The app has 25 million users every month and its market valuation stood at US\$700 million in 2017 (Buchanan 2018). Khan Academy is a non-profit organization that provides content and exercises in math, science, history, and other subjects. Its website had 12 million users every month in 2016 (https://khanacademyannualreport.org/).

accumulated exercises she has completed and compares this figure with the average of the class. Moreover, students can observe the number of exercises completed by each student in the class. Second, personalized "ads" are shown regularly to motivate students by promoting the notion that intelligence can be improved by exerting effort while studying. Third, whole class sections of students participate in weekly competitions with sections in other schools based on the average number of exercises completed on the platform. Fourth, class sections also participate in interschool "live" tournaments every two months in which students are paired to compete in solving math problems embedded in an online game.

Does ConectaIdeas impact student learning? To answer this question, we conducted a randomized controlled trial in 24 public primary schools attended by low-income students in Santiago, Chile. Students were not only socioeconomically disadvantaged but also lagged in learning: on average, they scored 0.7 standard deviations below the national average for math. We randomly assigned one fourth-grade section within each of these schools to the treatment group, and assigned the other section in that grade to the control group. Baseline data were collected in March 2017, and the program was implemented immediately thereafter and then ran up until November 2017 (the school year in Chile runs from March to December).

Our primary outcome is obtained from the Chilean national standardized exam administered in November 2017 (after seven months of program exposure). This is a paper-based assessment implemented yearly in all schools to monitor math and language learning. Measuring effects on this test is important because evidence shows that effect sizes vary considerably between different types of tests. In fact, Hill et al. (2008) reviewed experimental evaluations in education in the United States and documented that the average effect on broad standardized tests was 0.07 standard deviations, compared to an average effect of 0.23 for narrow standardized tests and 0.44 for specialized tests developed for specific interventions. Hence, using a broad national standardized exam as the primary evaluation outcome allows for estimating how a potential program scale-up may impact the main assessment used by an education ministry to monitor learning quality and equity.

Results indicate that ConectaIdeas generated a large statistically significant improvement in math learning. Our preferred specification shows an effect of 0.27 standard deviations. The effects on math achievement are similar across subsamples of students defined by gender, mother's education, and baseline achievement. Even though the program aimed to improve learning in math,

it could have generated spillovers to other subjects. Nevertheless, estimated effects on language are close to zero and not statistically significant.

To benchmark the effects, we compare them with those from other educational evaluations that have also analyzed effects on the Chilean national standardized exam. One important evaluation assessed the effects of extending the school day from four to seven hours a day in the nation's schools. This landmark program, which entailed a massive increase in educational spending, increased math and language achievement by 0.06 standard deviations (Bellei 2009). In turn, a program that provided lesson plans and materials to teachers improved math and language test scores by 0.07 and 0.09 standard deviations, respectively (Bassi, Meghir, and Reynoso 2016). Hence, the math effects of Conectaldeas are about four times larger than those from these two interventions.

We also examine effects on non-academic outcomes to provide a comprehensive assessment of the program. On the positive side, we find that the program increased students' preference to use computers for math instruction, which may be important in a context of rising access and use of technology across life domains. We also find that the program increased the likelihood of students believing that exerting effort while studying can increase intelligence. We find no evidence of effects on math intrinsic motivation or math self-concept. On the negative side, we find that the program increased anxiety associated with studying math and also reduced preferences toward collaborating in teams.

We exploit individual-level granular data recorded on the learning platform to document how much, when, and where students used the online platform. We find that virtually all students in the treatment group used the platform and that, on average, students used the platform for 27 hours during the seven-month period of program exposure. A key question is whether the positive academic effects can be partly explained by students practicing math at home. However, the evidence is unequivocal on this point: home use accounts for a mere 2 percent of the logged-in time and hence cannot explain the results found. We also document that the time spent on the platform remains largely constant during program implementation. This finding contrasts with the sharp decrease in use over time documented in programs that provide laptops or internet for home use (Malamud et al. 2019). Therefore, the Conectaldeas program was able to avoid the strong novelty effect found in these other programs.

The experimental estimates correspond to the implementation of the program during the 2017 school year. But is the large effect documented just a one-off result? Or does it represent the

typical effect of the program? To explore this issue, we generate non-experimental estimates exploiting the implementation of ConectaIdeas in 11 schools in Santiago between 2011 and 2016, together with school-level longitudinal data from the national standardized exams. Using a difference-in-differences framework, we find that ConectaIdeas generated positive and statistically significant effects of between 0.19 to 0.22 standard deviations on math and no statistically significant effects on language. These results suggest that the large experimental estimates documented are representative of the typical effect of the program.

Our study is related to a large literature in education and computer science that has analyzed different aspects related to gamification in education. Studies have theoretically analyzed the potential advantages and disadvantages of different models of gamification in education, documented examples of its introduction in particular contexts, and provided some qualitative and quantitative evidence regarding its effects on student outcomes (Denny 2013; Domínguez et al. 2013; Mekler et al. 2017). Reviews of this literature have generally concluded that incorporating gamification can increase student motivation and engagement (Lister 2015; Alsawaier 2018). However, there is little rigorous empirical evidence on the effects of educational interventions that use gamification on academic achievement (Markopoulos et al. 2015).

To the best of our knowledge, there are no studies in the economics literature that have rigorously evaluated the effects of a program that used gamification intensely to improve learning outcomes. However, there are two strands of that literature that are linked to our study. The first strand includes evaluations of interventions that used monetary incentives to increase student motivation. Studies that have evaluated the effects of providing monetary incentives to students have generally found positive though modest effects on academic achievement (Bettinger 2012; Fryer 2011). One exception is the study by Li et al. (2014), which reports that when individual incentives were provided to students, the learning effects were small, but that when the incentives where provided to promote group competitions (and within-group collaboration), the learning effects were large. The second strand includes experimental studies that evaluated the learning effects of computer-assisted instruction programs. Experimental evaluations implemented in India (Banerjee et al. 2007 and Muralidharan, Singh, and Ganimian 2019), China (Lai et al. 2013, 2015; Mo et al. 2014), and the United States (Dynarski et al. 2007; Wijekumar et al. 2009; Rutherford et

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> There has also been long-standing and recent research on how to incorporate games and tournaments in the classroom, without using technology, to boost motivation (Edwards et al. 1972; Slavin 2010).

al. 2014) have shown positive learning effects of these interventions, though the effects for programs implemented in the United States have been considerably smaller.

The main contribution of this study is that it presents a comprehensive experimental assessment of the effects of an educational program that uses gamification intensely. In particular, the study presents a number of advantages. First, it presents unbiased and precise estimates due to the within-school-randomization design and the large number of students participating in the study (about 1,100). Second, it evaluates a program that is implemented in public schools during the school day, which is relevant for considering future scale-up. Third, it measures effects on academic achievement using a broad national standardized exam. Fourth, it reports program effects on intrinsic motivation, self-concept, anxiety, growth mindset, and preferences for teamwork and regarding the use of technology at school. Finally, the study complements the one-year experimental estimates with non-experimental estimates from several years to provide a more definitive assessment of program effects.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the ConectaIdeas Program. Section 3 details the experimental design, data, identification strategy, and documents baseline balance. Section 4 presents effects on academic achievement and section 5 reports evidence on potential mechanisms. Section 6 presents robustness checks including non-experimental estimates of program effects. Finally, section 7 concludes.

#### 2. The ConectaIdeas Program

The ConectaIdeas program was developed by a team led by researcher Roberto Araya, now at the Center for Advanced Research on Education (*Centro de Investigación Avanzado en Educación* - CIAE) at the Universidad de Chile. The team aimed to design a program that could generate large increases in math learning among low socioeconomic status students. The guiding principle behind the project was that the introduction of game elements into math instruction, facilitated by the use of technology, could boost student motivation and lead to fast learning. After years of small-scale development, the ConectaIdeas program was implemented from 2011 to 2016 in 11 schools in the community of Lo Prado in Santiago, Chile. During this period, the team streamlined the design and developed detailed implementation protocols.

The program implemented during the 2017 experimental evaluation entailed providing students two weekly 90-minute math learning sessions in the computer lab. One of these sessions

replaced traditional math instruction in the classroom, while the other represented additional math instructional time.<sup>4</sup> In a typical session, all students worked to solve the same set of 20 to 30 exercises assigned to them that were aligned to the topics covered in regular math instruction and included in the national curriculum. When solving these problems, students received automatic feedback regarding whether or not their answers were correct. Lab coordinators, hired and supervised by the CIAE team, were responsible for conducting the learning sessions at the computer lab in collaboration with regular classroom teachers. Lab coordinators were former teachers who received a day of training and ongoing supervision from the implementation team (teachers did not receive formal training, but the program promoted learning-by-doing).

The program includes several gamification strategies. Figure 1 contains a screenshot of the platform that depicts several of these strategies. The first strategy is centered on motivating students by keeping track of their advances and making comparisons with their classmates. As Figure 1 shows, the student is presented with a graph that plots the number of accumulated exercises that she has completed by each week (the dark blue line in the graph). Showing this information is intended to motivate the student by making her effort visible and concrete. The graph also includes a line for the class average (the light blue line in the graph in Figure 1). Presenting this information aims to activate the motivational effects embedded in social comparisons that have proven to be important in different domains such as energy conservation and worker effort (Cialdini et al. 2007; DellaVigna and Pope 2018).<sup>5</sup>

The second strategy seeks to motivate students by conveying the idea that intelligence is malleable and that it can be improved by exerting effort while studying – that is, by having a "growth mindset" (Dweck 2006). To that end, the platform shows students personalized "ads" emphasizing this message. Figure 1 shows an example of one of these ads. In this case, the student is presented with an image of a child playing a piano and a written message stating that "Effort, and only effort, *Student name*, is the road to perfection" (where *Student name* is replaced by the name of the student). These images are presented for 20 seconds and they are accompanied by

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> In Chile, the large majority of students, including those participating in the study, attend school for about seven hours a day. The regular schedule includes mandatory instructional time that schools have to assign to specific subjects but also some time that schools can allocate to any subject. Schools typically allocate these hours to math and language because these are the subjects assessed in the national standardized exam. The additional math session of the ConectaIdeas program used part of the time that schools can allocate to any subject.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Another screen shows the ranking of individual students in the class who are ordered by the number of accumulated exercises completed during the school year, the past week, or the current session.

computer-generated audio of the message. The images and messages presented are rotated from a library of 10 examples that emphasize the importance of effort while studying.

The third strategy focuses on group motivation rather than on individual motivation. In particular, competitions are set up so that sections of students participating in the program try to outperform other sections in terms of the average number of exercises completed each week. Returning to Figure 1, we see that on the right-hand side of the screen shows photos of different sections of students. This is a subset of the ranking of sections participating in the program that are ordered from top to bottom by the average number of exercises completed in the week. The photo shown in the fourth position (counting from the top) corresponds to the section of the student logged into the computer. The top three sections shown correspond to the three sections that are just above that student's section in terms of the average number of completed exercises, and the bottom three sections are those that are immediately below in the ranking. Students can click any of these pictures to know the school name of the competing section.

The fourth strategy also seeks to motivate students by activating social dynamics and within-class collaboration. To that end, "live" tournaments are organized every two months in which students compete to solve math exercises embedded in an online game. For this tournament, a time is scheduled for all participating sections in the ConectaIdeas program to be connected to the platform. Then, each student in a section is paired with another student in a different school. The two paired students play the "spiral game," shown in Figure 2, in which they take turns solving math exercises and move "tokens" with the objective of placing all of them at the center of the spiral (the cell numbered 143). Every five minutes, the individual scores accumulated by each student are averaged at the class level, and a program staff member who acts as the "announcer" informs students which schools are doing better and tries to drive excitement among participants.

Besides these gamification features that seek to promote student engagement, the ConectaIdeas platform also includes some tools to facilitate and support the work of teachers. In particular, the platform provides teachers and lab coordinators a dashboard with real-time information about the number of questions answered and the number of correct answers by each student. In this dashboard, students are ranked from those who are in most need of support (those who have answered few questions or have a low rate of correct responses) to those who need less support. Additionally, the platform also presents a dashboard that shows the rate of correct responses per question to help identify questions for which all students need support. Moreover, the system generates feedback reports for lab coordinators, teachers, and school principals.

Finally, we present information on the per-student costs associated with implementing ConectaIdeas. These costs include the salaries for a project coordinator and the lab coordinators as well as the costs of different inputs such as computers, internet connections, software, cloud computing, and general management. The per-student cost of implementing ConectaIdeas for the duration of this intervention in 2017 was US\$150, which represents a 5 percent increase in the public expenditure per primary student in Chile.

### 3. Research Design

#### 3.1. Design and Sample Selection

We implemented a randomized controlled trial to assess the causal effect of the ConectaIdeas program. The ConectaIdeas team was tasked with recruiting 24 public schools located in Santiago (to simplify logistics) that had at least two fourth-grade sections. Moreover, the schools had to have been classified by the Ministry of Education in the two lowest socioeconomic status categories (out of five) to test whether ConectaIdeas could also close socioeconomic achievement gaps.

The recruitment process began at the end of January 2017 with the identification of 22 school districts (*comunas*) that had schools satisfying the criteria described above. The district directors were contacted first by email and then by telephone. The ConectaIdeas team then visited 11 district directors who replied and expressed interest. After that, information sessions with district directors and school principals were conducted in nine school districts. In the final step, the team conducted school technical visits to verify technical requirements. The technical visits were scheduled in 31 schools in six school districts. However, after visiting four school districts (La Pintana, Maipu, Quinta Normal, and San Bernardo) the team confirmed 24 schools that met all the mentioned requirements and hence the recruitment process was stopped. Importantly, the recruitment procedure did not involve individual schools making decisions to self-select into the program.

Table 1 presents statistics obtained from the 2016 national standardized exam (known in Chile as the *Sistema de Medición de la Calidad de la Educación* - SIMCE) that show how the sample construction process unfolded. Column (1) presents means for the universe of schools nationwide and columns (2) to (5) presents means for samples of schools that result from restricting the sample progressively to include the eligibility requirements. In particular, column (2) restricts

to schools in Santiago and column (3) further restricts the sample to schools in the bottom two categories in terms of socioeconomic status. Next, column (4) further restricts the sample to schools with at least two sections in the fourth grade and column (5) presents the sample of schools participating in the study. The table shows that the makeup of the study sample is quite similar to the sample of low socioeconomic status schools in Santiago, with two exceptions: enrollment in the study schools is larger (due to the two-section restriction), and their students perform even worse in math and language. In fact, students in the study sample underperform the average student in the country by 0.60 standard deviations in language and 0.68 in math.<sup>6</sup>

We adopted a within-school, section-level randomization design. Within each of the 24 participating schools, we randomly assigned one of the two fourth-grade sections to the treatment group. These sections participated in the Conectaldeas program. The other sections were assigned to the control group and received traditional math instruction. For the three schools in the sample that had more than two sections, we only included the first two (i.e., sections A and B) in the evaluation. The randomization was conducted before the collection of baseline data, and schools were informed of the treatment status of each section *after* the baseline was collected in March 2017. There was perfect compliance of program assignment to treatment. That is, all sections assigned to treatment participated in Conectaldeas and none of the control sections participated in the program. Finally, attrition for the academic achievement outcomes is low and balanced between the treatment and control groups.<sup>7</sup>

#### 3.2. Identification Strategy

Evaluating the effect of the program is straightforward due to the random assignment of sections to treatment within schools. The advantage of this design is that it allows for accounting for school characteristics that may influence both sections by including school fixed effects. Additionally, because the intra-cluster correlation at the section level is close to zero, once school fixed effects are added, our design is almost as precise as a design featuring individual-level randomization.

We estimate the effects of the program under two main specifications, the first of which involves estimating the following equation:

<sup>6</sup> Test scores on the national standardized exam are normalized using the nationwide mean and standard deviation.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Attrition rates for estimating effects on math achievement were 10 percent for the treatment group and 8 percent for the control group. A regression of attrition status on a treatment dummy (controlling for school fixed effects) produces a coefficient of 0.02 and a standard error of 0.01. For language, attrition rates were 10 percent for the treatment group and 9 percent for the control group. The attrition regression produces a coefficient of 0.00 and a standard error of 0.01.

$$y_{ics}^{post} = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 * Treatment_{cs} + \phi_s + \varepsilon_{ics}, \tag{1}$$

where  $y_{ics}^{post}$  is the outcome variable in the post period (e.g., the math test score on the national standardized exam) for student i, in section c, in school s.  $Treatment_{cs}$  is an indicator variable that equals one if the section was assigned to the treatment group and zero if not.  $\varepsilon_{ics}$  is the error term, which should be uncorrelated with the treatment assignment because of random assignment, and  $\phi_s$  are school fixed effects. The coefficient of interest,  $\beta$ , estimates the average treatment effect of the program on the outcome variable.

In a second specification, we also control for the baseline value of the outcome:

$$y_{ics}^{post} = \alpha_2 + \beta_2 * Treatment_{cs} + \gamma_2 * y_{ics}^{pre} + \phi_s + \varepsilon_{ics}, \tag{2}$$

where  $y_{ics}^{pre}$  is the baseline test score in the respective subject. That is, when estimating effects on math, we control for the baseline math test score and when estimating effects on language we control for the baseline test score in that subject. Because learning is strongly correlated over time, controlling for the baseline test scores typically increases statistical precision. Moreover, doing so can account for baseline differences in academic achievement. Consequently, this is our preferred specification.

Finally, all estimates presented throughout this paper will include heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors that are clustered at the section level (the unit of randomization). One potential concern is that because we are clustering standard errors among 48 sections, we might be overstating the precision of our estimates due to a relatively modest number of clusters (Cameron and Miller 2015). Consequently, in the robustness section, we show additional results using alternative strategies to estimate standard errors.

#### 3.3. Data

Our analysis relies on a combination of administrative records from the Chilean national standardized exam, survey data, and administrative data from the ConectaIdeas platform. The main outcome of the study corresponds to math test scores from the national standardized exam administered on November 7–8, 2017. Effects on language were also analyzed to explore potential

spillovers on this subject. The national standardized exam has been conducted annually since 1998 among all fourth-grade students at the end of the academic year, and is widely used for monitoring educational outcomes. These tests are important for teachers and principals because they are linked to monetary incentives, and low scores can trigger administrative actions including visits to schools and the introduction of changes in how schools are managed. We also administered baseline, midline (after four months of exposure), and endline (after seven months of exposure) math and language tests as part of the study.

We also elicit data from students at endline about their math self-concept, math intrinsic motivation, preference for having math lessons in the computer lab (as opposed to the regular classroom), having a growth mindset, and preference for teamwork. These primary data on student perceptions were complemented with secondary data from a questionnaire included in the national standardized exam that explores students' math self-concept and whether students have anxiety related to math tests, grades, and homework. Finally, we analyze log data from the ConectaIdeas platform to document how computers were used for math instruction.

#### 3.4. Randomization and Balance

In this section, we analyze whether the randomization generated similar treatment and control groups. To that end, Table 2 presents means for the treatment and control groups (in columns (1) and (2), respectively) for baseline test scores that were collected in March 2017. In turn, column (3) presents estimated differences between the treatment and control groups controlling for school fixed effects, and column (4) presents the sample size for each variable analyzed. Results indicate no statistically significant differences in language test scores across groups. However, treatment students underperformed control students by 0.08 standard deviations on the math test, and this difference is significant at the 10 percent level. Though this is a modest difference in performance, it still provides additional motivation to control for baseline academic achievement when estimating effects on that outcome.

Table 2 also presents statistics for student characteristics constructed using data from the questionnaire administered together with the national standardized exam in November 2017. Results indicate that the composition of the treatment and control groups are similar. The

differences in the analyzed characteristics are small and only statistically significant at the 10 percent level for mother's education.<sup>8</sup>

#### 4. Main Results

Did ConectaIdeas affect student learning? To answer this question, Table 3 presents program effects on math academic achievement measured in the 2017 national standardized exam. Results indicate that the ConectaIdeas program generated large effects on math achievement. In the first specification, which does not control for baseline math achievement, the estimated effect is 0.22 standard deviations. In our preferred specification, which controls for baseline math achievement, the effect is slightly larger at 0.27 standard deviations. In either case, the estimated effects are statistically significant at the 1 percent level.

Even though the program focused exclusively on math, it might have generated spillover effects into language. For instance, the program might have motivated students to study more overall, or it might have induced shifting study time from language to math. However, results indicate that the program did not affect language achievement.

The documented math effects seem large not only when compared with those from other educational evaluations conducted in Chile (as discussed in the Introduction), but also when compared with common policy benchmarks. One policy benchmark relates to achievement gaps between students from different socioeconomic backgrounds. In particular, Chilean fourth graders taking the math national standardized exam whose mothers finished secondary school outperform their counterparts whose mothers did not finish this education level by 0.51 standard deviations. Hence, ConectaIdeas could close about 50 percent of this learning gap (0.27/0.51). A second commonly used benchmark relates to comparing the effects with the usual learning progression that students experience in one year. Unfortunately, we do not have data from Chile about how much students improve their academic achievement in math in one year. However, Hill et al. (2008) document that fourth graders in the United States improve their learning by 0.52 standard deviations in a year. Assuming that student academic progression in Chile is similar to the United States, we can state that students who participated in ConectaIdeas advanced about 50 percent more than their counterparts in the control group (0.27/0.52).

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> The main sample in the study includes students who participated in the baseline math exam and in the 2017 fourth-grade national standardized math exam. Consequently, this is the sample that is analyzed when exploring differences in student characteristics in Table 2.

Table 4 presents results regarding whether the ConectaIdeas program generated different effects on subsamples defined by gender, mother's education, and baseline academic achievement,. The discussion of effects focuses on math scores because this is the subject targeted by the program. To start with, effects are slightly larger for boys than for girls (0.29 versus 0.24 standard deviations), but these effects are not statistically significantly different. When exploring effects by mother's education, we find that these are almost equal (0.28 versus 0.29 standard deviations). This pattern of similar effects across subsamples is also present when we divide the sample by baseline academic achievement. That is, effects for students who scored below the median at the baseline math test are identical to those who scored above the median at baseline. To sum up, results indicate that different subpopulations of students defined by gender, mother's education, and baseline academic achievement all experienced the positive effects of ConectaIdeas.

#### 5. **Mechanisms**

#### 5.1. **Evidence on Platform Use**

ConectaIdeas generated large effects on math learning, but why is the program effective? Is it because students are using the platform intensively? And in that case, is this intensive use happening mainly at school or also at home? To answer these questions and better understand the mechanisms behind the document effects, we exploit rich individual-level longitudinal data on platform use. The focus is on usage between the end of March 2017, when the intervention was started, and November 6, 2017, right before the national standardized exam.

Log data show that the platform was intensively used, with students using it on average for 27 hours. Moreover, the average student was connected to the platform 43 days (out of some 210 days during the period) and used it each time for 39 minutes. The use was heavily concentrated at school, which accounted for 98 percent of total platform use.9 These results are further corroborated by Figures 3 and 4, which show that use of the platform was heavily concentrated from Monday to Friday and during times of the day when schools were open. These results point to the central role that school use played in this intervention.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> We classify use as "in school" if it took place on days when schools were open (i.e., weekdays that were not holidays or vacation) and between the times that schools were open.

If the gamification features built into ConectaIdeas generated intensive use of the platform at school, why they did not produce higher use at home? The low use at home can be considered a design issue. Because students using the ConectaIdeas platform can only work on exercises that have been assigned to them by their teachers, the students cannot use the platform over the weekend to practice unless they are assigned to exercises. And in fact lab coordinators and teachers were not instructed to assign exercises to students over the weekend to practice. Hence, in future implementations of ConectaIdeas, it would be interesting to assign exercises to students as homework in order to explore whether platform use at home could also contribute to improved learning.

Using data from the platform we also document that there was little heterogeneity across schools in terms of the numbers of technology sessions conducted. The average school implemented 49 math technology sessions, and the 10th and 90th percentiles stood at 42 and 55 sessions. Finally, Figure 5 presents the distribution of platform use by month. Results indicate that platform use was similar throughout the school year (once months with incomplete use are excluded). <sup>10</sup>

#### 5.2. Effects on Non-Academic Outcomes

Introducing game elements to instruction can generate effects on a range of outcomes beyond math and language academic achievement. Consequently, we examine effects on non-academic outcomes using data from our endline student survey and from the questionnaire administered together with the national standardized exam.

In particular, we construct indices to measure relevant dimensions. For example, we construct an index for intrinsic motivation using nine items included in the endline student survey that were translated into Spanish from the scale used in the 2015 Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) fourth-grade math examination (IEA 2014). All items are transformed into dummy variables that equal 1 if the student agrees with a statement, standardized using the mean and the standard deviation, averaged across items for the same construct, and later standardized again for easier interpretation. Table 5 presents the estimated

<sup>10</sup> Use in March and November is minimal because these months were only partially included in the time windows for this analysis. Use was low in April because schools were entering the program, and in July because of the two-week winter vacation.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Table A.1 in the Appendix presents detailed information on the items used to construct each non-academic outcome.

effects obtained running regressions of these indices on a treatment dummy and school fixed effects (i.e., estimating equation 1).

Results indicate positive statistically significant effects on two areas that are well aligned to prior expectations. <sup>12</sup> To start with, the basis of gamification involves producing a more engaging and attractive experience, and indeed 79 percent of students in the treatment group report preferring doing math sessions in the computer lab instead of in the regular classroom. In contrast, only 59 percent of students in the control group report preferring doing math sessions in the computer lab. This difference translates to a positive effect of 0.40 standard deviations in students' preferences for doing math lessons in the computer lab. In addition, one of ConectaIdeas' features involved presenting personalized ads to students to motivate the adoption of a growth mindset, and we document a positive effect of 0.14 standard deviations in this area.

In contrast, there are two areas where we do not find statistically significant effects, though some effects could have been expected. The first is on intrinsic motivation, that is, the inherent enjoyment of learning math per se. Because ConectaIdeas emphasizes doing math exercises to increase scores and fare better in individual and group competitions, it may reduce intrinsic motivation to do math. However, we do not find evidence supporting this expectation. In fact, the effect on intrinsic motivation is positive though not statistically significant. The second effect is on math self-concept or the self-perception that students hold of their own abilities to solve math exercises. Because ConectaIdeas produced large increases in math achievement, we could expect positive effects in this area, yet do not find statistically significant effects.

In turn, there are two areas where we find statistically significant effects that can be considered as undesirable. In particular, we found positive statistically significant effects of 0.13 standard deviations on math anxiety, which could be linked to the social comparisons and individual and group competitions that are built into ConectaIdeas. We also document negative statistically significant effects of 0.21 standard deviations on preferences for teamwork. This result can be surprising considering that ConectaIdeas promoted within-class collaboration by setting up group competitions. One potential explanation for this unexpected result is that some students may notice the disadvantages of working in teams (e.g., the weaker link between own performance and final outcomes) when participating repeatedly in the ConectaIdeas team competitions.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> In this subsection all results that are noted as statistically significant refer to the 5 percent level.

In this analysis, we checked effects on six different outcomes. Because we are running multiple hypothesis tests, the probability of finding some statistically significant results is heightened. To tackle this issue, we follow the procedure described by Benjamini et al. (2006) and implemented in Stata by Anderson (2008) to produce q-values, which can be interpreted as analogous to p-values once we account for multiple hypothesis testing.<sup>13</sup> The effects on preferences for doing math lessons in the computer lab, on growth mindset, on math anxiety and on preferences for teamwork continue to be statistically significant after this adjustment.

Finally, we explore the heterogeneity of the effects of ConectaIdeas on non-academic outcomes by estimating treatment effects for subsamples defined by gender, mother's education, and baseline academic achievement (Table 6). The most consistent documented effects are the increased preference towards having math lessons in the computer lab, which are statistically significant for all subsamples. The positive effects on growth mindset and math anxiety as well as the negative effect on preferences towards teamwork, which were documented for the sample as a whole, are also observed for each subsample, though only in some cases are the effects statistically significant. On the other hand, some positive statistically significant effects on math self-concept and intrinsic motivation are now present for some subsamples. However, caution should be exercised when interpreting these coefficients due to the reduction in power associated with focusing on subsamples and also because of the increased likelihood of finding statistically significant effects when running multiple hypothesis tests.

To provide a more definite assessment on this issue, we examine whether the estimated effects are statistically significant for each outcome and across each dimension. For example, we produce the p-value for the difference in the Conectaldeas effects on math self-concept between boys and girls. In this analysis, we find only three cases where the effects were statistically significantly different across subsamples. In particular, we find that the effects on preferences for teamwork are more negative for girls than boys, the effects on preferences for math lessons in the computer lab are more positive for students whose mothers have lower levels of education, and the effects on preferences for math lessons in the computer lab are larger for students with lower baseline academic achievement. However, once we take into account that we are running multiple

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> Q-values are the lowest critical value at which a null hypothesis is rejected when controlling for the false discovery rate. The false discovery rate is the expected proportion that rejected null hypotheses are indeed true. To estimate q-values, we need to specify a family of related p-values. In this exercise, we consider that the six p-values presented in Table 5 belong to the same family.

hypotheses tests for this analysis (by following the procedure described in Benjamini et al. 2006), we found no statistically significant differences in the effect of ConectaIdeas in any of the outcomes-dimensions considered.<sup>14</sup>

#### 6. Robustness Checks

#### **6.1.** Estimation of Standard Errors

For the main results on academic achievement, we estimate standard errors clustered at the section level. Because we have 48 clusters, it can be the case that the formulas used to compute standard errors may generate conservative estimates. To tackle this issue, we computed alternative standard errors following a number of different specifications. To start with, we compute wild-t bootstrapped standard errors at the section level following Cameron and Miller (2015). In addition, we compute standard errors clustered at the school level (for our base specification and also when computing wild-t bootstrapped errors). Moreover, we compute standard errors aggregating outcomes at the section level, adjusted for baseline achievement, and running a regression at this level including school fixed effects (as suggested by Bertrand, Duflo, and Mullainathan 2004). Finally, we follow the methodology described in Ibragimov and Muller (2010), where the main model is estimated separately for each school, and then we perform a t-test on the distribution of estimated treatment coefficients. In all cases, the findings presented in our main analysis remain unaltered: we find statistically significant effects at the 1 percent level for math achievement, and no effects for language achievement (Table A.2 in the Appendix).

#### **6.2.** Spillovers on the Control Group

It is possible that introduction of the program may have affected the behavior of teachers and students in the control sections. For example, teachers in control sections may have exerted more effort to compensate for potential program effects, or they might have become discouraged because they did not receive additional support. In either case, the difference in academic achievement between students in treatment sections and those in control sections does not reflect the causal effects of Conectaldeas. Though spillover effects within schools can play an important

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> In this exercise, we consider that all p-values of the differential effects across dimensions for the non-academic outcomes belong to the same family. Note that there are six non-academic outcomes for each of the three dimensions for a total of 18 p-values.

role in certain interventions (e.g., those that involve information provision), in this context this possibility may be attenuated. This is because the implementation team controlled the ConectaIdeas platform and did not allow students in control sections to access it.

Still, we empirically explored this possibility by generating difference-in-difference estimates of the effects of the program on control sections. To that end, we used data from the national standardized exam and kept the control sections in the 24 schools participating in the experimental evaluation as well as sections A and B in comparison schools. These comparison schools included those that were located in Santiago, that were classified in the bottom two socioeconomic categories in 2017, that had two or three sections in 2017, and that participated in the national standardized exam in 2016 and 2017. To create a better comparison group, we estimated the propensity score of being a school that participated in the experiment in 2017 using students' age, gender, kindergarten attendance, and mother's education. Table A.3 in the Appendix presents the estimated spillover effects on control sections. The results suggest that the program did not generate measurable effects on students' math or language achievement in control sections. These results are present both for the baseline specification and also when using propensity-score reweighting. Consequently, these findings suggest that the difference in academic achievement between students in treatment sections and those in control sections reflect the causal effects of Conectaldeas.

#### 6.3. Effects Measured Using Academic Tests Administered as Part of the Study

In addition to the effects estimated using our primary outcome measure (the national standardized exam), we also measured effects on math and language using tests developed and administered by testing companies contracted as part of the study. These midline and endline tests were applied as a backup in case we did not gain access to the national standardized exams data.

Table A.4 in the Appendix presents these results. Panel A reports that at midline the program generated effects of 0.18 standard deviations in math learning in our preferred specification. These results seem to be in line with the effect of 0.27 standard deviations on the standardized national exam, considering that the midline study test was administered four months after the program started, and the national standardized exam was administered seven months after program exposure. In contrast, the results from the endline exam administered as part of the study show smaller effects of 0.13 standard deviations in math achievement.

There are a number of potential reasons why we document lower effects on the endline study test compared with the midline study test and the national standardized exam. The reasons relate to how these tests were developed. For the study midline test, the testing company surveyed teachers at the study schools and assessed students in the curriculum areas that had been covered during the first semester in these schools. In contrast, for the study endline test, the testing company used a standard exam typically administered in schools interested in documenting how much their students are learning. The group of schools that purchases this service tends to include more private, high-performing schools compared to the national student population in Chile. The topics covered in fourth grade in these schools can be quite different from those covered in the schools participating in this study (mainly public, low-performing schools). Hence, it may be the case that important skills that were emphasized in the intervention (and that were covered in the national standardized exam) were not adequately covered in the endline exam applied by the testing company.<sup>15</sup>

#### **6.4.** Nonexperimental Estimates

One potential concern is that our experimental evaluation could have influenced the quality of implementation of the program. Therefore, it is important to gauge the effectiveness of the program under more normal circumstances. To do so, we provide additional nonexperimental evidence regarding the effects of ConectaIdeas by using school-level longitudinal data from the fourth-grade national standardized exams in the period prior to the 2017 experimental evaluation. <sup>16</sup> In particular, we exploit the implementation of ConectaIdeas in 11 schools in the district of Lo Prado in Santiago from 2011 until 2016 in a difference-in-differences framework. <sup>17</sup>

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> In line with this explanation, there is a strong overlap between the learning objectives that students practiced on the platform and those that were assessed in the midline study test, but this was not the case for the endline study test. Of the six top learning objectives in terms of student practices on the platform, the endline test did not assess two of them and included only one question for another two learning objectives. In addition, the endline test included several items regarding the eight learning objectives that accounted for the least practice on the platform. In contrast, these problems of lack of coverage are minimized with the national standardized exam, which employs a rotated form application by which different students solve different subsets of questions (in total 175 items are included). A final piece of evidence that suggests that the results from the study endline exam may be less reliable compared to the national standardized exam is that the correlation between the study endline exam and the baseline exam was lower than the correlation between the national standardized exam and the baseline exam (0.59 versus 0.68). A similar pattern is found when checking the correlations with the midline exams (0.66 and 0.76, respectively).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> We build on the work in Araya (2018), who evaluates Conectaldeas using a before and after approach.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> Three of those schools did not participate in the program in 2013 and 2014.

Though the central elements of ConectaIdeas have remained unaltered over the years, there are some differences between the version implemented over 2011–2016 and the 2017 version evaluated experimentally. First, fourth graders participating in ConectaIdeas over 2011–2016 were expected to use the platform weekly for 135 minutes compared to the 180 minutes for the version evaluated experimentally. Second, in the period 2011 to 2014, third-grade students also were exposed to the program, having one 45-minute session each week. Finally, the platform underwent some minor modifications and fine-tuning over the years.

We construct a comparison group by focusing on urban schools located in Santiago, that are classified in the bottom three socioeconomic categories, that participated consistently in the national standardized exam during the period, and that had fourth-grade enrollment greater than eight students in all years. Next, using school-level characteristics from the pre-program period, we estimate the propensity score of receiving the program as a function of the average math and language scores, the proportion of students that attended kindergarten, and the proportion of students that have an indigenous mother. Finally, we use the predicted propensity score to generate school weights and use propensity score re-weighting in our estimations.<sup>19</sup>

Table 7 presents summary statistics for average school pre-program characteristics for treatment and comparison schools. At first glance, these two groups of schools look quite different (column (3)). For instance, treatment schools underperform comparison schools in both math and language. In column (4) we restrict the sample to those schools for which there is an overlap in the propensity scores (i.e., the propensity score lies between the minimum and maximum score in the treatment group). By applying this restriction, the differences between the treatment and comparison samples shrink considerably. Finally, in column (5) we show differences between treatment and comparison schools after applying propensity score re-weighting.

The following model to assess the effect of ConectaIdeas on achievement:

$$y_{ist} = \alpha + \beta Treatment_{st} + \tau_{t} + \phi_{s} + X_{ist} + \varepsilon_{ist},$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> Fourth graders participating in ConectaIdeas during 2011–2016 had about 45 minutes of additional math instruction per week, whereas those participating in the experimental evaluation had about 90 additional minutes of math instruction.

The weight for the control group is given by:  $\frac{pscore}{1-pscore}$ , while the weight for program schools equals 1.

where  $Treatment_{st}$  equals 1 in for school s that participated in the program in year t and 0 otherwise,  $\tau_t$  are year fixed effects,  $\phi_s$  are school fixed effects, and  $X_{ist}$  are student characteristics such as gender, a dummy variable for attending kindergarten, maternal education, and class cohort size. Finally,  $\beta$  is the parameter of interest and estimates the average effect of participating in Conectaldeas on math or language scores. Standard errors are clustered at the school level.

Columns (1) and (2) in Table 8 present difference-in-differences estimates using the entire sample, while columns (3) and (4) restrict the sample to the common support and employ propensity score re-weighting. Results indicate that ConectaIdeas improved math achievement by 0.19 to 0.22 standard deviations. In general, results also indicate null effects on language scores (only in one out of four specifications a modest positive effect significant at the 10 percent level is found). These results are similar to those obtained in our experimental design, though slightly smaller. Overall, these results provide additional evidence regarding the effectiveness of ConectaIdeas to boost math learning.

#### 7. Conclusion

We conducted a randomized controlled trial among 24 primary, low-performing schools in Santiago, Chile to evaluate the effectiveness of ConectaIdeas, a math program that incorporates several gamification features to spur student motivation. The study found that the program increased learning in math by 0.27 standard deviations as measured by the Chilean national standardized exam. No significant spillovers to language test scores were found. The program also affected non-academic outcomes. On the positive side, the program increased students' preference for using computers in math instruction and promoted the idea among students that study effort can raise intelligence. On the negative side, the program generated increases in math anxiety and reduced students' preference to engage in teamwork.

It is important to consider some characteristics of the program when considering extrapolating the results to other contexts or scaling it up. The program targeted schools with students from poorer backgrounds and low average performance in Santiago. Consequently, effects might be different in other contexts where students are achieving higher levels of learning. Also, to implement all the program features described in this study, schools need a computer lab with a reliable internet connection. This condition will not be met in many schools in the developing world, especially those located in rural areas. However, it is possible to design and

implement a version of the program that will not require internet access (this version would not include the group competitions because this feature requires internet access). Finally, the program as evaluated here involved implementation by external coordinators. To facilitate the scalability and reduce costs, it is relevant to test a version of the program that can be implemented by regular teachers. These teachers should receive training and pedagogical support to facilitate development of the necessary skills to use the learning platform. Moreover, it might be fruitful to explore some potential complementary actions, such as providing a small payment to teachers to compensate them for the extra effort required to adopt these new practices in their work.

Beyond these important issues regarding extrapolation and scalability, the substantial positive academic effects documented in this study suggest that using gamification in education may be a promising strategy to increase student achievement. This is especially relevant considering that Chile, and many other countries in the developing and developed world, are seeking effective strategies to improve learning levels and reduce learning gaps. Moreover, using gamification approaches could take advantage of the substantial investments that many countries have made to increase access to computers and internet in schools, as well as the increasing access to internet-connected devices in households (Arias Ortiz and Cristia 2014).

However, more research is needed to better understand how the different gamification strategies included in ConectaIdeas (and other innovative strategies) can affect student engagement and learning. Moreover, considering the effects documented here regarding increased anxiety and reduced preferences for teamwork, it is important to further explore the robustness of these results and potential ways to eliminate these unintended effects.

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Table 1: Sample Construction - Pre-Treatment Year (2016)

	Additional Sample Restrictions						
			Low Socioeconomic	Two or More	Participated in		
	All Schools	In Santiago	Status	Classrooms	Evaluation		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)		
Test Scores (Normalized with Whole Cou	entry)						
Math	0.00	0.07	-0.37	-0.25	-0.68		
Language	0.00	0.02	-0.38	-0.32	-0.60		
Student Characteristics							
Female	0.50	0.50	0.48	0.50	0.48		
Age	9.61	9.63	9.70	9.68	9.83		
Attended kindergarten	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.98		
Mother with secondary education	0.72	0.76	0.52	0.55	0.48		
Father at home	0.60	0.61	0.54	0.55	0.50		
Indigenous mother	0.11	0.07	0.11	0.12	0.11		
Number of students	217,034	84,972	27,048	14,675	1,366		
School Characteristics							
Enrollment in 4th grade	29.35	47.90	37.41	67.94	56.92		
Rural	0.39	0.07	0.14	0.06	0.04		
Low socieeconomic status	0.64	0.41	1.00	1.00	0.96		
Number of Schools	7,395	1,774	723	216	24		

Note: This table presents means for different groups of schools. Data from the 2016 fourth-grade national standardized exam are used. All test scores have been normalized subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation of the sample that includes all students in the country. Column (1) presents means for students in all schools in the country, column (2) restricts the sample to those in the Santiago metropolitan area, column (3) further restricts the sample to schools in the two bottom categories (out of five) in terms of socioeconomic status, column (4) further restricts the sample to schools with two or more classrooms, and column (5) further restricts the sample to schools participating in the study.

Table 2: Balance in Baseline Test Scores and Student Characteristics - Treatment Year (2017)

	Treatment	Control (2)	Difference (3)	N (4)
	(1)			
Baseline Test Scores (Normalized with Control	Group)			
Math	-0.09	0.00	-0.08	1,089
			(0.05)*	
Language	-0.05	0.00	-0.04	1,057
			(0.06)	
tudent Characteristics				
Female	0.48	0.47	0.02	1,089
			(0.02)	
Age	9.74	9.76	-0.02	1055
			(0.03)	
Attended kindergarten	0.98	0.99	-0.01	788
			(0.01)	
Mother with secondary education	0.48	0.52	-0.04	873
			(0.02)*	
Father at home	0.53	0.54	-0.01	873
			(0.02)	
Indigenous mother	0.14	0.11	0.02	872
			(0.02)	
Has Internet	0.81	0.82	-0.02	840
			(0.02)	

Note: This table presents means and estimated differences between the treatment and control groups. Results on baseline test scores are constructed using data from the baseline exam implemented as part of the study. Results on student characteristics are constructed using data from the 2017 fourth-grade national standardized exam. The sample used to analyze baseline math test scores and student characteristics includes students that participated in the baseline math exam and in the 2017 fourth-grade national standardized math exam. The sample used to analyze baseline language test scores includes students who participated in the baseline language exam and in the 2017 fourth-grade national standardized language exam. All test scores have been normalized subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation of the control group. Columns (1) and (2) present means for treatment and control groups, respectively. Column (3) presents differences between the treatment and control groups controlling for school fixed effects. Column (4) presents the number of students in each sample. Standard errors, reported in parentheses, are clustered at the section level. Significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent levels is indicated by \*\*\*\*, \*\*\*, and \*, respectively.

**Table 3: Effects on Academic Achievement** 

	Treatment (1)	Control (2)	Difference (3)	Adjusted Difference (4)	<i>N</i> (5)
Math	-0.40	-0.60	0.22 (0.05)***	0.27 (0.04)***	1,089
Language	-0.61	-0.58	-0.04 (0.05)	-0.01 (0.04)	1,057

Note: This table presents estimated effects of Conectaldeas on test scores in math and language. Data from the 2017 fourth-grade national standardized exam are used. Labels in rows correspond to dependent variables. Column (1) and (2) present means for treatment and control groups, respectively. Column (3) presents differences between the treatment and control groups controlling for school fixed effects. Column (4) presents adjusted differences controlling for school fixed effects and baseline value of the outcome. Column (5) presents the number of students in each sample. The sample used to analyze math test scores includes students who participated in the baseline math test and in the 2017 fourth-grade national standardized math exam. The sample used to analyze baseline language test scores includes students who participated in the baseline language test and in the 2017 fourth-grade national standardized language exam. All test scores have been normalized subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation of the sample that includes all students in the country. Standard errors, reported in parentheses, are clustered at the section level. Significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent levels is indicated by \*\*\*, \*\*, and \*, respectively.

Table 4: Heterogeneous Effects on Academic Achievement

	Mother with Secondary						
	Gender		Education		Baseline Score		
	Boys	s Girls	Yes	No	Low	High	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	
Math	0.29	0.24	0.28	0.29	0.26	0.26	
	(0.05)***	(0.06)***	(0.07)***	(0.05)***	(0.06)***	(0.05)***	
N	571	518	434	439	510	579	
Language	0.03	-0.05	0.05	-0.03	-0.03	0.05	
	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.05)	
N	565	492	420	427	530	527	

Note: This table presents estimated effects of ConectaIdeas on test scores in math and language for differente sub-samples of students. Data from the 2017 fourth-grade national standardized exam are used. Each cell corresponds to one regression. Labels in rows correspond to dependent variables. The column titles indicate the sample included in the estimation. The sample used to analyze math test scores includes students who participated in the baseline math test and in the 2017 fourth-grade national standardized math exam. The sample used to analyze baseline language test scores includes students who participated in the baseline language test and in the 2017 fourth-grade national standardized language exam. All test scores have been normalized subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation of the sample that includes all students in the country. Standard errors, reported in parentheses, are clustered at the section level. Significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent levels is indicated by \*\*\*, \*\*, and \*, respectively.

**Table 5: Effects on Non-Academic Outcomes** 

	Treatment (1)	Control (2)	Difference (3)	N (4)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Prefers Lab for Math	0.42	0.00	0.40	787
			(0.06)***	
Growth Mindset	0.10	0.00	0.14	790
			(0.05)***	
Math Intrinsic Motivation	0.09	0.00	0.10	797
			(0.08)	
Math Self-Concept	0.08	0.00	0.12	706
1			(0.07)	
Math Anxiety	0.15	0.00	0.13	883
,			(0.05)**	
Prefers teamwork	-0.20	0.00	-0.21	827
1 ICICIS ICAIIIWOIK	-0.20	0.00	(0.06)***	027

Note: This table presents estimated effects of ConectaIdeas on indices representing students' perceptions. Labels in rows correspond to dependent variables. Column (1) and (2) present means for treatment and control groups, respectively. Column (3) presents differences between the treatment and control groups controlling for school fixed effects. Standard errors, reported in parentheses, are clustered at the section level. Significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent levels is indicated by \*\*\*, \*\*, and \*, respectively.

Table 6: Heterogeneous Effects on Non-Academic Outcomes

	Gender		Mother with Secondary Education		Baseline Score	
	Boys	Girls	Yes	No	Low	High
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Prefers Lab for Math	0.49	0.35	0.28	0.62	0.53	0.29
	(0.07)***	(0.07)***	(0.09)***	(0.09)***	(0.09)***	(0.08)***
Growth Mindset	0.19	0.11	0.12	0.26	0.13	0.20
	(0.06)***	(0.07)	(0.06)*	(0.08)***	(0.09)	(0.06)***
Math Intrinsic Motivation	0.06	0.17	0.16	0.07	-0.01	0.20
	(0.09)	(0.11)	(0.12)	(0.11)	(0.13)	(0.10)**
Math Self-Concept	0.01	0.24	0.20	0.12	0.11	0.23
	(0.08)	(0.13)*	(0.11)*	(0.09)	(0.12)	(0.07)***
Math Anxiety	0.08	0.20	0.07	0.13	0.09	0.13
	(0.06)	(0.07)***	(0.08)	(0.07)*	(0.07)	(0.08)*
Prefers teamwork	-0.10	-0.34	-0.26	-0.09	-0.10	-0.30
	(0.08)	(0.07)***	(0.11)**	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.08)***

Note: This table presents estimated effects of ConectaIdeas on indices representing students' perceptions for differente subsamples of students. Data from the 2017 fourth-grade national standardized exam are used. Each cell corresponds to one regression. Labels in rows correspond to dependent variables. The column titles indicate the sample included in the estimation. Standard errors, reported in parentheses, are clustered at the section level. Significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent levels is indicated by \*\*\*, \*\*, and \*, respectively.

Table 7: Non-Experimental Balance during pre-Treatment Period (2005-2010)

				Difference	
	Treatment (1)	Comparison (2)	No Adjustments (3)	With Common Support (4)	With Common Support and Reweighting (5)
Test Scores (Normalized with Whole Cou	intry)				
Math	-0.47	-0.20	-0.27 (0.04)***	-0.04 (0.04)	0.04 (0.05)
Language	-0.47	-0.21	-0.27 (0.04)***	-0.04 (0.04)	0.04 (0.04)
Student Characteristics					
Female	0.49	0.48	0.01 (0.01)	0.02 (0.01)	0.03 (0.02)*
Age	10.60	10.81	-0.21 (0.20)	-0.43 (0.20)**	-0.48 (0.21)**
Attended kindergarten	0.81	0.79	0.02 (0.02)	0.01 (0.02)	0.01 (0.02)
Mother with secondary education	0.36	0.52	-0.16 (0.02)***	-0.01 (0.02)	0.03 (0.03)
Father at home	0.22	0.22	-0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)
Indigenous mother	0.15	0.08	0.07 (0.02)***	0.03 (0.02)**	0.00 (0.02)
Has Internet	0.69	0.66	0.03 (0.06)	0.04 (0.06)	0.01 (0.06)
Number of schools	11	999	1,010	429	429

Note: This table presents means and estimated differences between the treatment and comparison groups used for the non-experimental analysis. Data from the fourth-grade national standardized exam for 2005 to 2010 are used. The unit of observation is a school-year. All test scores have been normalized subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation of the sample that includes all students in the country, for each year. Columns (1) and (2) present means for the treatment and comparison schools, respectively. Column (3) to (5) present differences between the treatment and comparison groups. Significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent levels is indicated by \*\*\*, \*\*, and \*, respectively.

Table 8: Non-Experimental Estimates - Effects on Academic Achievement

	Differences-in-D	Differences-in-Differences (DID)		Score Reweighting
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Math	0.22***	0.22***	0.19***	0.19***
	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.07)
Language	0.06	0.06	0.02	0.03
	(0.04)	(0.04)*	(0.04)	(0.05)
Number of students	655,072	655,072	239,312	239,312
Number of schools	1,010	1,010	429	429

Note: This table presents difference-in-difference estimated effects of ConectaIdeas on test scores in math and language. Data from the fourth-grade national standardized exam for 2005 to 2016 are used. The unit of observation is a school-year. Each cell corresponds to one regression. Each regression includes a treatment dummy, school fixed effects, and year fixed effects. Labels in rows correspond to dependent variables. Columns (1) and (2) include urban schools in the Santiago metropolitan area that are in the bottom three categories (out of five) in terms of socioeconomic status and that had a minimum enrollment in 4th grade of eight students in the 2005-2010 period. Columns (3) and (4) further restrict the sample to schools for which there is overlap in the propensity scores. Regression results presented in columns (2) and (4) also include time-varying controls. All test scores have been normalized subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation for all students in the country, for each year. The number of schools and students presented in the table corresponds to those included to estimate effects on math test scores. In turn, 654,365 students in 1,010 schools are included to estimate effects on language test scores presented in columns (1) and (2), and 239,182 students in 429 schools are included to estimate effects on language test scores presented in columns (3) and (4). Significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent levels is indicated by \*\*\*, \*\*, and \*, respectively.

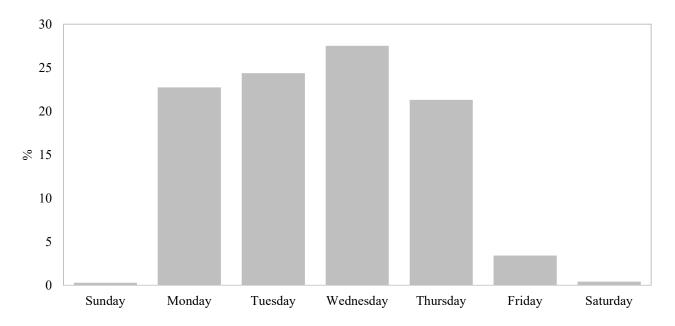
Figure 1: Screenshot of Student Dashboard



Figure 2: Screenshot of the Tournament Game



Figure 3: Platform Use by Day of the Week



Note: This figure presents the distribution of platform use by day of the week for the period from March 28, 2017 to November 6, 2017.

10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23

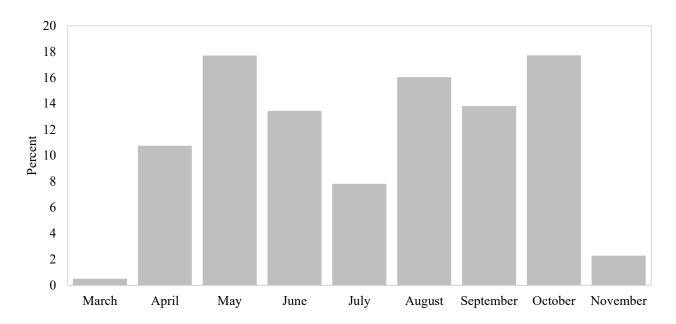
Figure 4: Distribution of Platform Use by Hour of the Day

Percent 

Note: This figure presents the distribution of platform use by hour of the day for the period from March 28, 2017 to November 6, 2017.

Hour

Figure 5: Platform Use by Month



Note: This figure presents the distribution of platform use by month for the period from March 28, 2017 to November 6, 2017.

Table A.1: Construction of Non-Academic Outcomes

Outcome	Item	Item Source
Prefers lab for math	I would rather have math classes in the lab than in the classroom	Created for this study
Growth	Intelligence is something that cannot be changed*	Claro, Paunesku, and Dweck (2016)
mindset	You can learn new things, but you cannot change your intelligence*	Claro, Paunesku, and Dweck (2016)
mindset	My parents say that I am capable of learning	SIMCE
	I enjoy learning math	TIMSS
	I wish I did not have to study math*	TIMSS
	Math is boring*	TIMSS
Math	I learn many interesting things in math	TIMSS
intrinsic	I like math	TIMSS
motivation	I like any schoolwork that involves numbers	TIMSS
	I like to solve math problems	TIMSS
	I look forward to math lessons	TIMSS
	Math is my favorite subject	TIMSS
	I usually do well in math	TIMSS
	Math is harder for me than for many of my classmates*	TIMSS
Math self-	I am just not good at math*	TIMSS
concept	Usually I do well in math tests	SIMCE
	Math is easy for me	SIMCE
	My teacher tells me I am good at math	SIMCE
	I am afraid that math questions are too hard for me	SIMCE
Math anxiety	I am worried of having bad grades in math	SIMCE
watii alixicty	I get nervous before math tests	SIMCE
	I get nervous when I don't understand math homework	SIMCE
	I prefer working as part of a team to working alone	PISA
Teamwork	I find that teams make better decisions than individuals	PISA
1 Culli W OIR	I find that teamwork raises my own efficiency	PISA
	I enjoy co-operating with peers	PISA

Note: This table presents the items used to construct the non-academic outcomes and the source for each item. All non-academic outcomes are typically constructed as indices that combine different items. Items whose source is the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), Programme for international Student Assessment (PISA), and Claro, Paunesku, and Dweck (2016), or marked as "Created for this study" were included in the endline questionnaire applied to students participating in the experimental evaluation. In contrast, items whose sources is the Sistema de Medición de la Calidad de la Educación (SIMCE) were included in the questionnaire that was administered as part of the 2017 Chilean national standardized exam for the fourth grade. The source TIMSS includes items from questions 16 and 18 of the student questionnaire for fourth graders from the 2015 TIMSS (IEA 2014). The source PISA includes items from the index "valuing teamwork" developed for PISA's 2015 report on "Collaborative Problem Solving" (OECD 2017). The source Claro, Paunesku, and Dweck (2016) includes items from this study that aimed to measure the growth mindset in Chilean students. The source "Created for this study" refers to items developed without using an external reference. All questions are 4-point Likert scales with the sole exception being the item "I would rather have math classes in the lab than in the classroom," which is a yes/no question. Items that are marked with an asterisk (\*) need to be reversed to compute the index for an outcome. For example, responses to the item "Math is harder for me than for many of my classmates" are reversed so that higher values correspond to higher math self-concept.

Table A.2: Robustness to Alternative Standard Errors

	Sectio	n-level	School-level			
	Standard Cluster	Wild Bootstrap	Standard Cluster	Wild Bootstrap	Bertrand et al. (2004)	Ibragimov and Muller (2010)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Math	0.27 (0.04)***	0.27 (0.06)***	0.27 (0.06)***	0.27 (0.06)***	0.28 (0.06)***	0.27 (0.07)***
Language	-0.01 (0.04)	-0.01 (0.06)	-0.01 (0.06)	-0.01 (0.06)	0.00 (0.05)	0.03 (0.06)

Note: This table presents estimated effects of ConectaIdeas on test scores in math and language using different methodologies to compute standard errors. Data from the 2017 fourth-grade national standardized exam are used. Labels in rows correspond to dependent variables. Columns (1) through (4) present regression results from our main specification (adjusted differences) controlling for school fixed effects and baseline value of the outcome. Columns (1) and (3) use conventional clustering at the classroom and school levels. Columns (2) and (4) use clustered wild-t bootstrap (Cameron and Miller 2015) at the classroom and school levels. Column (5) employs the strategy proposed by Bertrand, Duflo, and Mullainathan (2004), where outcomes (adjusted for baseline levels) are aggregated at the classroom level, and then our main specification is estimated using the aggregated data. Finally, column (6) follows Ibragimov and Muller (2010), where the main model is estimated separately for each school, and then we perform a t-test on the distribution of estimated treatment coefficients. The sample used to analyze math test scores includes students who participated in the baseline math test and in the 2017 fourth-grade national standardized math exam. The sample used to analyze baseline language test scores includes students who participated in the baseline language test and in the 2017 fourth-grade national standardized language exam. All test scores have been normalized subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation of the sample that includes all students in the country. Significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent levels is indicated by \*\*\*, \*\*, and \*,

Table A.3: Exploring Spillover Effects on Control Sections

Table 14.5.	Exploring Spin	over Effects on C	onti oi occuons	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Math	0.12	0.11	0.01	0.01
	(0.09)	(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.10)
Language	-0.01	-0.03	-0.06	-0.06
	(0.08)	(0.08)	(0.08)	(0.08)
Controls	N	Y	N	Y
Propensity score reweighting	N	N	Y	Y
Number of students	23,040	22,895	17,883	17,786
Number of schools	218	218	178	178

Note: This table presents difference-in-difference estimated effects of Conectaldeas on test scores in math and and language for students in control sections. Data from the fourth-grade national standardized exam for 2016 and 2017 are used. Each cell corresponds to one regression. Each regression includes a treatment dummy, student characteristics (age, girl, kindergarten, mother completed secondary), school fixed effects, and year fixed effects. Labels in rows correspond to dependent variables. Columns (1) and (2) include urban schools in the Santiago metropolitan area that are in the bottom two categories (out of five) in terms of socioeconomic status and that had two or three classrooms in 2016. Columns (3) and (4) further restrict the sample to schools for which there is overlap in the propensity scores estimated based on 2016 characteristics. Regression results presented in columns (2) and (4) also include time-varying controls. All test scores have been normalized subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation for all students in the country, for each year. Standard errors, reported in parentheses, are clustered at the school level. Significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent levels is indicated by \*\*\*, \*\*\*, and \*, respectively.

Table A.4: Effects on Academic Achievement - Alternative Exams

	Table A.4. Effects of	Treadenne Treme	venient matri	C Exums	
				Adjusted	
	Treatment	Control	Difference	Difference	N
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Pan	el A: Midline - St	udy Exams		
Math	0.06	0.00	0.11	0.18	903
			(0.06)*	(0.05)***	
Language	-0.07	0.00	-0.05	-0.03	844
			(0.06)	(0.05)	
	Pan	el B: Endline - St	ıdy Exams		
Math	0.07	0.00	0.09	0.13	923
			(0.05)	(0.05)***	, =-
Language	-0.02	0.00	-0.03	0.00	882
6 6			(0.05)	(0.04)	

Note: This table presents estimated effects of ConectaIdeas on test scores in math and language using data from exams implemented as part of the study. Panel A reports results generated from the midline study exam. Panel B reports results generated from the endline study exam. Labels in rows correspond to dependent variables. Column (1) and (2) present means for treatment and control groups, respectively. Column (3) presents differences controlling for school fixed effects. Column (4) presents adjusted differences controlling for school fixed effects and baseline value of the outcome. Column (5) presents the number of students in each sample. The sample used to analyze math test scores includes students who participated in the baseline math test and in the 2017 fourth-grade national standardized math exam. The sample used to analyze language test scores includes students who participated in the baseline language test and in the 2017 fourth-grade national standardized language exam. All scores have been standardized subtracting the mean and dividing them by the standard deviation of the control group. Standard errors, reported in parentheses, are clustered at the section level. Significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent levels is indicated by \*\*\*, \*\*\*, and \*, respectively.