7944

Pedagogy versus School Readiness

The Impact of a Randomized Reading Instruction Intervention and Community-Based Playgroup Intervention on Early Grade Reading Outcomes in Tonga

> Kevin Macdonald Sally Brinkman Wendy Jarvie Myrna Machuca-Sierra Kris McDonall Souhila Messaoud-Galusi Siosiana Tapueluelu Binh Thanh Vu



Abstract

Identifying cost-effective interventions to improve early literacy is vital to developing countries, given the importance of early literacy for an individual's future education outcomes and subsequent human capital formation. This paper presents the impact on early grade reading outcomes of two low-cost randomized interventions in Tonga: a reading instruction intervention and a community play-based activity intervention. The first intervention aims to improve early grade reading outcomes specifically; estimated impacts are approximately 0.3 standard deviation, although in some reading domains impacts are substantial, ranging from 0.6 to 0.7 standard deviation. The second intervention aims to improve school readiness and subsequently early grade reading outcomes, by providing communities with support to establish a community play-based activity. Using an instrumental variables approach, the play-based activity demonstrates positive impacts of around 0.2 standard deviation in many but not all reading domains. For the domains where a statistically significant impact is measured, the community play-based activity intervention is as at least as cost effective as the reading instruction intervention. The playbased activity intervention is shown to improve test scores by 0.21 to 0.47 standard deviation per US\$100, depending on the reading test domain. The reading instruction intervention improves test scores by 0.08 to 0.34 standard deviation per US\$100. These findings contribute further evidence on the effectiveness of reading instruction interventions, and possibly the first estimates of the impact of play grouptype interventions on primary school reading outcomes.

The Policy Research Working Paper Series disseminates the findings of work in progress to encourage the exchange of ideas about development issues. An objective of the series is to get the findings out quickly, even if the presentations are less than fully polished. The papers carry the names of the authors and should be cited accordingly. The findings, interpretations, and conclusions expressed in this paper are entirely those of the authors. They do not necessarily represent the views of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/World Bank and its affiliated organizations, or those of the Executive Directors of the World Bank or the governments they represent.

This paper is a product of the Education Global Practice Group. It is part of a larger effort by the World Bank to provide open access to its research and make a contribution to development policy discussions around the world. Policy Research Working Papers are also posted on the Web at http://econ.worldbank.org. The authors may be contacted at Tvu@worldbank.org.

Pedagogy versus School Readiness: The Impact of a Randomized Reading Instruction Intervention and Community-Based Playgroup Intervention on Early Grade Reading Outcomes in Tonga¹

Kevin Macdonald, Sally Brinkman, Wendy Jarvie, Myrna Machuca-Sierra, Kris McDonall, Souhila Messaoud-Galusi, Siosiana Tapueluelu and Binh Thanh Vu

JEL Classification: A00 General Economics and Teaching *Key word:* early literacy

¹ Funding for this initiative comes from the Pacific Early Age Readiness and Learning (PEARL) programme, funded by the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) and implemented by the World Bank, provides technical assistance and analytical work to improve participating countries' evidence-base on school readiness and early grade literacy. The programme informs short and medium-term policy agendas, including baseline surveys on school readiness and early grade reading levels and piloting interventions.

1. Introduction

Early age reading skills are recognized as a crucial stepping stone for a child's future learning, cognitive development, and subsequent human capital formation. Literacy improves individual productivity in developing countries through many paths including diffusion of technology (Basu and Foster 1998; Rosenzweig 1995). Research characterizes literacy as a necessary threshold for economic development (Azariadis and Drazen 1990). Because gaps in reading skills develop early and tend to persist as children age (Butler et al. 1985), early literacy is an important determinant of a child's future education outcomes including learning achievement, the likelihood of leaving school early, and transitioning to higher levels of education (Marteleto et al. 2008; Entwisle et al. 2005; Jimerson et al. 2000; Alexander et al. 1997).

While developing countries have made tremendous progress increasing primary school participation since the establishment of the Education for All goals in 1990, attention has now focused on the quality of schooling. In many, learning outcomes are poor, especially in the lowest income countries. For example, *the Programme d'analyse des systèmes éducatifs de la confemen* (PASEC) 2014 student assessment found that on average 71.4 percent of 2nd grade students and 57.3 percent of 5th grade students are not proficient in literacy (PASEC 2015:36,50). In addition, the OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment studies typically finds a high proportion of students in middle income countries are below minimum proficiency in reading (e.g.: OECD 2014:194). In the Pacific, early grade reading assessments in Tonga in 2009 and in Vanuatu in 2011 revealed that after three years of schooling, only 30 percent of students in Tonga and 25 percent of students in Vanuatu were able to read fluently for comprehension (World Bank 2012a, 2012b, 2012c). Identifying low cost interventions to improve early literacy is of high priority for developing countries.

Early literacy, however, is a skill that has to be learned by a child (Wolf 2007). For learning to read in alphabetic languages, international research has identified the basic skills that children need to acquire (Linan-Thompson and Vaughn 2007; Sprenger and Charolles 2004; Chiappe et al. 2002; see also: Gove and Cvelich 2011 and National Reading Panel 2000). These include, among others, an understanding of the relationship between printed letters and sounds (Scarborough 2002), the speed at which a child can read (Abadzi 2006), and oral reading fluency (Fuchs et al., 2001).

Pedagogy, including instructional techniques of teachers, is an important determinant of how well children acquire reading skills in the early grades of school, but school readiness—the ability of children to learn in a primary school setting—also plays a crucial role (Sandraluz et al. 2004; Brooks-Gunn et al 2007). The effectiveness for future education outcomes of early child interventions that improve health, early stimulation and social-emotional development is well documented (for reviews: Nadeau et al. 2010; Vegas et al. 2010; Magnuson 2007; Nores and Barnett 2010). Successfully learning in a school environment depends on various behaviors and abilities which can be learned and developed (Bowman, Donovan, and Burns 2001).

This paper compares two different but complimentary pathways for improving reading outcomes—through improved pedagogy at the school and through improved school readiness prior to school—by evaluating two randomized interventions in the Kingdom of Tonga. The first intervention, "Come Let's Read and Write" (CLRW) aims to improve reading instruction techniques of 1st and 2nd grade primary school teachers. The second intervention supports communities to establish play-based activities (CPBA) for children aged 0 to 5 to improve their readiness to learn at school.

2. Interventions

The Kingdom of Tonga is a proud country having never lost indigenous power or sovereignty to a foreign power. The archipelago is located within the Polynesian region of the Pacific Ocean; it includes 176 islands covering 718 square kilometers, of which 40 islands are inhabited, although some are very remote. The kingdom is divided into five main island groups: Tongatapu, Vava'u, 'Eua, Ha'apai and the Niuas. The capital of Tonga, Nuku'alofa, is over 2,000 kilometers from its nearest large market, New Zealand, and over 3,000 kilometers from Australia.

The two interventions are funded by the Global Partnerships for Education through the Pacific Early Age Readiness and Learning (PEARL) program. The US\$8.5million PEARL program is being executed by the World Bank's Education Global Practice, and aims to support Pacific Island countries and their development partners to build capacity to design, implement, and monitor evidence-based integrated policies and programs that prepare children and their families for

primary school and to prepare primary schools and teaching professionals to deliver teaching and learning activities that help students become effective, independent readers. PEARL aims to ensure (1) that all young children in the Pacific have access to quality early childhood education in their communities, and benefit from programs that promote healthy, stimulating, and culturally relevant experiences that prepare them for pre-primary, primary schooling, and life; and (2) all classrooms in the early grades of primary education are equipped with the knowledge and the resources to ensure young children become literate in a language they are familiar with, and are able to use these skills and knowledge to engage in lifelong learning.

The CLRW intervention is designed to support the development of basic reading skills of young students in grades 1 and 2 of primary education. It includes a combination of activities to promote reading skills at school and at home. The approach aligns key learning competencies in basic reading and writing stipulated in the official Tongan curriculum with a greater degree of clarity on the sequence in which these skills should be taught. This sequencing follows evidence-based pedagogical approaches for improving literacy skills including a focus on phonemic awareness (e.g., understanding of letter sounds) and balanced approaches to literacy learning (August and Shanahan 2006; National Institute for Child Health and Human Development 2000; Pressley 1998; Snow et al. 1998). A similar intervention in Kenya improved oral reading fluency in both English and Kiswahili by 0.34 and 0.58 standard deviations (Piper, Zuilkowski, and Mugenda 2014). This paper contributes to the growing body of evidence on the impact of research-based pedagogy in developing countries.

The CPBA intervention supports communities to establish play-based activities for children aged 0 to 5. The objective of the CPBA is to improve school readiness across a broad range of child development domains including cognitive, socio-emotional and physical development. Communities play a significant role in the education of their children in Tonga and the Pacific Islands more broadly (Farran 2009; Toganivalu 2008; Huffer 2006; Griffen 2006). Play-based activities (also known as playgroups) are led by parents, caregivers facilitated by community volunteers to provide guided interaction and play among young children, exposing them to new learning opportunities and socialization through play. These interactions occur once or twice a week and last approximately 2 hours. Children attended an average of 10 sessions per 10 week

term, but many children did not attend all three terms. This paper measures the impact of the CPBA intervention on early literacy; attending a CPBA is expected to improve children's school readiness directly as well as parent's behavior towards education and subsequently their literacy skills.

Current research on the impact of community play groups is limited. Further, the concept of community based playgroups varies dramatically across context and countries, additionally making it difficult to evaluate the limited existing evidence. Non-randomized evaluations from Australia have shown playgroups to have a positive effect on child development, indeed children who do not attend playgroups are 1.78 times more likely to be developmentally vulnerable on 1 or more of the 5 developmental domains of the Australian Early Development Census at school entry, after adjusting for socio-economic and demographic differences (Gregory, Harman-Smith et al. 2016, Hancock, Cunningham et al. 2015). Playgroups in Australia tend to be small gatherings of parents and young children providing children with opportunities to develop their physical, emotional, social, and language skills. Playgroups also provide opportunities for parents and caregivers to socialize, learn parenting skills, and seek emotional support from one another. Parent/child interactions are key feature of the Australian community playgroup model.

In Indonesia, community playgroups have also seen a positive effect on child development and later educational outcomes (Brinkman, Hasan et al. 2015; Nakajami, Hasan et al. 2016). The analyses resulting from the impact evaluation considered not only the sequence of services children enrolled in but the age at which they enrolled and the duration for which they enrolled. The differences in primary school test scores between a child who had no early education exposure and a child who completed a full sequence at the developmentally appropriate age were 0.417 SD in language and 0.427 SD in mathematics – a difference roughly equivalent to an additional 0.9 to 1.2 years of primary schooling (Brinkman, Hasan et al. 2015; Nakajami, Hasan et al. 2016). Essentially the results support the benefit of children enrolling in community playgroups prior to progressing to preschool/kindergarten and then onto primary school with pedagogy moving from unstructured play based learning with progressively increasing levels of structure as the child ages and moves in preschool and onto primary school. In Indonesia, playgroups are typically for children aged 3-4 that meet three days per week for three hours each day. They are characterized

as play-based learning with a combination of both unstructured and structured play activities, typically facilitated by teachers who have nominal formal early childhood education training. These community playgroups will often have anywhere between 10 and 40 children in some instances, and have limited parental involvement.

Although there is much evidence to support the importance of early child development (Black, Walker, 2016) and quite a bit of research supporting the benefits of kindergarten and preschool education services (Nores and Barnett 2010), there is very little research to determine the value of community playgroups as a non-formal alternative to preschool in low resource settings, or as an additional important step in the transition for children from the family home environment into the preschool/schooling system. Considering the limited research to date and the differing modalities of delivering community based playgroups this randomized evaluation adds significant value to the nominal literature to date. The need for such research has recently been called for in the most recent series from the Lancet on the importance of Early Child Development (Dhu, Tomlinson et al. 2016; Shonkof, Radner et al. 2016).

3. Design

Both the CLRW and CPBA interventions were randomized in order to evaluate their impact on early literacy and school readiness outcomes. Under the CLRW design, 37 primary schools were randomly selected into the treatment group while 36 primary schools were randomly selected into the control group. Selection was stratified by island group, school ownership (public or private), whether the school received students from communities included in the CPBA intervention, and the number of children in the first 6 grades. Not all schools were eligible to be selected into the control or treatment groups: two other primary school interventions were being piloted in several schools which are excluded from the evaluation's population. This includes all schools on the island of 'Eua. Figure 1 depicts this evaluation design.

For the CPBA intervention, communities were randomly assigned to a treatment group that received support to establish a CPBA or a control group that did not receive this support. Forty-five communities consisting of 59 villages were selected to receive the treatment, while 45 other communities were selected as control group communities. Assignment was explicitly stratified by

island group and implicitly stratified by a measure of average school readiness derived from a previous survey² of children ages 3 to 5 years, using the cube method by Deville and Tillé (2004; 2011). At the community level, the intervention consisted of support to communities to establish a CPBA and, if they did so, continued support and supervision. Whether or not a community established a CPBA and whether or not parents send their children to attend a CPBA is voluntary and not randomized. Consequently, the impact evaluation design follows an intent-to-treat approach using the randomized assignment of communities as an instrument; this assignment is depicted in Figure 2.

In February, 2016, the Tonga Early Grade Reading Assessment was conducted, assessing reading outcomes for 1st and 2nd grade students. February is the beginning of the school year; in this dataset, a subset of 2nd grade students were exposed to the CLRW intervention in the previous year while a subset of 1st grade students were exposed to the CPBA intervention in the previous year. Consequently, it is possible to utilize the randomized assignment of the two interventions to measure their impact on reading outcomes, as depicted in Figures 1 and 2 for the CLRW and CPBA, respectively.

Both interventions are randomized at the cluster-level (school or community) rather than the individual (student) level, and the number of clusters is relatively small. Recent research in the medical evaluation field has contended with poor balancing between treatment and control groups due to cluster randomization and the subsequent potential for poor inefficient estimates of impact (van Marwijk et al. 2008; Xu and Kalbfleisch 2010; Ravaud et al. 2009; Roux et al. 2011; Taft et al. 2011; Schwartz et al 2015; Leyrat et al. 2016). Leyrat et al. 2013 use a Monte Carlo simulation to assess different methods to address poor balancing in cluster randomized trials; following their work, this paper includes two additional methods to measure the impact of the interventions that account for poor balancing between treatment and control groups: linear regression and propensity score weighting.

For the CLRW intervention, all methods of measuring impact reveal that the program has a substantial impact on reading outcomes. For example, treatment school students perform 0.56 to

² This is the Tonga Early Human Capabilities Index (TEHCI) survey conducted in 2014.

0.67 standard deviation higher on initial sound knowledge, depending on the method to measure impact. For letter sounds knowledge, estimates of impact range from 0.59 to 0.75 standard deviation. Impacts were lower on other reading domains with most between 0.2 and 0.3 standard deviation. Only letter knowledge did not reveal any clear impact; however, both the treatment and control groups tend to have high scores on this domain.

For the CPBA intervention, a substantial impact is measured for some of the estimation methods but not all. By design, estimating the impact of the CPBA follows an intent-to-treat approach where the randomized assignment of treatment and control communities is used as an instrumental variable for CPBA attendance. This provides a valid estimate of the impact of the CPBA intervention as long as the difference in reading outcomes between students from treatment and control communities can be attributed solely to the CPBA intervention. This identifying assumption is discussed in detail below. Using this approach, the impact of being in a CPBA is significant for several reading domains and ranges from 0.14 to 0.36 standard deviation when accounting for differences in student and school characteristics; no impact is found without accounting for these differences.

Accounting for differences in student and school characteristics between students from CPBA treatment and control communities is necessary because of an important data limitation. For just under half of the students in reading assessment, the community they lived in previously was not collected; consequently, whether these students were in the treatment or control group is unknown and cannot be used in the analysis. This creates differences in student and school characteristics between treatment and control groups; although, there is no systematic pattern of whether known treatment group students have "better" characteristics than those known to be from the control group. In subsequent rounds of the early grade reading assessment, the community a child lived in previously will be collected more carefully.

Comparing the two interventions, the CLRW intervention yields higher impacts on reading outcomes than the CPBA intervention. The CLRW intervention is more expensive per student than the CPBA; per dollar, the CPBA intervention yields comparable or higher impacts on reading outcomes than the CLRW. However, the impact of the CLRW intervention on reading outcomes

is more certain than that of the CPBA intervention. A positive impact on reading outcomes for the CLRW intervention is found for all but one reading domain using all four estimation methods. For the CPBA intervention, positive impacts are found on fewer reading domains and only when accounting for differences in student and school characteristics between treatment and control group. The impact of the CPBA intervention also relies on certain identifying assumptions that are discussed more thoroughly below.

4. Model

Reading outcomes, y_{ij} , for student *i* at school *j* are modeled as a linear function of treatment t_{ij} , a vector of observed school and student covariates, x_{ij} , a class random effect, α_j , and individual residual, ε_{ij} :

$$y_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t_{ij} + \beta_2 x_{ij} + \alpha_j + \epsilon_{ij} \tag{1}$$

If treatment t_{ij} is randomly assigned then it is uncorrelated with x_{ij} , α_j , and ε_{ij} and can be estimated as a univariate linear regression model as

$$y_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t_{ij} + u_{ij} \tag{2}$$

or as univariate linear regression model with random effects as

$$y_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t_{ij} + \alpha_j + u_{ij} \tag{3}$$

where $u_{ij} = \beta_2 x_{ij}$. In order to estimate the causal impact of the treatment, the following assumption must hold:

Assumption 1 (no confounding variables): $Cov{t_{ij}, u_{ij}} = 0$

At the population level, this assumption holds by virtue of the treatment being randomly assigned. However, it is possible to draw a sample that is unbalanced which results in an estimate of impact much different than the true impact. This is especially true when social units are randomized (e.g., school and communities) rather than individuals; it is not possible to balance all characteristics of individuals by design.

In the medical research literature, where the unit of randomization has been clinics or hospitals, several methods have been used to account for observed or presumed poorly balanced control and treatment groups. For example, Leyrat et al. 2013 assess different methods for estimating the impact of a treatment when treatment and control samples are unbalanced using Monte Carlos simulations. This paper adopts two of their methods that were shown to reduce bias and provide a more efficient estimator: including covariates as a linear regression and propensity score weighting (Hirano and Imbens 2001).

Including covariates as a linear regression is equivalent to estimating equation (1). Propensity score weighting first requires estimating the probability of an individual being selected into a treatment or control group. While the true probability is known by design, the estimated propensity score is used to weight the variables to provide a more efficient estimate of impact:

$$\hat{P}\left\{t_{ij} = 1|x_{ij}\right\} = \Phi\left(\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_{ij}\right) \tag{4}$$

where P denotes probability and Φ is the cumulative standard normal distribution. Treatment group observations are weighted as $\frac{1}{\hat{P}\{t_{ij}=1|x_{ij}\}}$ and control group observations as $\frac{1}{1-\hat{P}\{t_{ij}=1|x_{ij}\}}$ where \hat{P} denotes predicted probability. This weighting scheme places a higher weight on students with characteristics that are under-represented in the treatment group and over-represented in the control group and vice versa, in order to balance the sample on observed characteristics.

Estimating equations (1), (2) or (3) is suitable for measuring the impact of the CLRW program on student reading outcomes as well as the impact of a student's community being included in the treatment group, but it is not suitable for measuring the impact of actually attending a CPBA. The reason is that CPBA establishment and attendance is voluntary: communities may or may not establish a CPBA, and, if they do, children (or their parents) self-select into attending the CPBA. The possibility of selection bias cannot be ruled out.

Consequently, an instrumental variables approach is used to measure the impact of CPBA. Whether a child attended a CPBA, c_{ij} , is modeled as a linear function of the assignment of the community treatment, t_{ij} and individual disturbance, v_{ij}

$$c_{ij} = \delta_0 + \delta_1 t_{ij} + v_{ij} \tag{4}$$

Based on an estimate of (3), the predicted value of c_{ij} , denoted \hat{c}_{ij} is substituted for t_{ij} in equation (1), (2), and (3) to give

$$y_{ij} = \beta'_{0} + \beta'_{1}\hat{c}_{ij} + \beta'_{2}x_{ij} + \alpha_{j} + \epsilon'_{ij}$$
(1)

$$y_{ij} = \beta'_0 + \beta'_1 \hat{c}_{ij} + u'_{ij} \tag{2}$$

$$y_{ij} = \beta'_0 + \beta'_1 \hat{c}_{ij} + \alpha_j + u'_{ij}$$
(3)

The key assumption for identifying the causal impact of attending the CPBA by estimating equation (2^{\prime}) and (3^{\prime}) is

Assumption 2 (exclusion restriction): $Cov\{t_{ij}, u'_{ij}\} = 0$ and $Cov\{t_{ij}, \alpha_j\} = 0$

This assumption implies that being in a treatment community but not in a CPBA has no impact on a student's reading outcomes. The plausibility of this assumption is discussed in the conclusion.

To measure the impact of the CLRW and community interventions, equations (1), (2) and (3) are estimated as well as equation (3) with propensity score weighting. To measure the impact of the CPBA intervention, equations (1^{\prime}) , (2^{\prime}) and (3^{\prime}) as well as (3^{\prime}) with propensity score weights are estimated.

<u>5. Data</u>

The Tonga Early Grade Reading Assessment (TEGRA) was conducted in February 2016 for

students in grades 1 and 2. For second grade students, the survey was stratified by school, grade, class and gender; for first grade students, the survey was additionally stratified by whether or not a child attended a CPBA within gender. All first and second grade classes in Tonga were included in the survey with the exception of the schools belonging to the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints. Students were randomly selected from within each stratum with a target of 20 children per class. Data on which village the child lived previously was collected from 1st grade students to identify those in the control and treatment group; however, there was significant non-response.

Tables 1 and 2 present the sample and number of students by control and treatment group for the different interventions. Of the 2,005 first grade students, 497 previously lived in a treatment community and 379 in a control community; the previous community is unknown for 851 students. 140 students attended a CPBA, 8 of which lived in a non-treatment community previously; this is assumed to be an error in the community in which the child previously lived as no CPBAs had been established in non-treatment communities. For second grade students, 609 attended CLRW treatment schools and 542 attended CLRW control group schools.

TEGRA measures reading ability across 12 different domains. Four domains measure dictation ability, and these four domains have been combined into one domain measured as the percent correct of all items in these domains for this paper. The number of items is small in each of these four domains. The estimated mean score for the resulting 9 domains are presented in Table 3 for grades 1 and 2.

In order for equations (2) and (3) to provide unbiased estimates of impact, the no confounding variables assumption (Assumption 1) must hold. To detect possible confounder variables, the means of the background characteristics of the treatment and control groups are compared as well as how they relate to reading outcomes. A likely confounding variable is any that is associated with being in a treatment or control group as well as associated with reading scores.

Table 4 presents the difference in background characteristic by the CLRW treatment and control groups. For several, there is a statistically significant difference suggesting that a difference exists between the treatment and control populations which the treatment and control samples represent.

Children in the CLRW schools are more likely to read aloud at home and more likely to be read to at home, though the differences are small. There is a large difference between the proportion of 2^{nd} grade students in single grade classes; control group students are 12.6 percent more likely to be in a single grade class. While equal balance between the treatment and control populations cannot be ruled out for the other characteristics, large differences can also be ruled out as well. The exception is the average number of 1^{st} and 2^{nd} grade students in the student's school: one cannot reject with confidence that the mean difference is 0 between treatment and control groups nor that the mean difference is 26.

Table 5 compares the data's student and school characteristics between treatment and control groups for the community playgroup intervention. Students from treatment communities were more likely to attend preschool, less likely to have been read to at home, attended a smaller school, and were less likely to be attending a non-government school. Note that these student and household characteristics are observed after assignment to the treatment and control group. Whether these differences in student and household characteristics are a result of treatment assignment is discussed below as well as the implications.

Balancing by island group is presented in Table 6. Both the school and community interventions assignment of treatment were stratified by island group. For the CLRW intervention, none of the differences in composition of island groups between treatment and control groups are statistically significant. However, because of the non-response of previous community, a statistically significant, higher proportion of students from treatment CBPA communities come from Vava'u and a lower proportion from Tongatapu.

To identify variables that may confound the estimate of the impact of the CLRW intervention, Table 7 presents the association between each background variable and reading domain score. Each figure is the coefficient for the denoted variable estimated using a univariate regression with the denoted variable as the independent variable and test score as the dependent variable. As depicted in Table 7, being female is positively associated with reading outcomes as is having parents interested in what the child learned during the school day, and reading at home. Being in a single grade class as well as being absent is negatively associated with learning outcomes. Three of these variables are also significantly different between the CLRW treatment and control groups and therefore likely confounders: being read to at home, reading aloud and being in a single grade class.

To identify variables that may confound the estimate of the community-level intervention, Table 8 presents the association between each background variable and reading domain score. Being female, reading aloud at home, being read to at home are each positively associated with reading score; being absent is negatively associated. Several other variables have a mix of positive, negative or no conclusive association with learning achievement. Several variables emerge as likely confounders for measuring the impact of the community intervention: attending preschool, being read to at home, attending a non-government school and size of the school.

Tables 9 and 10 present the mean reading scores in standard deviations for each island group for the 2nd grade students in a CLRW treatment or control school and for 1st grade students in a treatment or control community, respectively. Both depict large differences in achievement between island groups. For the CLRW intervention, treatment and control groups appear to be balanced (by design) on representation from island groups. For the community intervention, because of non-response to which community the child lived in previously, the island group variable is a likely confounder.

6. Results

The above analysis identified potential confounding variables for both the CLRW and community intervention. Following the methodology of Leyrat et al. (2013), this section presents estimates of equations (1), (2), (3) and (3) with propensity score weighting in order to estimate the impact of these two interventions. All variables included in the previous tables are used as covariates for calculation of the propensity score and estimates of equation (1). For all estimates, data are weighted according to the inverse of their selection probability (multiplied by the propensity score weighting when applicable) and standard errors are estimated robust to clustering at the school level for the CLRW intervention and at the community level for the community intervention.

Table 11 presents estimates of impact for the CLRW program by reading domain and method. The

figures depict the coefficient for the treatment variable only; all other coefficients are not shown. The difference method refers to equation (2), the difference with class random effects refers to estimates of equation (3), with random effects refers to equation (1) and with propensity score weights refers to equation (3) with propensity score weights. For all domains and methods except for letters correct per minute, the effect of the CLRW intervention is substantial. The highest impacts were among the initial and letter sounds; ranging from 0.56 to 0.75 standard deviation depending on the method. For other domains, impacts were large, mostly around the 0.2 to 0.3 standard deviation range.

Table 12 measures the difference in effect between boys and girls. These are estimated by modifying the estimation equations to include a binary variable for gender and an interaction term for treatment and gender. For nearly half of the domains and estimation methods, a gender difference in effect is found. In some cases, these benefit boys more (negative values) and in other cases, they benefit girls more (positive). For example, the intervention tended to impact girls more for the initial sounds and letter sounds domains and boys more for familiar word, unfamiliar word and oral reading fluency. Differences range from 0.15 to 0.2 standard deviation.

The impact of the community intervention on reading outcomes is presented in Table 13. This is the impact of being in a treatment group community (not for attending a CPBA which is described below). Only in two of the estimates of the impact using the difference between treatment and control groups (equation 2) and that with class random effects (equation 3) are found to be significant; a positive impact for listening comprehension and a negative impact for dictation. When adjusting for the covariates (either estimating equation 1 or with propensity score weighting), positive impacts are found for most domains.

Gender differences in impact of the community intervention are shown in Table 14. The community intervention tends to have a stronger impact for boys than girls on unfamiliar word knowledge and oral reading fluency. For most domains, however, no gender difference is detected.

The impact of being in a treatment community is small as shown in Table 13; however, if assumption (2) holds and this difference can be exclusively attributed to being in a CPBA, then

attending a CPBA yields large impacts. Table 15 presents estimates of the impact of being in a CPBA using treatment status of the children's community as an instrumental variable (equations 1', 2', 3' and 3' with propensity score weights). Without adjusting for covariates, no impact of a CPBA is found except for a negative impact on dictation of negative 0.08 standard deviation. When controlling for covariates using either method, positive impacts are found for letter knowledge, letter sounds, familiar words, reading and listening comprehension. Effect sizes range from 0.14 to 0.36 standard deviation.

7. Cost effectiveness

In order to compare the impact of both interventions, this section presents their impacts in standard deviations per 100 dollars. Table 16 states the estimated annual operating cost of both the CLRW and CPBA interventions, based on the actual expenditure during the first year of the intervention. The CLRW costs include materials produced for the school year, teacher training workshops, mentoring and supervision visits as well as the time of consultants and government staff in running the program. It excludes one-time costs related to the design of the program and design of materials. The total estimated operating cost for CLRW is 255,436 USD or 183 USD per student. The CPBA costs include training for facilitators, supervision costs, and the costs of consultants and staff to provide training and supervision. The costs exclude start-up costs provided to communities as these are incurred only once. They also exclude any materials provided by communities as well as the opportunity cost of the volunteer facilitators; however, this latter cost is quite small as volunteers spend about two hours per week. The total number of children participating in CPBAs for the costing period is 814, and the intervention cost 104 USD per child.

The estimated impacts of the CLRW intervention in standard deviations per 100 dollars are listed in Table 17. These are the same data presented in Table 11, but divided by the cost per child and multiplied by 100. Impact of the program per 100 dollars spent ranges between 0.3 and 0.4 standard deviation of initial sounds and letter sounds, and 0.1 to 0.2 standard deviation for the other domains where a positive impact is found. Table 18 presents the impact in standard deviations per 100 dollars for the CPBA intervention; this is based on the results presented in Table 15. Impacts range from 0.1 to 0.3 standard deviation using the balancing methods and for which statistically significant impacts are found.

8. Conclusions

With the exception of letter knowledge, the CLRW intervention has a substantial impact on children's reading outcomes. The lack of impact on letter knowledge is not surprising given that it is a basic skill which 2nd grade students would know well already. An interesting pattern emerges when gender differences are measured. There is evidence that the CLRW is having a different effect on girls' and boys' reading outcomes on some domains, depending on the estimation method. Boys have lower reading outcomes than girls in all domains according to Table 3 except for listening comprehension; if the impact were to benefit boys as it seems to for familiar words, unfamiliar words and oral reading fluency, then this would suggest that the program helps close the gender gap in reading skills. Alternatively, if the program benefits girls more, as is the case for initial sound knowledge, then it may be exacerbating the gender gap.

Drawing conclusions on the impact of attending a CPBA is complicated by the identifying assumption. First, the exclusion restriction—that the impact of being in a treatment community is exclusively due to attending a CPBA—must hold in order to attribute causality. How plausible is this assumption? The CPBA is a community run and financed intervention, so community leaders (town officers, local education officials, etc.) motivate community members to provide volunteers and attendance. This may raise the profile of supporting education for young children. From the comparison of background variables in Table 5, treatment communities were more likely to send their children to preschool but also less likely to read to their children at home. Note that it is not possible to test empirically whether the exclusion restriction assumption holds; qualitative work would be useful for understanding the pathways and extent to which the community intervention could affect reading outcomes.

While the evidence of the impact of the CLRW intervention is stronger than that of the CPBA, the magnitudes of impact are comparable in several domains when adjusting for cost per child. With the exception of the initial letter sounds and sound of letters domains, most of the CLRW interventions which are statistically significant have impacts ranging from 0.1 to 0.2 standard deviation per 100 USD. For the CPBA intervention, most of the statistically significant impacts lie in this range as well. The magnitudes of the effect sizes found for the Tongan CPBA

intervention are consistent with much of the literature evaluating the impact of early child health, developmental and education outcomes in the last decade, as pointed out by Shonkof (2014). Many in the field of early child health and development quote the highly studied "iconic" programs: Perry Preschool, Abecedarian and Nurse Family Partnerships. All three of these programs were conducted in America with small sample sizes in the late 1960s - early 1970s. The relevance of the impact of those programs to current interventions aimed at improving child health and capabilities in remote communities across the Asia Pacific is hard to see. As such, the findings of this paper are highly relevant to neighboring countries in the Pacific and indeed other low resources settings. The findings of small to moderate effect sizes on the basis of a relatively low cost and small dose intervention are cause for attention in the international literature.

That the CPBA intervention is able to produce impacts comparable to the CLRW intervention in several reading domains (when adjusted for per child cost) highlights the importance of school readiness interventions for improving early literacy outcomes. The CLRW intervention is designed to target the reading skills measured in the early grade reading assessment; a substantial impact on these skills is in some sense not surprising. That CPBA can improve early literacy outcomes confirms the importance that school readiness has for a student's ability to learn in a school environment and may be as important as pedagogy, at least in some measures.

The objective of the broader PEARL program is to identify, pilot and evaluate interventions that may boost early literacy outcomes and school readiness. These initial findings demonstrate that both interventions as implemented are effective at improving early literacy. The randomized assignment of the CLRW treatment to schools ensures that the measures of its impact are the causal impact of the intervention. Using the randomized assignment of support to communities as an instrument for the CPBA intervention also provides a causal measure of impact as long as the identifying assumptions described above hold. These initial findings provide credible evidence that both programs have a positive impact on children's early literacy outcomes and would have similar impacts if scaled up.

These findings also contribute to a growing body of research on the impact of reading instruction interventions that are research-based. They also provide for the first time, to the knowledge of the

authors, a measure of the impact of community playgroups on literacy outcomes. Further data collection is planned in Tonga, including follow-up early grade reading assessments and a survey of school readiness for children aged 3 to 5. The early grade reading assessment will enable comparing the interaction between both interventions which was not possible with the latest data set. In addition, a scaling exercise is currently underway which will provide comparable measures of reading outcomes from the preceding early grade reading assessment in 2012. The upcoming school readiness assessment will enable measurement of the impact of the CPBA intervention on school readiness more broadly, including cognitive, socio-emotional and physical development. Additional research is needed on the applicability of these interventions not only in other countries in the Pacific, but also the developing world. The CLRW intervention is likely replicable in many contexts, as it can be implemented by education providers. The CPBA intervention is more nuanced, as it relies on community social capital to be successful; however, numerous examples exist of community playgroups and other community-based approaches to health elsewhere.

References

Abadzi, H. 2006. *Efficient learning for the poor: Insights from the Frontier of Cognitive Neuroscience*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

Alexander, K.L., Entwisle, D.R., Horsey, C.S., 1997. From first grade forward: early foundations of high school dropout. *Sociology of Education* 70 (2), 87–107

August, D., and Shanahan, T. 2006. *Developing Literacy in Second-Language Learners: A Report* of the National Literacy Panel on Language, Minority Children, and Youth. Mahwah NJ USA: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates

Azariadis, C. and A. Drazen 1990. Threshold externalities in economic development. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*. 105 (2): 501-526.

Basu, K. and J. Foster 1998. On measuring literacy. *Policy Research Working Paper Series*. No. 1997. Washington, D.C.: The World Bank

Black, M. M., et al. (2016) "Early childhood development coming of age: science through the life course." The Lancet.

Bowman, B., M. Donovan, and M. Burns. 2001. Eager to Learn: Educating our Preschoolers. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Brinkman, S., A. Hasan, H. Jung, A. Kinnell, M. Pradhan. 2015 The Impact of Expanding Access to Early Childhood Services in Rural Indonesia: Evidence from Two Cohorts of Children. *World Bank Working Paper Series*. July 2015. WPS7372. http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/2015/07/24808116/impact-expanding-access-early-childhood-services-rural-indonesia-evidence-two-cohorts-children

Brooks-Gunn J., C. Rouse, and S. McLanahan. 2007. "School Readiness and the Transition to Kindergarten." In Racial and Ethnic Gaps in School Readiness, edited by R. C. Pianta, M J. Cox,

and K. Snow, 283–306. Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes.

Butler, S.R., H. W. Marsh, M. J. Sheppard, and J. L. Sheppard 1985. Seven-year longitudinal study of the early prediction of reading achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 77, 349-361

Chiappe, P., L. Siegel, and L. Wade-Woolley. 2002. Linguistic diversity and the development of reading skills: A longitudinal study. *Scientific Studies of Reading* 6(4): 369–400

Deville, J. and Y Tillé (2004). Efficient Balanced Sampling: The Cube Method. *Biometrika*. Vol. 91, No. 4 (Dec. 2004). pp. 893-912.

Dua, T., et al. (2016) "Global research priorities to accelerate early child development in the sustainable development era." The Lancet Global Health. Online first.

Entwisle, D. R., K. L. Alexander, and L. S. Olson 2005. First grade and educational attainment by age 22 A New Story. *American Journal of Sociology*, 110 1458-1502

Farran, S. 2009. *Human rights in the South Pacific: Challenges and changes*, 181. London: Routledge Cavendish

Fuchs, L., D. Fuchs, M.K. Hosp, and J. Jenkins. 2001. Oral Reading Fluency as an Indicator of Reading Competence: A Theoretical, Empirical, and Historical Analysis. *Scientific Studies of Reading* 5(3), 239–256.

Hirano K, and Imbens GW 2001. Estimation of causal effects using propensity score weighting: An application to data on right heart catheterization. *Health Services and Outcomes Research Methodology Dec* 2001; 2(3):259–278.

Huffer E (2006), Cultural Rights in the Pacific – What they mean for Children, 'Children's Rights and Culture in the Pacific' Seminar, 30th October 2006

Gove, A. and P. Cvelich. 2011. *Early Reading: Igniting Education for All. A report by the Early Grade Learning Community of Practice. Revised Edition*. Research Triangle Park, NC: Research Triangle Institute.

Gregory, T., Harman-Smith, Y., Sincovich, A., Wilson, A., & Brinkman, S. (2016). It takes a village to raise a child: The influence and impact of playgroups across Australia. Telethon Kids Institute, South Australia. ISBN 978-0-9876002-4-0.

Griffen V (2006), Gender Relations in Pacific cultures and their impact on the growth and development of children, 'Children's Rights and Culture in the Pacific' Seminar, 30th October 2006

Hancock, K. J., et al. (2015). "Playgroup Participation and Social Support Outcomes for Mothers of Young Children: A Longitudinal Cohort Study." PLoS ONE 10(7: e0133007)

Jimerson, S., Egeland, B., Sroufe, L.A., Carlson, B., 2000. A prospective longitudinal study of high school dropouts: examining multiple predictors across development. *Journal of School Psychology* 38 (1), 525–549

Leyrat, C., A. Caille, A. Donner and B. Giraudeau 2013. Propensity Scores Used for Analysis of Cluster Randomized Trials with Selection Bias: a Simulation Study. *Statistics in Medicine · August 2013*.

Leyrat, C., A. Caille, Y. Foucher and B. Giraudeau 2016. Propensity score to detect baseline imbalance in cluster randomized trials: the role of the c-statistic. *BMC Medical Research Methodology* (2016) 16:9DOI 10.1186/s12874-015-0100-4

Linan-Thompson, S., and S. Vaughn. 2007. *Research based methods of reading instruction for English language learners: Grades K–4*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development Magnuson, K. A., et al. (2007). "Does prekindergarten improve school preparation and performance?" Economics of Education Review 26(1): 33-51.

Marteleto, L., D. Lam, V. Ranchhod, 2008. Sexual behavior, pregnancy, and schooling among young people in urban South Africa. *Studies in Family Planning* 39 (4), 351–368.

Nakajima, N., Hasan, A., Jung H., Brinkman S., Pradhan M., Kinnell A. (2016) Investing in School Readiness: An analysis of the Cost Effectiveness of Early Childhood Education Pathways in Rural Indonesia. WPS 7832. World Bank. http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/656521474904442550/Investing-in-school-readinessan-analysis-of-the-cost-effectiveness-of-early-childhood-education-pathways-in-rural-Indonesia

National Institute for Child Health and Human Development 2000. *Report of the National Reading Panel. Teaching Children to Read: An Evidence-based Assessment of the Scientific Research Literature on Reading and its Implications for Reading Instruction*. (NIH Publication No. 00-4754). Washington, DC: National Institutes of Health

National Reading Panel. 2000. *Teaching Children to Read: An Evidence-Based Assessment of the Scientific Research Literature on Reading and Its Implications for Reading Instruction*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Child Health and Human Development.

Naudeau, S., N. Kataoka, A. Valerio, M. J. Neuman, L. Kennedy Elder (2010). Investing in Young People. An Early Childhood Development Guide for Policy Dialogue and Project Preparation. Conference Edition. Washington, D.C.: The World Bank.

Nores, M. and W. S. Barnett (2010). Benefits of early childhood interventions across the world: (Under) Investing in the very young. Economics of Education Review. 29:271-282.

OECD 2014. PISA 2012 Results: What Students Know and Can do: Student Performance in Mathematics, Reading and Science (Volume I) [Revised edition February 2014]. Paris: OECD

PASEC 2015. PASEC 2014. Education System Performance in Francophone Sub-Saharan Africa. Competencies and learning factors in primary education. Dakar: CONFEMEN

Pressley, M., 1998. *Reading Instruction That Works: The Case for Balanced Teaching*. New York: The Guilford Press

Ravaud P, Flipo R, Boutron I, Roy C, Mahmoudi A, Giraudeau B, Pham T. ARTIST (osteoarthritis intervention standardized) study of standardised consultation versus usual care for patients with osteoarthritis of the knee in primary care in France: pragmatic randomised controlled trial. *BMJ* (*Clinical research ed.*) 2009; 338:b421.

Rosenzweig, M. R. 1995. Why are there returns to schooling? *The American Economic Review*. Vol. 85, No. 2: 153-158

Roux C, Giraudeau B, Rouanet S, Dubourg G, Perrodeau E, Ravaud P. Monitoring of bone turnover markers does not improve persistence with ibandronate treatment. Joint, Bone, Spine: *Revue Du Rhumatisme* Jun 2011; doi:10.1016/j.jbspin.2011.05.001.

Sandraluz L. C., A. R. Pebley, M. E. Vaiana, and E. Maggio. 2004. Are L.A.'s Children Ready for School? Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.

Scarborough, H. S. 2002. Connecting Early Language and Literacy to Later Reading (Dis)abilities: Evidence, Theory, and Practice. In: Dickinson, D.K. and S.B. Neuman. *Handbook of Early Literacy Research (vol. 1)*. Edited by. New York: The Guilford Press: 97-110

Schwartz R, Vigo Á, Dias de Oliveira L, Justo Giugliani ER (2015) The Effect of a Pro-Breastfeeding and Healthy Complementary Feeding Intervention Targeting Adolescent Mothers and Grandmothers on Growth and Prevalence of Overweight of Preschool Children. *PLoS ONE* 10(7):e0131884. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0131884

Shonkoff, J. P. (2014). "Changing the Narrative for Early Childhood Investment." JAMA

Pediatrics 168(2): 105-106.

Shonkoff, J. P., et al. (2016) "Expanding the evidence base to drive more productive early childhood investment." The Lancet. Online first.

Sprenger-Charolles, L. 2004. Linguistic Processes in Reading and Spelling: The Case of Alphabetic Writing Systems: English, French, German and Spanish. In: Nunes, T. and P. Bryant (Eds.) *Handbook of Children's Literacy*. Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers: 43–66

Snow, C.E., Burns, M.S., and Griffin, P. 1998. *Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children*. National Academy Press, Washington, DC

Taft AJ, Small R, Hegarty KL, Watson LF, Gold L, Lumley JA. Mothers' Advocates in the community (MOSAIC)–non-professional mentor support to reduce intimate partner violence and depression in mothers: a cluster randomised trial in primary care. *BMC public health* 2011; 11:178, doi:10.1186/1471-2458-11-178.

Tillé, Y. and A. Matei (2011). Sampling: Survey Sampling. R Package Version 2.4. http://CRAN.R-project.org/package=sampling.

Toganivalu, D. 2008. Early Childhood Care and Education in the Pacific: Reflections of our past, our present and our future. In Puamau, P and Pene F. (Eds.) *Early Childhood Care and Education in the Pacific: The PRIDE Project*. Suva, Fiji: Institute of Education, University of the South Pacific.

van Marwijk HW, Ader H, de Haan M, Beekman A. Primary care management of major depression in patients aged >= 55 years:. *The British Journal of General Practice* Oct 2008; 58(555):680– 687, doi:10.3399/bjgp08X342165.

Vegas, E. and L. Santibanez (2010). The Promise of Early Childhood Development in Latin

America and the Caribbean. Washington, D.C.: The World Bank

Wolf, M. 2007. *Proust and the Squid: The Story and Science of the Reading Brain*. New York: Harper Collins

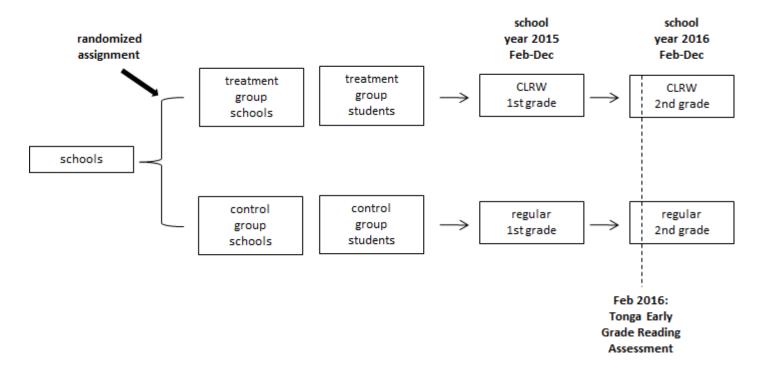
World Bank 2012a. *How well are Tongan children learning to read?* Washington, D.C.: The World Bank

World Bank 2012b. *How well are Ni-Vanuatu children learning to read in English?* Washington, D.C.: The World Bank

World Bank 2012c. *How well are Ni-Vanuatu children learning to read in French?* Washington, D.C.: The World Bank

Xu, Z. and J.D. Kalbfleisch 2010. Propensity score matching in randomized clinical trials. *Biometrics*. 2010 Sep; 66(3):813-23. doi: 10.1111/j.1541-0420.2009.01364.x





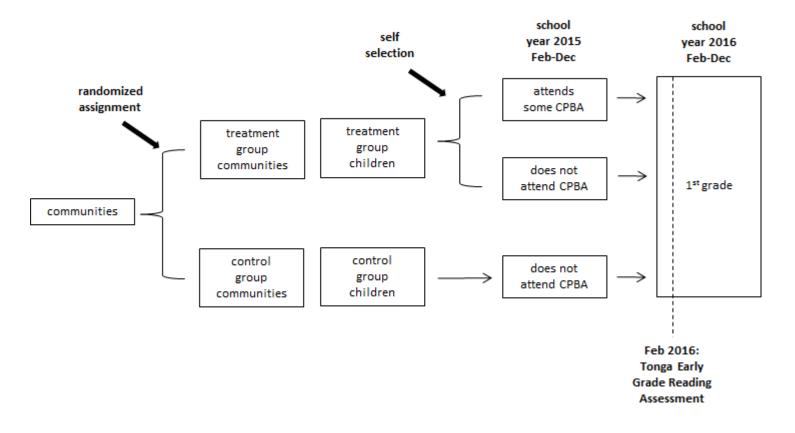


Figure 2. CPBA impact evaluation design

Table 1. Treatment status of first grade sa	imple		
	Attended		
	СРВА		
	Yes	No	Total
From a treatment community	119	378	497
From a control community	3	376	379
From another community	5	273	278
Community not known	13	838	851
Total	140	1865	2005

 Table 1: Treatment status of first grade sample

Table 2: Treatment status of second grade sample

	Type of school							
	Treatment	Control	Other	Total				
Total	609	542	688	1839				

	Grade 1			Grade 2		
	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male
Letters (correct / minute)	7.396	8.391	6.557	44.651	47.596	42.272
	(0.154)	(0.201)	(0.227)	(0.246)	(0.375)	(0.325)
Initial sounds (% correct)	0.056	0.063	0.049	0.386	0.416	0.361
	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.003)	(0.004)	(0.006)	(0.006)
Letter sounds (correct / minute)	2.589	3.35	1.948	24.137	25.829	22.77
	(0.117)	(0.115)	(0.193)	(0.193)	(0.264)	(0.275)
Familiar words (correct / minute)	0.614	0.734	0.513	16.384	19.602	13.784
	(0.063)	(0.044)	(0.109)	(0.188)	(0.302)	(0.236)
Unfamiliar words (correct / minute)	0.28	0.301	0.263	9.553	11.186	8.233
	(0.046)	(0.025)	(0.083)	(0.151)	(0.244)	(0.19)
Oral reading words (correct / minute)	0.916	1.289	0.602	20.065	24.025	16.866
	(0.114)	(0.187)	(0.138)	(0.25)	(0.416)	(0.301)
Reading comprehension (% correct)	0.004	0.004	0.003	0.081	0.105	0.062
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.003)	(0.003)
Listening comprehension (% correct)	0.251	0.255	0.248	0.387	0.383	0.39
	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.004)	(0.003)	(0.005)	(0.005)
Dictation (% correct)	0.025	0.03	0.021	0.552	0.598	0.515
	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.004)	(0.006)	(0.005)

Table 3: Estimated	mean test scores b	v sub-population
	incur cest seeres a	y sub population

Standard errors presented in parentheses below

	Control	Treatment	Difference
Student characteristics			
is female	0.448	0.436	-0.012
	(0.009)	(0.01)	(0.014)
attended preschool	0.624	0.63	0.006
	(0.016)	(0.019)	(0.028)
has help at home for homework	0.859	0.871	0.011
	(0.011)	(0.013)	(0.017)
was absent once in the past week	0.412	0.407	-0.005
	(0.014)	(0.017)	(0.024)
has parents interested in school day	0.714	0.743	0.029
	(0.013)	(0.023)	(0.028)
reads aloud at home	0.622	0.679	0.057**
	(0.014)	(0.017)	(0.023)
is read to at home	0.578	0.642	0.064***
	(0.018)	(0.014)	(0.023)
School characteristics			
Number of 1st and 2nd grade students	71.818	58.68	-13.138
	(7.673)	(6.575)	(10.397)
Non-government school	0.805	0.853	0.049
	(0.025)	(0.017)	(0.038)
Single-grade class	0.748	0.874	0.126**
	(0.045)	(0.028)	(0.054)

Table 4: Difference in student and school characteristics between treatment andcontrol groups for the school intervention (2nd grade)

Standard errors noted in parenthesis; no differences are statistically significant at the 10 percent level.

	Control	Treatment	Difference
Student characteristics			
is female	0.45	0.472	0.022
	(0.014)	(0.013)	(0.019)
attending an intervention school	0.55	0.661	0.112
	(0.095)	(0.058)	(0.112)
attended preschool	0.65	0.719	0.069***
	(0.017)	(0.016)	(0.023)
has help at home for homework	0.835	0.846	0.011
	(0.013)	(0.012)	(0.018)
was absent once in the past week	0.46	0.492	0.032
	(0.017)	(0.013)	(0.022)
has parents interested in school day	0.737	0.733	-0.004
	(0.02)	(0.017)	(0.027)
reads aloud at home	0.427	0.425	-0.002
	(0.014)	(0.016)	(0.022)
is read to at home	0.525	0.466	-0.059**
	(0.022)	(0.016)	(0.028)
School characteristics			
Number of 1st and 2nd grade students	61.852	45.511	-16.341**
	(6.329)	(2.674)	(6.969)
Non-government school	0.954	0.888	-0.066*
	(0.019)	(0.033)	(0.038)
Single-grade class	0.738	0.782	0.044
	(0.047)	(0.031)	(0.058)

Table 5: Difference in student and school characteristics between treatment and control groups for the community intervention (first grade)

Standard errors noted in parenthesis; no differences are statistically significant at the 10 percent level.

	School inte	rvention	Community	Community intervention		
	Control	Treatment	Control	Treatment		
Eua	0	0	0	0.005 (0.001)		
Ha'apai	0.087	0.149	0.081	0.099		
	(0.027)	(0.031)	(0.022)	(0.018)		
Niuatoputapu	0.009	0.025	0.019	0.021		
	(0.006)	(0.018)	(0.002)	(0.002)		
Tongatapu	0.709	0.691	0.772	0.651		
	(0.048)	(0.045)	(0.039)	(0.038)		
Vava'u	0.195	0.134	0.128	0.226		
	(0.044)	(0.034)	(0.028)	(0.031)		

Table 6: Percent of treatment and control group students in each island group

Standard errors denoted in parentheses

Table 7: Estimates of association between student and school variables and test score modeled by univariate regression - 2nd grade (in standard deviations)

	Letters	Initial sounds	Letter sounds	Familiar words	Unfamil- iar words	Oral reading words	Reading compre- hension	Listening compre- hension	Dictation
Student characteristics									
is female	0.166***	0.164***	0.097***	0.396***	0.211***	0.31***	0.336***	-0.02	0.213***
	(0.024)	(0.029)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.029)	(0.03)	(0.039)	(0.031)	(0.022)
attended preschool	0.015	-0.084*	0.032	0.033	0.008	0.057	0.127**	-0.093***	0.022
	(0.022)	(0.045)	(0.024)	(0.044)	(0.034)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.029)	(0.039)
has help at home for homework	0.03	-0.037	0.014	-0.032	0.028	-0.003	-0.013	-0.113	-0.079*
	(0.036)	(0.049)	(0.038)	(0.061)	(0.047)	(0.044)	(0.071)	(0.069)	(0.041)
was absent once in the past week	-0.073***	-0.244***	-0.053**	-0.153***	-0.102***	-0.115***	-0.123***	-0.105***	-0.14***
	(0.021)	(0.035)	(0.023)	(0.039)	(0.029)	(0.032)	(0.043)	(0.038)	(0.03)
has parents interested in school day	0.068***	0.133***	0.085***	0.149***	0.079***	0.172***	0.276***	-0.084**	0.154***
	(0.021)	(0.047)	(0.024)	(0.038)	(0.029)	(0.035)	(0.053)	(0.041)	(0.038)
reads aloud at home	0.159***	0.458***	0.22***	0.38***	0.279***	0.305***	0.246***	0.245***	0.317***
	(0.021)	(0.039)	(0.025)	(0.04)	(0.027)	(0.035)	(0.055)	(0.036)	(0.032)
is read to at home	0.128***	0.374***	0.178***	0.267***	0.202***	0.176***	0.104**	0.279***	0.201***
	(0.022)	(0.035)	(0.019)	(0.032)	(0.021)	(0.026)	(0.041)	(0.038)	(0.03)
School characteristics			· · ·						
Number of 1st/2nd grade students	0	-0.001*	-0.001**	0	0	0	0	0	0.001***
	(0)	(0)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0)	(0)	(0.001)	(0)	(0)
Non-government school	0.014	0.013	0.1**	-0.022	-0.029	0.053	0.006	0.078**	0.035
	(0.038)	(0.049)	(0.043)	(0.062)	(0.051)	(0.051)	(0.054)	(0.035)	(0.05)
Single-grade class	-0.242***	-0.209***	-0.19**	-0.278***	-0.332***	-0.343***	-0.292***	-0.236***	-0.258***
	(0.053)	(0.071)	(0.095)	(0.08)	(0.081)	(0.082)	(0.107)	(0.064)	(0.065)

Table 8 Estimates of association between student and school variables and test score modeled by univariate regression - first grade (in standard deviations)

	Letters	Initial sounds	Letter sounds	Familiar words	Unfamil- iar words	Oral reading words	Reading compre- hension	Listening compre- hension	Dictation
Student characteristics									
is female	0.051***	0.043**	0.041***	0.02*	0.006	0.04***	0.003	0.064***	0.018**
	(0.014)	(0.018)	(0.01)	(0.011)	(0.008)	(0.015)	(0.011)	(0.024)	(0.008)
attending an intervention school	-0.007	0.035	0.026**	-0.013	-0.004	-0.062***	-0.005	0.096**	-0.007
	(0.018)	(0.021)	(0.013)	(0.011)	(0.006)	(0.023)	(0.009)	(0.044)	(0.01)
attended preschool	0.024*	-0.04**	-0.007	0.018*	0.009	0.025*	-0.013	-0.22***	-0.014
	(0.014)	(0.017)	(0.011)	(0.009)	(0.007)	(0.013)	(0.013)	(0.031)	(0.009)
has help at home for homework	-0.007	-0.045	0.002	0.025**	0.005	0.008	0.017	-0.118***	-0.004
	(0.023)	(0.03)	(0.016)	(0.012)	(0.009)	(0.009)	(0.011)	(0.041)	(0.011)
was absent once in the past week	-0.094***	-0.087***	-0.065***	-0.035***	-0.02**	-0.012	-0.049***	-0.261***	-0.042***
	(0.013)	(0.015)	(0.01)	(0.011)	(0.008)	(0.014)	(0.01)	(0.031)	(0.008)
has parents interested in school day	0.007	0.002	-0.016	-0.003	-0.012	0.017	-0.001	-0.05	0.007
	(0.016)	(0.022)	(0.016)	(0.018)	(0.015)	(0.017)	(0.016)	(0.041)	(0.01)
reads aloud at home	0.048***	0.039*	0.043***	0.035**	0.009	0.004	0.02	0.065**	0.034***
	(0.016)	(0.02)	(0.012)	(0.014)	(0.01)	(0.017)	(0.014)	(0.031)	(0.01)
is read to at home	0.067***	0.09***	0.065***	0.076***	0.042***	0.038**	0.065***	0.133***	0.064***
	(0.015)	(0.02)	(0.011)	(0.013)	(0.01)	(0.017)	(0)	(0.033)	(0.009)
School characteristics									
Number of 1st/2nd grade students	-0.001***	-0.001***	-0.001***	0	0	0.001**	0	-0.003***	0
	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0)	(0.001)	(0)
Non-government school	0.018	0.014	0.005	0.007	-0.008	0.013	0.03***	-0.049	-0.009
	(0.027)	(0.033)	(0.012)	(0.017)	(0.015)	(0.017)	(0.006)	(0.064)	(0.019)
Single-grade class	-0.106***	-0.08***	-0.05***	0.001	-0.008	0.013	0.015*	-0.286***	-0.036***
	(0.018)	(0.02)	(0.013)	(0.011)	(0.008)	(0.012)	(0.009)	(0.049)	(0.011)

	Letters	Initial sounds	Letter sounds	Familiar words	Unfamil- iar words	Oral reading words	Reading compre- hension	Listening compre- hension	Dictation
Eua	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Ha'apai	0.172	0.684	0.297	0.256	0.108	0.135	0.159	0.762	0.222
	(0.057)	(0.125)	(0.077)	(0.078)	(0.044)	(0.062)	(0.1)	(0.086)	(0.091)
Niuatoputapu	-0.367	0.174	-0.396	-0.382	-0.233	-0.26	-0.435	-0.253	-0.296
	(0.132)	(0.329)	(0.1)	(0.144)	(0.095)	(0.129)	(0.057)	(0.098)	(0.205)
Tongatapu	-0.157	-0.252	-0.273	-0.233	-0.178	-0.288	-0.361	-0.304	-0.233
	(0.036)	(0.077)	(0.054)	(0.077)	(0.056)	(0.071)	(0.091)	(0.046)	(0.069)
Vava'u	0.159	-0.073	0.252	0.218	0.211	0.353	0.46	0.002	0.229
	(0.041)	(0.084)	(0.055)	(0.103)	(0.078)	(0.101)	(0.13)	(0.056)	(0.091)

Table 9 Difference between island group test score and national mean by island group in standard deviations (second grade treatment and control schools)

	Letters	Initial sounds	Letter sounds	Familiar words	Unfamil- iar words	Oral reading words	Reading compre- hension	Listening compre- hension	Dictation
Eua					-		-		-
	0.296***	-0.16***	0.046***	-0.011	0.019***	-0.04***	0.027***	0.184**	0.051***
	(0.055)	(0.008)	(0.013)	(0.01)	(0.004)	(0.008)	(0.005)	(0.086)	(0.004)
Ha'apai	0.115***	0.215***	0.112***	0.006	-0.007	-0.012	-0.001	0.985***	0.051***
	(0.031)	(0.047)	(0.024)	(0.014)	(0.006)	(0.011)	(0.014)	(0.077)	(0.014)
Niuatoputapu							-	-	
	-0.004	0.12***	0.009*	0.033***	0.062***	0.043***	0.028***	0.201***	0.131***
	(0.007)	(0.008)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.008)	(0.005)	(0.019)	(0.004)
Tongatapu	-	-	-						
	0.107***	0.119***	0.088***	0.001	0.006	0.01	-0.004	-0.28***	-0.009
	(0.017)	(0.018)	(0.012)	(0.01)	(0.006)	(0.012)	(0.01)	(0.041)	(0.008)
Vava'u	0.076***	0.048***	0.061***	-0.006	-0.01	-0.01	0.009	-0.091**	-0.023**
	(0.021)	(0.016)	(0.014)	(0.012)	(0.007)	(0.014)	(0.012)	(0.038)	(0.01)

Table 10 Difference between island group test score and national mean by island group in standard deviations (first grade children from treatment and control communities)

Method:	Letters	Initial sounds	Letter sounds	Familiar words	Unfamiliar words
Difference	0.05 (0.046)	0.607*** (0.07)	0.63*** (0.061)	0.327*** (0.084)	0.182*** (0.064)
with class random effects (r.e.)	0.068 (0.05)	0.616*** (0.071)	0.638*** (0.07)	0.342*** (0.093)	0.206*** (0.073)
with class r.e. and covariates	0.02 (0.042)	0.555*** (0.072)	0.588*** (0.041)	0.39*** (0.091)	0.225*** (0.06)
with class r.e., propensity score weighted	0.148* (0.089)	0.665*** (0.086)	0.748*** (0.128)	0.376*** (0.097)	0.307** (0.123)
Method:	Oral reading words	Reading compre- hension	Listening compre- hension	Dictation	
Difference	0.235*** (0.068)	0.139* (0.077)	0.137** (0.058)	0.265*** (0.068)	
with class r.e.	0.252*** (0.079)	0.197** (0.096)	0.177*** (0.056)	0.273*** (0.072)	
with class r.e. and covariates	0.27*** (0.071)	0.294*** (0.095)	0.166*** (0.056)	0.297*** (0.062)	
with class r.e., propensity score weighted	0.332*** (0.113)	0.154 (0.1)	0.155*** (0.059)	0.37*** (0.086)	

Table 11 Estimated impact of reading intervention: differences in test scores between treatment and control group by method

Method:	Letters	Initial sounds	Letter sounds	Familiar words	Unfamiliar words
Difference	-0.102 (0.071)	0.142** (0.064)	0.014 (0.086)	-0.172** (0.082)	-0.159* (0.085)
with class random effects (r.e.)	-0.096 (0.069)	0.103 (0.064)	0.011 (0.081)	-0.158** (0.077)	-0.145* (0.08)
with class r.e. and covariates	-0.024 (0.05)	0.195*** (0.065)	0.173*** (0.036)	-0.202** (0.08)	-0.063 (0.066)
with class r.e., propensity score weighted	-0.055 (0.058)	0.125* (0.065)	0.053 (0.06)	-0.136* (0.075)	-0.098 (0.063)
Method:	Oral reading words	Reading compre- hension	Listening compre- hension	Dictation	
Difference	-0.201** (0.086)	0.121 (0.089)	0.146** (0.068)	-0.015 (0.053)	
with class r.e.	-0.195** (0.081)	0.132 (0.088)	0.105 (0.066)	-0.006 (0.05)	
with class r.e. and covariates	-0.13** (0.065)	0.168 (0.106)	0.095 (0.073)	0.003 (0.063)	
with class r.e., propensity score weighted	-0.156** (0.07)	0.129 (0.088)	0.104 (0.068)	0.007 (0.05)	

Table 12 Estimated difference in impact of reading program between boys and girls: gender difference in differences in test scores between treatment and control group by method

Method:	Letters	Initial sounds	Letter sounds	Familiar words	Unfamiliar words
Difference	0.013 (0.017)	0.017 (0.02)	0.016 (0.014)	0.019 (0.012)	0.01 (0.01)
with class random effects (r.e.)	0.008 (0.018)	0.007 (0.025)	0.015 (0.014)	0.019 (0.012)	0.01 (0.01)
with class r.e. and covariates	0.063** (0.026)	0.072** (0.035)	0.069** (0.031)	0.058 (0.037)	0.037 (0.031)
with class r.e., propensity score weighted	0.07** (0.028)	0.116*** (0.039)	0.083*** (0.031)	0.07* (0.04)	0.049 (0.034)
Method:	Oral reading words	Reading compre- hension	Listening compre- hension	Dictation	
Difference	-0.023 (0.02)	0.012 (0.011)	0.07* (0.042)	-0.019** (0.009)	
with class r.e.	-0.023 (0.02)	0.012 (0.011)	0.056 (0.058)	-0.019** (0.009)	
with class r.e. and covariates	0.033 (0.028)	0.054* (0.031)	0.098** (0.041)	0.021 (0.018)	
with class r.e., propensity score weighted	0.043 (0.03)	0.062* (0.034)	0.182*** (0.063)	0.028 (0.019)	

Table 13 Estimated impact of the community intervention: differences in test scores between treatment and control group by method

Method:	Letters	Initial sounds	Letter sounds	Familiar words	Unfamiliar words
Difference	0.011 (0.031)	-0.023 (0.041)	-0.019 (0.023)	-0.026 (0.028)	-0.048** (0.019)
with class random effects (r.e.)	0.001 (0.031)	-0.038 (0.041)	-0.021 (0.023)	-0.026 (0.028)	-0.048** (0.019)
with class r.e. and covariates	0.065 (0.044)	0.103** (0.052)	-0.014 (0.038)	-0.05 (0.044)	-0.077** (0.033)
with class r.e., propensity score weighted	-0.07 (0.064)	-0.035 (0.086)	-0.103 (0.067)	-0.141* (0.082)	-0.146** (0.067)
Method:	Oral reading words	Reading compre- hension	Listening compre- hension	Dictation	
Difference	-0.095** (0.037)	-0.018 (0.025)	-0.068 (0.059)	-0.013 (0.021)	
with class r.e.	-0.095** (0.037)	-0.018 (0.025)	-0.031 (0.06)	-0.013 (0.021)	
with class r.e. and covariates	-0.059* (0.032)	-0.058 (0.036)	0.006 (0.085)	-0.006 (0.032)	
with class r.e., propensity score weighted	-0.121** (0.06)	-0.127* (0.068)	-0.048 (0.102)	-0.059 (0.039)	

Table 14 Estimated gender differences in impact of the community intervention: gender difference in differences in test scores between treatment and control group by method

Method:	Letters	Initial sounds	Letter sounds	Familiar words	Unfamiliar words
Difference	0.06 (0.079)	0.076 (0.089)	0.072 (0.062)	0.088 (0.056)	0.043 (0.045)
with class random effects (r.e.)	0.032 (0.072)	-0.027 (0.044)	0.062 (0.06)	0.088 (0.055)	0.043 (0.045)
with class r.e. and covariates	0.232** (0.096)	0.068 (0.053)	0.254** (0.108)	0.214 (0.137)	0.138 (0.115)
with class r.e., propensity score weighted	0.139* (0.081)	0.033 (0.063)	0.314*** (0.118)	0.274* (0.157)	0.192 (0.132)
Method:	Oral reading words	Reading compre- hension	Listening compre- hension	Dictation	
Difference	-0.102 (0.093)	0.054 (0.051)	0.316 (0.192)	-0.086** (0.042)	
with class r.e.	-0.102 (0.092)	0.054 (0.051)	0.042 (0.107)	-0.086** (0.04)	
with class r.e. and covariates	0.122 (0.102)	0.198* (0.116)	0.361** (0.152)	0.078 (0.066)	
with class r.e., propensity score weighted	0.167 (0.116)	0.24* (0.133)	0.272** (0.117)	0.081 (0.07)	

Table 15 Estimated impact of community play group interventions using treatment and control community as an instrument, by method (first grade)

Table 16 Estimated annual operating cost of interventions (USD)						
	СРВА	CLRW				
Training (facilitators for CPBA, teachers for CLRW)	35,512	37,651				
Instructional materials*		40,529				
Supervision, monitoring and mentoring costs	40,726	31,096				
Labour cost of supervisors, coaches, mentors, trainers	23,914	146,160				
Total annual cost (estimated)	100,152	255,436				
Number of children	962	1,398				
Cost per child	104	183				

*Materials are provided to communities to start a playgroup but are not provided subsequently. Materials acquired by communities are not known.

Method:	Letters	Initial sounds	Letter sounds	Familiar words	Unfamil- iar words
Difference	0.027 (0.025)	0.332*** (0.038)	0.345*** (0.034)	0.179*** (0.046)	0.099*** (0.035)
with class random effects (r.e.)	0.037 (0.027)	0.337*** (0.039)	0.349*** (0.038)	0.187*** (0.051)	0.113*** (0.04)
with class r.e. and covariates	0.011 (0.023)	0.303*** (0.039)	0.321*** (0.022)	0.213*** (0.049)	0.123*** (0.033)
with class r.e., propensity score weighted	0.081* (0.049)	0.364*** (0.047)	0.409*** (0.07)	0.206*** (0.053)	0.168** (0.067)
Method:	Oral reading words	Reading compre- hension	Listening compre- hension	Dictation	
Difference	0.129*** (0.037)	0.076* (0.042)	0.075** (0.032)	0.145*** (0.037)	
with class r.e.	0.138*** (0.043)	0.107** (0.053)	0.096*** (0.031)	0.149*** (0.039)	
with class r.e. and covariates	0.147*** (0.039)	0.161*** (0.052)	0.09*** (0.03)	0.162*** (0.034)	
with class r.e., propensity score weighted	0.181*** (0.061)	0.084 (0.055)	0.085*** (0.032)	0.202*** (0.047)	

Table 17 Estimated impact in standard deviations per 100 dollars for the CLRW intervention

Table 18 Estimated impact in standard deviations per 100 dollars for the CPBA intervention						
Method:	Letters	Initial sounds	Letter sounds	Familiar words	Unfamiliar words	
Difference	0.057 (0.076)	0.073 (0.086)	0.07 (0.06)	0.084 (0.053)	0.041 (0.044)	
with class random effects (r.e.)	0.03 (0.069)	-0.026 (0.043)	0.059 (0.058)	0.084 (0.053)	0.041 (0.043)	
with class r.e. and covariates	0.223** (0.093)	0.066 (0.051)	0.244** (0.104)	0.206 (0.131)	0.133 (0.111)	
with class r.e., propensity score weighted	0.133* (0.077)	0.032 (0.061)	0.302*** (0.113)	0.263* (0.151)	0.185 (0.127)	
Method:	Oral reading words	Reading compre- hension	Listening compre- hension	Dictation		
Difference	-0.098 (0.09)	0.052 (0.049)	0.304 (0.185)	-0.083** (0.04)		
with class r.e.	-0.098 (0.089)	0.052 (0.049)	0.04 (0.103)	-0.083** (0.038)		
with class r.e. and covariates	0.118 (0.098)	0.19* (0.111)	0.347** (0.146)	0.075 (0.064)		
with class r.e., propensity score weighted	0.16 (0.112)	0.231* (0.128)	0.261** (0.113)	0.078 (0.067)		