An Analysis of the Effect of Consolidation on Student Achievement: Evidence from Arkansas

Jonathan N. Mills*
University of Arkansas

Josh B. McGee
Laura and John Arnold Foundation

Jay P. Greene
University of Arkansas

Abstract

The consolidation of schools and districts has been one of the most widespread education reforms of the last century; however, surprisingly little research has directly investigated the effectiveness of consolidation as a reform strategy. We provide new evidence on this topic by taking advantage of a natural experiment in Arkansas that occurred when policymakers required the consolidation of all districts with average daily attendance of fewer than 350 students for two consecutive years. Using both regression discontinuity and instrumental variable models, we attempt to tease out the effects of state mandated consolidation. In general, we find that consolidation has a positive, yet practically insignificant performance impact on students from consolidating districts and a small negative performance impact for students in districts that merged with consolidating districts. School closure, a consolidation related phenomenon, is found to have a strong negative impact on affected students.

Key Words: consolidation, district size, regression discontinuity, instrumental variables

* Corresponding author: Address: 208 Graduate Education Building, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville AR, 72701; Tel.:1-479-575-3172; Fax: 1-479-575-3196. *E-mail address*: jnm003@uark.edu

1. Introduction

District consolidation has been one of the most prevalent education reforms over the last century. Between 1940 and 2008, for example, the number of public school districts in the U.S. declined substantially from 117,108 to 13,924.[1] Despite the scale of this reform effort, there is relatively little rigorous research that explores the effect of district and school consolidation on student achievement. Andrews, Duncombe, and Yinger (2002) review the literature on school and district size, but most of that research focuses on costs rather than achievement. Leithwood and Jantzi (2009) review 57 studies conducted after 1990 that examine the impact of school size on student outcomes and organizational characteristics. They generally find that smaller elementary schools are associated with higher student achievement but the results on the size of high schools are more ambiguous.

Virtually all of this research examined existing variation on school and district enrollment, not consolidation directly. The few studies that have examined district or school consolidation directly (see Hu and Yinger, 2003; Duncombe and Yinger, 2007; and Nitta, Holley, and Wrobel, 2010) have focused on outcomes other than student achievement, such as costs, housing prices, and teacher reactions.

But all of these studies, both those examining existing variation in district and school size as well as those examining consolidation-induced changes in size, are susceptible to endogeneity issues. Existing variation in district and school enrollment is not randomly assigned. Some districts and schools are larger or smaller as a function of their academic quality. Estimates of the effects of scale on achievement are biased by the fact that scale is also a function of achievement. In addition, districts and schools that are slated for consolidation or closure are also not randomly

---

selected. Unobserved characteristics associated with their academic quality are likely to be associated with the probability that a district or school is consolidated.

This paper contributes to the understanding of the effects of district and school consolidation on student achievement by focusing on a natural experiment that occurred in Arkansas. Policymakers decided to require all districts with daily average attendance of less than 350 for two consecutive years to consolidate. This sudden policy change with a bright-line discontinuity provides an excellent source of exogenous variation for us to learn about the effects of consolidation and scale in education.

The remainder of this paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 reviews the literature on district consolidation and returns to scale in education. Section 3 details Arkansas's mandated district consolidation legislation, Arkansas Act 60. In Section 4, we outline the data used in this study and Section 5 includes descriptions of the empirical methods employed in this paper as well as our results. Section 6 concludes the paper with a summary of our findings.

2. Review of Literature on Consolidation in Public Schooling

The ten-fold reduction in the number of public school districts in the U.S. since 1940 has largely been motivated by arguments focusing on economies of scale. As Duncombe and Yinger (2007) note, consolidation is often proposed as a means to take advantage of economies of scale by spreading administrative costs over a larger student body without diminishing quality. In addition, consolidation proponents claim that larger districts can employ a more efficient teaching workforce by allowing teachers to specialize within a particular discipline while also allowing for more collaboration among a more diverse teaching body. At the same time, consolidation policies are not without detractors. For example, Duncombe and Yinger (2007) note consolidation opponents argue that larger districts experience diseconomies of scale

stemming from higher transportation costs, a stronger union presence, and less buy-in from parents, students, and teachers. Nevertheless, despite the push back of consolidation opponents, district consolidation has clearly affected the overwhelming majority of districts and communities in the U.S. in the last century.

Beyond these arguments, several researchers have highlighted a multitude of social and economic factors that act as barriers to consolidation. Alesina, Baqir, and Hoxby (2004) find that income and racial heterogeneity are important determinants in the number and size of school districts. Furthermore, Brasington (2003) finds that the difference in size between two districts increases the likelihood of choosing to consolidate for a large district and decreases this likelihood for smaller districts. District perspectives aside, the large-scale reduction in the number of school districts in the U.S. is evidence that policy makers have tended to favor the arguments for consolidation, focusing on the cost benefits that economies of scale arguments imply. In many states policy makers have employed significant fiscal and regulatory incentives to encourage district mergers. Tight budgetary conditions at the state and local levels are sure to fuel discussion of further consolidation in an effort to cut cost.

Despite consolidation's ubiquity, relatively few studies have been able to directly examine the impact of consolidation primarily due to data limitations. Instead, the majority of the empirical research has focused on the impact of consolidation indirectly by confirming the validity of the underlying theory: economies of scale. This body of research has examined effects both at the district and school level, with the majority of recent evidence supporting economies of scale at the district level and diseconomies of scale at the school level.[2]

---

[2] For reviews of the literature on economies of scale in district and school size, see Andrews, Duncombe, and Yinger (2002) and Leithwood and Jantzi (2009), respectively.

The few studies that directly examine the effects of scale on student performance are limited and their results are quite mixed. Walberg and Fowler (1987) examine 500 school districts in New Jersey using a production function methodology, finding consistent evidence of moderate diseconomies of scale. In contrast, Berry and West (2008) examine data on three cohorts of students born between 1920 and 1940 from the Public-Use Micro-Sample of the 1980 U.S. Census. They find that an increase in district enrollment of 947 students is associated with a 2.1 percent increase in future earnings and is not harmful to student achievement.

The primary issue facing the study of both consolidation and economies of scale in education is the fact that district and school enrollment is rarely exogenous. The studies reviewed above are largely cross-sectional in nature, and the models they employ fail to fully account for the fact that size and achievement are likely related. Kuziemko (2006) is one of the only studies to appropriately address this issue. The author employs a two stage least squares (2SLS) approach exploiting shocks in enrollment due to school openings, closings, and mergers to investigate the effect of size on student achievement. Kuziemko finds insignificant results in the first year after an enrollment change. However, she finds significant, negative effects on both attendance and math scores in the second and third years after a change.

Two works that have recently attempted to directly examine the effects of consolidation. Duncombe and Yinger (2007) use a cost function approach to examine fiscal impacts of consolidation using a matched panel of rural districts in New York. They find evidence of significant cost savings at the district level. The authors found that doubling the enrollment of a 300 student district would result in a 61.7 percent reduction in operating costs, and likewise that a similar doubling for a 1,500 student district would result in 49.6 percent reduction. The authors found adjustment costs, largely accounted for by capital spending, lowered the total savings

somewhat, but the overall effect remained. While this study is able to investigate the direct impacts of consolidation through the use of a matched panel, it fails to appropriately control for endogeneity of enrollment.

Nitta, Holley, and Wrobel (2010) conducted surveys in four districts in Arkansas that experienced mergers to gain a first-hand understanding of how consolidation impacted the students and teachers involved. While the results were fairly diverse across the districts, the authors proposed two general findings: (1) students tended to adapt much better than teachers, and (2) nearly all people involved experienced at least some type of benefit from consolidation. Although the small sample size and reliance on survey data make it hard to generalize these findings to all consolidations, they provide a guide for expectations in our study of consolidation in Arkansas.

The existing empirical research on the impacts of consolidation broadly suggests economies of scale at the district level and diseconomies of scale at the school level on a variety of measures. Unfortunately, the simple fact that districts chose to consolidate implies a selection bias that is generally not addressed in the empirical literature. Furthermore, few studies have directly examined the impact of district consolidation on student achievement, an outcome of importance to policymakers. Fortunately, a mandatory consolidation policy introduced in Arkansas in 2004 provides us with a unique opportunity to study the impacts of consolidation while avoiding issues involved with the endogeneity of the consolidation decision.

3. Consolidation in Arkansas: Act 60

The latest wave of school consolidation in Arkansas arose in response to school finance litigation that occurred throughout the late 1990s and early 2000s. The decade long litigation culminated in 2003 with the Arkansas Supreme Court ruling that the state's school funding

system was unconstitutional in *Lake View School District vs. Huckabee*. Governor Mike Huckabee responded to the court's decision by convening the State Legislature in the Second Extraordinary Session of 2003. Governor Huckabee proposed large-scale school district consolidation to reduce district administrative costs and provide greater educational opportunity for students. Governor Huckabee's original proposal would have resulted in three-fold reduction in the number of districts in Arkansas from just over 300 to around 100. Compromise legislation was passed in early 2004. The Public Education Reorganization Act, Arkansas Act 60, required any district with average daily attendance of fewer than 350 students for two consecutive years to consolidate.[3]

The final enrollment threshold of 350, while not as drastic as the Governors original proposal, did result in a substantial number of district consolidations in the years that followed. Table 1 presents the number of district consolidations occurring since the 2004-05 school year. While the majority of district consolidations occurred immediately following the passage of Act 60, the legislation continues to affect Arkansas education as enrolments decline in rural districts.

[Table 1 here]

While Act 60 does not specifically require school closure following a consolidation, closures often occur in order to eliminate school and grade duplication and to take advantage of other perceived economies of scale. Table 2 presents the number of school closures that have occurred following a district consolidation. Unsurprisingly, consolidation has had a non-trivial impact on school closures.

[Table 2 here]

---

[3] For the remainder of this paper, when we refer to Act 60 or an enrollment level of 350, we are specifically referring to a district's two-year average enrollment.

4. Data

Our analysis makes use of a rich panel of demographic and performance data for all students who took the Arkansas mathematics and literacy Benchmark exams between the 2001-02 and 2009-11 school years. Arkansas did not provide examinations for all grades between the third and eighth grade until the 2004-05 school year. Thus, our analyses requiring a student's current and prior test score can at most use records beginning in the 2003-04 school year. While the performance of our models should not be strongly affected by these missing data, we do caution the reader to take these data limitations into account when interpreting our findings.

We also have data on district and school enrollment collected from the Arkansas Department of Education (ADE) as well as information on district consolidation and school closure compiled with the help of ADE and district officials. Throughout, we identify post-Act 60 districts that were involved in mergers as one of three types: districts with two-year average enrollment less than 350 students are identified as "sending" districts, districts with two-year average enrollment greater than 350 are identified as "receiving" districts, and districts that were formed as the result of a merger are identified as "new" districts. We merged these data on key variables to create a master panel that includes roughly 200,000 records per year across grades three through eight with multiple records for students across school years.

We identify students as consolidated if they were in a district that was forced to consolidate in the prior year, and they continue to be identified as such for the remainder of their appearance in the data. We identify students as being in receiving districts if they are enrolled in districts that merged with a consolidated district. Similar to the consolidated children, these students are identified as receiving students for the remainder of their appearance in the data. In

the next section we use these variables to identify the performance impacts of consolidation in Arkansas.

5. Methodology and Empirical Results

In the following sections we provide the methodology and empirical results of our analyses examining the impacts of consolidation on student performance in Arkansas. In the first section, we directly examine district consolidation effects through regression discontinuity and instrumental variables designs. Next, we look at the impact of a consolidation related phenomenon, school closure, through an instrumental variables approach.

5.1. District Impacts

A direct examination of the effects of consolidation on student outcomes is generally plagued by endogeneity concerns. In most cases, district consolidation occurs through selection: districts voluntarily choose to consolidate for any number of reasons such as perceived cost benefits or to take advantage of state financial incentives. Unfortunately, the very nature of this selection makes it likely that results in most simple models will be biased. For example, consider a case where a poor performing district consolidates with a larger, higher performing district to take advantage of fiscal incentives. This should generally lead to a decline in the overall average performance in the resultant district that will be reflected in the estimated coefficients from a standard Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) model. Thus, the study of consolidation impacts requires the implementation of methods that are specifically geared towards addressing this concern. For the purposes of examining the direct impacts of consolidation, we chose both the Regression Discontinuity (RD) and Instrumental Variables (IV) approaches to deal with this issue.

5.1.1. Regression Discontinuity Model

First, we examine the impacts of consolidation on student performance in the likely presence of endogeneity bias through a standard RD approach.[4] The explicit enrollment cut-off designated by Act 60 allows us to employ a fuzzy RD model whereby students in districts with pre-Act 60 two-year average enrollment of less than 350 students are assigned to the treatment group and students in the remaining districts represent the control group. Our design is "fuzzy" because attending a district with average enrollment fewer than 350 students prior to Act 60 is not a perfect predictor of receiving the consolidation treatment. We investigated the misclassification of students to the treatment group by estimating a linear probability model where pre-Act 60 district enrollment was the sole regressor. We then used our estimation results to predict the probability of assignment to the treatment group. Our results show some overlap between the treatment and control groups. Specifically, 90 percent of students who did not receive the treatment had predicted probabilities of consolidation less than 0.27 while about 10 percent of students who actually the consolidation treatment had predicted probability of less than 0.25.

In choosing the RD procedure, we are assuming that students in districts with enrollment slightly greater than the Act 60 mandated cut-off are essentially the same as students in the consolidated districts. We estimated the model specified in equation 5.1 below.

$$Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_{i,t-1} + \beta_2 C_{it} + \boldsymbol{E\theta} + \boldsymbol{X\gamma} + \rho + \epsilon_{it} \tag{5.1}$$

In this equation *Y* represents student *i*'s standardized scale score on a state exam, C is an indicator variable for consolidation due to Act 60, $\boldsymbol{E}$ is vector of linear and higher-order

---

[4] For a more general treatment of regression discontinuity models, see Imbens, G.W. & Lemieux, T. (2008). Regression Discontinuity Designs: A Guide to Practice. *Journal of Econometrics*, 142.

transformations of the two-year average enrollment for student i's district[5], X is a vector of individual level controls (ethnicity, gender, etc.), ρ contains a set of grade-by-year indicators, and ε is random error. β_2 represents our estimate of the effect of consolidation, and thus district size, on student achievement. We estimate this model using both OLS and student fixed effects. In the student fixed effects specification we drop both prior achievement and the vector of individual controls from the right-hand-side of the model.

A key component of RD models is the width of the band that you set around the discontinuity point. In particular, we face an important trade-off when setting our enrollment window: the wider the chosen band, the less appropriate the control group; the smaller the band, the less generalizable the results. In our preferred model, we restrict our analysis to those districts with pre-Act 60 enrollment levels between 250 and 450 students (or 100 students around the cut-off of 350). We present an analysis of the sensitivity of the results to different band widths a little later in the paper.

5.1.1. Regression Discontinuity Results

In this section we present the result of estimating the RD model specified in equation 1 using both OLS and student fixed effects. But first it is important to look for differences in observable characteristics between the treatment and control groups given the key assumption of the RD specification is the similarity of these two groups. Table 3 includes the distributions for several key demographic variables for both the control and treatment groups for students in districts with 2004 average enrollment between 250 and 450 students.

---

[5] In the RD literature, E is typically called the "forcing" or "assignment" variable because it is the variable that determines whether or not one is subject to the treatment. For students in districts subject to Act 60, E is the average enrollment for the consolidated district, independent of their current district. For all other students, E is the average enrollment for the student's current district. In order to fully capture any potential curvature in the relationship between district enrollment and achievement, we examine specifications using a linear, quadratic, and cubic versions of the forcing variable.

[Table 3 here]

White students represent the majority in both samples, but black students represent a larger percentage of the treatment group as compared to the control. The control and treatment groups are relatively similar on the remaining variables: males represent a slight majority across the samples, the majority of students in smaller districts are Free- or Reduced-Price Lunch (FRL) eligible, and there are very few students participating in English Language Learner (ELL) programs. Finally, across both specifications, the distribution of years differ between the two groups, with treatment individuals most likely appearing in the 2005-06 through the 2006-07 school years. Year fixed effects are included in our model specifications to account for any differences across years.

Next, we examine the results of our RD model using OLS. Table 4 presents OLS estimates of the average impact of consolidation on student mathematics and literacy achievement for our preferred average enrollment band of 250 to 450 students. Coefficient estimates are presented with robust standard errors in parentheses. We include both a simple model that only controls for prior performance and a more restricted model that includes controls for student demographics. In each of the regressions presented in Table 4, the relationship between average district enrollment and student achievement is modeled using a cubic function form to allow for maximum flexibility.[6] Each of the regressions presented in Table 4 include Grade*Year fixed effects to control for systematic differences in student performance across these domains. The estimated coefficients have been omitted from our reported results for the sake of space; and are available upon request.

[Table 4 here]

---

[6] Alternative specifications of the relationship between the average district enrollment and achievement had little impact on effect estimates. Results are available upon request.

Before examining the estimated coefficients on our consolidation variables, a discussion of the coefficient estimates on the control variables is merited. In most cases, the various control variables have both the expected sign and significance levels. Prior performance is a strong predictor of current performance across all specifications; however, the inclusion of additional control variables slightly decreases the strength of this relationship. The remaining demographic variables have the expected sign: female students are expected to perform slightly better than male students and relatively advantaged students are expected to perform better than disadvantaged students. Interestingly Hispanic students are expected to have relatively higher performance than their white counterparts. This is likely explained by the inclusion of the ELL identifier in our model: Hispanic students for whom English is a second language are likely captured by the ELL variable; and the remaining students are unlikely to be much worse off than white students.

Now we turn our attention to the consolidation variable. Across all specifications, consolidation is found to have a significant and positive estimated impact on student achievement. Given the demographic differences between our preferred specifications are those that include controls for individual demographics (columns 2 and 3). These results suggest that consolidation increases student achievement by an average of 0.03 standard deviations in math and 0.04 standard deviations in literacy in the years following consolidation. Nevertheless, despite strong statistical significance of these estimates, the relatively small magnitude of the coefficient estimates make it very unlikely that the policy is of practical significance for students in consolidated districts.

It is possible that the impacts of consolidation vary over time especially if students require several years to adjust to their new surroundings. In Table 5, we examine how time

impacts the estimated consolidation coefficient using a series of dummy variables that allow us to examine the non-linear impacts of time. This specification is more flexible than a continuous variable because it allows for a non-linear relationship. As the results in Table 5 show, the consolidation impacts do appear to vary over time for both math and literacy. Focusing first on math, our estimates indicate small yet significantly positive impacts of consolidation on students at least two years following a consolidation. Nevertheless, the significance holds only at the weaker 10 percent standard. Interestingly, the results for literacy suggest are slightly larger positive impacts for students who were in a consolidated district one year ago or at least three years ago. These results hold even when we consider the more restricted, yet more appropriate, specifications which include controls for student demographics.

[Table 5 here]

The OLS RD models indicate benefits of consolidation on both mathematics and literacy performance; however our estimates of the benefits are very small. Nevertheless, it is still possible that there are omitted community factors that could be causing these positive findings. As we saw in Table 3, the treatment and control groups differ slightly in their racial characteristics despite a narrow-band regression discontinuity design. To examine the extent to which unobservable factors are influencing our estimates, we estimate a model with student fixed effects.

A fixed effects specification allows us to effectively cut out any time invariant unobserved effects that could bias our results; however, our estimates of the impact of consolidation will be identified solely by the performance of switchers. In other words, the coefficients on the consolidation variables are identified by changes in the student achievement

trajectory for those students who receive the consolidation treatment. The results of the student fixed effects models are presented in Table 6.

[Table 6 here]

On average, consolidation is found to have a significantly positive impact on both student mathematics and literacy performance. In addition, consolidation is found to have a significant positive impact on student achievement in each of the years following a consolidation in nearly all cases. The estimated coefficient for math achievement for students whose district consolidated three or more years ago is actually quite large, indicating a gain in achievement of nearly 0.15 standard deviations. On the other hand, consolidation is not found to have a significant estimated impact on literacy achievement for students whose district consolidated two years ago. This result coincides OLS regression results presented in Table 5.

In general, our preferred models –which include controls for student demographics– indicate impacts that are statistically indistinguishable from zero. Even in the cases of positive findings, however, it is important to keep practical implications in mind. While our results indicate a significant positive relationship, the point estimates are actually quite small (between 0.01 and 0.05) standard deviations. Thus, while we find some evidence of positive impacts, our results are largely either statistically or practically insignificant.

5.1.2. Specification Tests

In this section, we test the stability of our measures by varying the width of the enrollment bands, both by reduction and expansion. Results are presented for the fully specified OLS RD models in Table 7.[7] Columns 1, 2, 4, and 5 duplicate the analyses presented in Table 4 using two smaller average enrollment bands: pre-Act 60 enrollment between 275 and 425

---

[7] In this section, we present the results from our fully specified OLS models. The results for the models using student fixed effects are largely similar to those presented in Table 6. Results available upon request.

students and pre-Act 60 enrollment between 300 and 400 students. The results presented in both tables generally agree with those generated using our preferred enrollment band: consolidation is never found to have a significant negative impact on performance. Despite slight differences, the general similarity between these results and those from our preferred model give us confidence in our model.

[Table 7 here]

In columns 3 and 6, we examine how the estimates change when the pre-Act 60 enrollment band is significantly expanded. In this case, we chose a pre-Act 60 enrollment band of 700 students with the assumption that a 700 student district is not significantly different from a 350 student district. Even with the larger band the general story holds true: consolidation is not found to have a significant negative impact on student performance and there is slight evidence of non-linear positive impacts over time. Nevertheless, the coefficient estimates are much smaller in the expanded sample, again providing weak evidence supporting the benefits of consolidation.

On the whole, the results presented in this section give us some confidence in our analyses. Our coefficient estimates are not strongly dependent on the size of the enrollment bands. However, it is important to note that the estimated effects are not particularly large and the RD approach may not be approximating random-assignment given the differences that remain between the characteristics of our treatment and control populations.

5.1.3. Instrumental variables model

Up to this point, we have only examined half of the consolidation story: the impact of consolidation on students from consolidated districts. In reality, consolidation impacts two groups of students: those coming from consolidated schools and those students in the receiving

schools. Unfortunately, we cannot examine the experience of students in receiving schools through the robust RD procedure because there are no clear qualifications for receiving districts. In a naïve setting, we could estimate the impact of consolidation on students in receiving districts using a simple OLS model with a dummy on the right hand side indicating if a student was in a receiving district. Nevertheless, as we noted earlier, there is sufficient reason to believe the consolidation-affected variable suffers from an endogeneity bias. The districts into which consolidated districts are absorbed are not randomly selected. The receiving districts volunteer, are chosen by the consolidating district, or are chosen by state authorities to absorb the consolidated district. Those receiving districts are chosen for a reason and their willingness to perform this role, or inability to prevent it, are likely to be functions of district characteristics that are related to their educational quality. Thus, we must employ an appropriate model to deal with this likely bias.

Our preferred method to address this endogeneity concern is an instrumental variables analysis that exploits exogenous variation in the distance between a given district and the nearest consolidated district.[8] This variable sufficiently meets the criteria for an instrument because consolidated districts are very likely to be absorbed by a nearby district, but distance will be exogenous to neighboring district's student performance.

Our preferred estimation technique is the Two Stage Least Squares (2SLS) procedure. In the first stage a variable indicating if a student was affected by consolidation is regressed on our two instruments as well as on the full set of control variables included in equation 5.1. The first

---

[8] Minimum distances are calculated using information on district latitude and longitude downloaded from the Common Core of Data. In cases of missing data, Google Earth was used to determine the district latitude and longitude values. The values for this variable correspond to the distance between a consolidated district and the student's district in the prior year. Once a student is identified as in a receiving district, the value of this variable is held fixed for their remaining time in the data.

stage provides a predictor, $\hat{R}$, of a student being in a receiving district. This predictor is then included as a regressor in the second stage of the estimation. The coefficient on this variable from the second stage will be our estimate of the impact of consolidation on student achievement in receiving districts. Equations 5.2 and 5.3 provide the specification for the first and second stage of the 2SLS respectively. All variables are analogous to those presented in equation 5.1. The only additions are the "In Receiving District" variable, $\hat{R}$, discussed above and the minimum distance to a consolidated district represented by D. The estimated coefficient on this variable provides our estimated impact of consolidation on students in receiving districts.

$$R_{it} = \delta_0 + \delta_1 Y_{i,t-1} + \delta_2 D_{it} + \boldsymbol{X\theta} + \boldsymbol{\rho} + \omega_{it} \tag{5.2}$$

$$Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_{i,t-1} + \beta_2 \hat{R}_{it} + \boldsymbol{X\gamma} + \boldsymbol{\rho} + \epsilon_{it} \tag{5.3}$$

The results from our analyses are presented in Table 8. Columns 1, 2, 5, and 6 include OLS estimates, providing a baseline for our expectations. For both mathematics and literacy, the results indicate that consolidation increases average student performance for students in receiving districts. In contrast, our specifications which use minimum distance to a consolidated district to instrument for receiving districts (columns 3, 4, 7, and 8) present a less favorable picture for students in receiving districts. Across all specifications, consolidation is found to have a negative and significant impact on achievement for students in receiving districts, with a decline in mathematics performance of around 0.12 standard deviations and a decline in literacy performance of 0.07 standard deviations. The sizeable differences between the OLS and IV estimates are indicative of a positive bias in the OLS models, further highlighting the need for methods that appropriately account for the endgoeneity of the consolidation decision.

[Table 8 here]

Given the findings from the RD analysis, these results indicate potential performance tradeoff between sending and receiving district students. We want to verify that the control variables continue to have effects in the expected directions. They do: prior performance is an important predictor of current performance, females tend to do better than males, and disadvantaged students tend to do worse than advantaged students. Again, we note a positive coefficient on the Hispanic coefficient; however this is largely explained by our inclusion of other ELL as a control.

5.2. School Closure Impacts

In addition to the direct impacts that consolidation may have on students, consolidation can indirectly impact students through the closure of schools. Without a research design to address endogeneity, the study of such closure effects is similarly precarious as schools are closed for a reason; and it is likely that school closure is based at least in some part on poor performance. If the factors leading to school closure are also associated with student performance, then our closure estimates would suffer from bias. In this section, we again attempt to avoid this bias through an instrumental variables procedure.

Our preferred method in this model is to make use of the clear cut-off created by Act 60. Again, this variable has intuitive appeal as an instrument: you would expect school closures to occur when two districts consolidate because the consolidation is supposed to take advantage of economies of scale. Indeed, our school closure data indicate that 80 percent of the school closures that occurred due Act 60 occurred within consolidated districts.

In particular, we employ a 2SLS methodology using our consolidation indicator to instrument for the probability that a student's school is closed due to consolidation. Equations 5.4 and 5.5 provide the specification for the first and second stage of the 2SLS respectively. The

school closure variable, *L*, is an indicator that takes the value of 1 if a student attended a school that was closed due to consolidation. All other variables are analogous to those presented in earlier equations. The estimated coefficient on the instrument for school closure in equation 5.5, $\hat{L}$, is our estimated impact of consolidation related school closure on student performance.

$$L_{it} = \delta_0 + \delta_1 Y_{i,t-1} + \delta_2 C_{it} + \boldsymbol{X\theta} + \boldsymbol{\rho} + \omega_{it} \tag{5.4}$$

$$Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_{i,t-1} + \beta_2 \hat{L}_{it} + \boldsymbol{X\gamma} + \boldsymbol{\rho} + \epsilon_{it} \tag{5.5}$$

The results of this analysis are presented in Table 9. All specifications indicate a negative impact of consolidation related school closure on student achievement; however the coefficient estimates in the IV specifications are again much more negative than those in the OLS specifications. Using the more specified models, we find that closure due to consolidation can be expected to lead to performance declines of between 0.17 and 0.11 standard deviations in math performance and between 0.5 and 1.0 standard deviations in literacy performance. Furthermore, we note that the coefficient estimates on the control variables are largely unchanged, giving us more confidence in our results.

[Table 9 here]

These larger, negative effects of school closure in the instrumental variable analysis relative to the OLS analysis, suggest that the schools selected for closure contain students and staff that have particular difficulty with transitions.

6. Conclusion

This paper adds to our understanding of the effects of consolidation and scale on student achievement by taking advantage of a natural experiment in Arkansas which occurred when policymakers required the consolidation of all districts with fewer than 350 students. Unfortunately, differences in what constitutes appropriate comparison groups does not allow us

to separately estimate the effects of consolidation on sending and receiving students in the same model. In particular, students who were in consolidating districts are appropriately compared against other students in small districts, while receiving districts are often quite large, requiring an expanded control group. We find that consolidation has a very small, positive effect on the achievement of students whose districts are consolidated. But that small positive effect among consolidated students is off-set by a negative effect for students in the districts into which these students are absorbed. In addition, we find that school closures that result from consolidation have particularly negative effects on student achievement.

It should be noted that our confidence in the small positive effect for consolidated students from our regression discontinuity is undermined by the fact that significant differences between our treatment and control groups exist despite that bright-line discontinuity. The RD may approximate random-assignment at the level of school districts, but it does not necessarily produce something approximating random-assignment at the student level. Each district has a particular demographic profile and the one just below the consolidation threshold may differ from the district with enrollment just above that threshold.

Given these concerns with the RD model and the larger negative effects observed in our instrumental variable models for all students affected by consolidation, both sending and receiving districts, we should be concerned about district consolidation as a reform strategy. In addition, the large negative effects observed in the IV models for school closure induced by consolidation give us some reason to believe that even consolidated students are harmed by the policy.

These generally negative outcomes from a consolidation policy should also make us worried about the effects of district and school scale on student achievement. Even in very

small districts, with fewer than 350 students, and very schools we observe diseconomies of scale when they are combined with other districts and schools to form larger organizations. If the returns to scale are negative for very small school organizations, they are unlikely to be more favorable for larger school organizations.

Finally, we should note some potential issues with our paper. First, it is important to note that our analysis treats all consolidations as homogenous, rather than heterogeneous, events. This is largely because our paper offers an analysis of the effect of a statewide mandatory consolidation policy rather than a study of individual district mergers. Nevertheless, we note that the evidence presented in this paper largely focuses on the average effect of consolidation on different types of students; and that these effects may certainly differ across district mergers.

In addition, preliminary reviewers of this paper raised the concern that districts may have manipulated their enrollment to avoid consolidation. If this occurred on a large scale the effect estimates presented in this paper would be biased. Nevertheless, there is little evidence that this occurred in Arkansas. Furthermore, we note that the majority of districts subject to Act 60 consolidated during the first summer after the passage of the law; and therefore had no chance to manipulate their enrollment. Thus, this concern, while valid, is unlikely to have had a strong impact on the findings presented in this paper.

Finally, it is possible that there are cost savings associated with scale in education, but those could not be examined in Arkansas. State law requires that a minimum amount be spent per pupil by all school districts and the consolidated districts are all at or near that minimum. The hope of the consolidation policy was that it would help reallocate resources in a way that would enhance student achievement. Even if resources were reallocated in Arkansas there is no

evidence that it resulted in meaningful improvements in student performance. If anything, it appears to have done the opposite.

7. References

Alesina, A., Baqir, R., & Hoxby, C. (2004). Political Jurisdictions in Heterogeneous Communities. *Journal of Political Economy*, 112(2), 348-396.

Andrews, M., Duncombe, W., & Yinger, J. (2002). Revisiting Economies of Size in American Education: Are We Any Closer to a Consensus? *Economics of Education Review*, 21, 245-262.

Arkansas 84th General Assembly. (2003). "Act 60 of the 2nd Extraordinary Session." Retrieved from http://www.arkleg.state.ar.us.

Arkansas Department of Education. (2006). Rule Governing the Consolidation or Annexation of Public School Districts and Boards of Directors of Local School Districts. Retrieved from http://www.arkansased.org.

Arkansas Bureau of Legislative Research. (2006). Educating Rural Arkansas: Issues of Declining Enrollment, Isolated Schools, and High-Poverty Districts. Research Project 06-137 (August 2006). Prepared for the Adequacy Study Oversight Subcommittee of the Arkansas Senate and House Committees on Education.

Barnett, J.H., Ritter, G.W., & Lucas, C.J. (2002). Educational Reform in Arkansas: Making Sense of the Debate over School Consolidation. *Arkansas Education Research & Policy Studies Journal*. 2 (2), 1-21.

Brasington, D. M. (2003). Size and School District Effects: Do Opposites Attract? *Economica*, 70(280), 673-690.

Berry, C.R. & West, M.R. (2008). Growing Pains: The School Consolidation Movement and Student Outcomes. *The Journal of Law, Economics, & Organization*, 26(1).

Duncombe, W. & Yinger, J. (2007). Does School District Consolidation Cut Costs? *Education Finance and Policy*. 2(4), 341-375.

Gordon, N. & Knight, B. (2006). The Causes of Political Integration: An Application to School Districts. NBER Working Paper No 12047.

Hu, Y. & Yinger, J. (2007). The Impact of School District Consolidation on Housing Prices. Unpublished Paper, Syracuse University.

Leithwood, K. & Jantzi, D. (2009). A Review of Empirical Evidence About School Size Effects: A Policy Perspective. *Review of Educational Research*. 79(1), 464-490.

Kuziemko, I. (2006). Using Shocks to School Enrollment to Estimate the Effect of School Size on Student Achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 25, 63-75.

Nitta, K.A., Holley, M. J., & Wrobel, S. L. (2010). A Phenomenological Study of Rural School Consolidation. *Journal of Research in Rural Education*, 25(2), 1-19. Retrieved from http://www.jrre.psu.edu/articles/25-2.pdf.

Staiger, D. & Stock, J. H. (1997). Instrumental Variables Regression with Weak Instruments. *Econometrica*, 65, pp. 557 – 586.

Walberg, H.J. & Fowler, W.J. (1987). Expenditure and Size Efficiencies of Public School Districts. *Educational Researcher*, 16(7), pp. 5-13.

8. Tables

Table 1

Districts Affected by Act 60

First Year After Consolidation	Consolidated Due to Enrollment	Consolidated and Receiving Districts
2005	59	99
2006	2	4
2007	4	14
2008	--	--
2009	--	--
2010	1	2
2011	4	15

Source: Arkansas Department of Education

Table 2

School Closures in Consolidated Districts

First Year Since Consolidation	Number of Schools Closed			
	Elementary	Middle	Secondary	Total
2005	5	--	11	16
2006	8	--	13	21
2007	16	4	15	35
2008	2	--	4	6
2009	8	--	1	9
2010	5	1	3	9
2011	4	--	5	9

Source: Arkansas Department of Education

Table 3

Demographic Distributions for RD Models

| | OLS Regressions | | | | Student Fixed Effects | | | |
| | Control | | Treatment | | Control | | Treatment | |
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Total	23,276	---	5,248	---	23,331	---	5,259	---
Ethnicity								
White	18,572	79.8	3,948	75.2	18,575	79.6	3,952	75.1
African American	3,197	13.7	1,131	21.6	3,199	13.7	1,133	21.5
Hispanic	513	2.2	59	1.1	513	2.2	59	1.1
Other	994	4.3	110	2.1	1,002	4.3	111	2.1
Gender								
Male	11,902	51.1	2,578	49.1	11,902	51.0	2,578	49.0
Female	11,374	48.9	2,670	50.9	11,374	48.8	2,670	50.8
FRL Eligible	14,599	62.7	3,546	67.6	14,605	62.6	3,549	67.5
ELL	163	0.7	10	0.2	163	0.7	10	0.2
School Year								
2003-04	30	0.1	0	0.0	30	0.1	0	0.0
2004-05	1,707	7.3	936	17.8	1,709	7.3	936	17.8
2005-06	4,131	17.7	1,434	27.3	4,138	17.7	1,440	27.4
2006-07	3,641	15.6	1,270	24.2	3,644	15.6	1,271	24.2
2007-08	3,638	15.6	774	14.7	3,638	15.6	774	14.7
2008-09	3,615	15.5	270	5.1	3,616	15.5	270	5.1
2009-10	3,519	15.1	193	3.7	3,546	15.2	196	3.7
2010-11	2,995	12.9	371	7.1	3,010	12.9	372	7.1

Notes: Differences-in-means tests are significant in all cases; however this is largely due to the large samples available for comparison. Initial analyses confirm that these tests have sufficient power to detect differences as small as those presented in this table.

Table 4

OLS Regressions, Preferred Enrollment Band of 250-450

Variable	Mathematics		Literacy	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Consolidated	0.017*	0.030***	0.030***	0.040***
	(0.010)	(0.010)	(0.009)	(0.009)
Lagged district average enrollment	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000**	-0.000**
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Squared Lagged district average enrollment	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Cubed Lagged district average enrollment	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Lagged performance	0.775***	0.753***	0.822***	0.792***
	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.004)	(0.005)
Female		0.035***		0.106***
		(0.006)		(0.006)
Hispanic		0.052**		0.071***
		(0.027)		(0.022)
African American		-0.078*		-0.084***
		(0.009)		(0.009)
Other, non-white		-0.005		0.009
		(0.018)		(0.017)
Free- or Reduced-Lunch eligible		-0.106***		-0.091***
		(0.007)		(0.007)
English Language Learner		-0.108**		-0.063
		(0.046)		(0.046)
N	28,590	28524	28,586	28,520
Adjusted R-Squared	0.61	0.62	0.66	0.67

* denotes significance at the 10% level; ** denotes significance at the 5% level; *** denotes significance at the 1% level

Notes: Standard errors are clustered at the student level. All specifications include Grade*Year controls.

Table 5

Years Since, OLS models only

	Mathematics		Literacy	
Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
One Year Since	0.009	0.023	0.041***	0.053***
Consolidation	(0.016)	(0.016)	(0.016)	(0.016)
Two Years Since	0.029	0.036*	0.002	0.008
Consolidation	(0.019)	(0.019)	(0.018)	(0.018)
Three or More Years	0.017	0.033*	0.038**	0.052***
Since Consolidation	(0.017)	(0.018)	(0.016)	(0.017)
Lagged district average	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000*	-0.000*
enrollment	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Squared Lagged district	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
average enrollment	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Cubed Lagged district	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000
average enrollment	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Lagged performance	0.775***	0.753***	0.822***	0.792***
	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.004)	(0.005)
Demographic Controls	No	Yes	No	Yes
N	28,590	28,524	28,586	28,520
Adjusted R-Squared	0.61	0.62	0.66	0.67

* denotes significance at the 10% level; ** denotes significance at the 5% level; *** denotes significance at the 1% level

Notes: Standard errors are clustered at the student level. All specifications include Grade*Year controls.

Table 6

RD Model with Student Fixed Effects, Enrollment Band 250-450

	Mathematics		Literacy	
Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Consolidated	0.058***		0.036*	
	(0.022)		(0.022)	
One Year Since Consolidation		0.058**		0.042*
		(0.022)		(0.022)
Two Years Since Consolidation		0.067**		0.017
		(0.028)		(0.028)
Three or More Years Since Consolidation		0.144***		0.091***
		(0.031)		(0.030)
Lagged district average enrollment	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***	0.000**
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Squared Lagged district average enrollment	-0.000***	-0.000**	-0.000**	-0.000**
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Cubed Lagged district average enrollment	0.000***	0.000*	0.000**	0.000*
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
N	28,590	28,590	28,586	28,586

* denotes significance at the 10% level; ** denotes significance at the 5% level; *** denotes significance at the 1% level

Notes: All specifications include Grade*Year controls.

Table 7

Specification Checks, OLS models

Variable	Mathematics			Literacy		
	300-400	275-425	Less than 700	300-400	275-425	Less than 700
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Consolidated	0.022*	0.022*	0.007	0.050***	0.039***	0.016**
	(0.013)	(0.011)	(0.007)	(0.012)	(0.010)	(0.006)
Lagged district average enrollment	0.000	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000*	-0.000*	-0.000*
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Squared Lagged district average enrollment	-0.000	0.000	-0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Cubed Lagged district average enrollment	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Lagged performance	0.755***	0.757***	0.758***	0.795***	0.791***	0.798***
	(0.009)	(0.007)	(0.003)	(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.002)
Female	0.029***	0.031***	0.037***	0.102***	0.108***	0.11***
	(0.009)	(0.007)	(0.003)	(0.008)	(0.007)	(0.003)
Hispanic	0.100**	0.054	0.038***	0.095***	0.072	0.031***
	(0.051)	(0.036)	(0.011)	(0.036)	(0.028)	(0.010)
African American	-0.080***	-0.074***	-0.119***	-0.082***	-0.08***	-0.106***
	(0.012)	(0.010)	(0.005)	(0.011)	(0.010)	(0.005)
Other, non-white	-0.039*	-0.03	0.012	-0.005	0.006	0.012
	(0.023)	(0.021)	(0.010)	(0.022)	(0.020)	(0.009)
Free- or Reduced-Lunch eligible	-0.119***	-0.117***	-0.09***	-0.089***	-0.094***	-0.078***
	(0.010)	(0.008)	(0.004)	(0.009)	(0.007)	(0.003)
English Language Learner	-0.298***	-0.235***	-0.078***	-0.193	-0.197***	-0.049***
	(0.093)	(0.074)	(0.017)	(0.101)	(0.073)	(0.017)
N	15,400	21,633	108,078	15,399	21,632	108,052
Adjusted R-Squared	0.62	0.62	0.62	0.67	0.67	0.68

* denotes significance at the 10% level; ** denotes significance at the 5% level; *** denotes significance at the 1% level

Notes: Standard errors are clustered at the student level. All specifications include Grade*Year controls.

Table 8

Estimated Impacts of Consolidation on Receiving District Student Achievement

| | Mathematics | | | | Literacy | | | |
| | OLS | | 2SLS | | OLS | | 2SLS | |
Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
In Receiving District	0.006***	0.011***	-0.153***	-0.118***	0.003*	0.007***	-0.113***	-0.066***
	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.005)	(0.005)
Lagged performance	0.800***	0.763***	0.800***	0.763***	0.816***	0.778***	0.816***	0.777***
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Female		0.023***		0.023***		0.096***		0.096***
		(0.001)		(0.001)		(0.001)		(0.001)
Hispanic		0.032***		0.028***		0.041***		0.038***
		(0.003)		(0.003)		(0.003)		(0.003)
African American		-0.13***		-0.131***		-0.105***		-0.106***
		(0.001)		(0.002)		(0.001)		(0.001)
Other, non-white		0.027***		0.021***		0.022***		0.019***
		(0.003)		(0.003)		(0.003)		(0.003)
Free- or Reduced-Lunch eligible		-0.126***		-0.124***		-0.11***		-0.109***
		(0.001)		(0.001)		(0.001)		(0.001)
English Language Learner		-0.065***		-0.067***		-0.032***		-0.033***
		(0.003)		(0.004)		(0.003)		(0.003)
N	1,038,939	1,030,269	1,038,939	1,030,269	1,038,715	1,030,053	1,038,715	1,030,053
Adjusted R-Squared	0.64	0.64	0.63	0.64	0.67	0.68	0.67	0.68

* denotes significance at the 10% level; ** denotes significance at the 5% level; *** denotes significance at the 1% level

Notes: Robust standard errors presented in parentheses. First stage regressions indicate a significant negative relationship between the consolidation instrument and school closure equal to -0.010 across all specifications. This confirms our expectations about the instrumental variable: districts are significantly more likely to be identified as receiving districts if they are in close proximity to a consolidated district. First stage F-statistics range from 682.7 to 770.6, which are substantially higher than acceptable threshold recommended by Staiger and Stock (1997) of 10.

Table 9

Estimated Impacts of School Closure due to Consolidation

| | Mathematics | | | | Literacy | | | |
| | OLS | | 2SLS | | OLS | | 2SLS | |
Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Closure affected	-0.062***	-0.020***	-0.174***	-0.115***	-0.057***	-0.025***	-0.100***	-0.054***
	(0.005)	(0.006)	(0.020)	(0.021)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.019)	(0.020)
Lagged performance	0.800***	0.763***	0.800***	0.763***	0.816***	0.778***	0.816***	0.778***
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Female		0.023***		0.023***		0.096***		0.096***
		(0.001)		(0.001)		(0.001)		(0.001)
Hispanic		0.032***		0.031***		0.041***		0.04***
		(0.003)		(0.003)		(0.003)		(0.003)
African American		-0.130***		-0.129***		-0.105***		-0.105***
		(0.001)		(0.002)		(0.001)		(0.001)
Other, non-white		0.026***		0.026***		0.021***		0.021***
		(0.003)		(0.003)		(0.003)		(0.003)
Free- or Reduced-Lunch eligible		-0.126***		-0.125***		-0.109***		-0.109***
		(0.001)		(0.001)		(0.001)		(0.001)
English Language Learner		-0.065***		-0.066***		-0.032***		-0.032***
		(0.003)		(0.003)		(0.003)		(0.003)
N	1,038,939	1,030,269	1,038,939	1,030,269	1,038,715	1,030,053	1,038,715	1,030,053
Adjusted R-Squared	0.63	0.64	0.63	0.64	0.67	0.68	0.67	0.68

* denotes significance at the 10% level; ** denotes significance at the 5% level; *** denotes significance at the 1% level

Notes: Robust standard errors presented in parentheses. First stage regressions indicate a significant relationship between the consolidation instrument and school closure equal to roughly 0.29 across all specifications. This indicates that schools in districts subject to Act 60 are significantly more likely to be closed, as expected. First stage F-statistics range from 70.6 to 84.3, which are substantially higher than acceptable threshold recommended by Staiger and Stock (1997) of 10.