

Spillover Effects of School Infrastructure Upgrade: Evidence from Peru

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Abstract

This paper studies a school infrastructure upgrading program and its direct and indirect effects on enrollment, school exit, and student achievement. We leverage the rollout of this policy in a span of 4 years before it was suddenly closed, leaving some selected schools without the program. We built on the school choice literature and create relevant markets to estimate our indirect effects. We find schools that benefit from the program see a reduction in dropout rates (0.57 p.p.). When looking at schools nearby, we find a positive effect on schools closing and negative effects on enrollment, mainly driven by private ones. Interestingly, we find that reading test scores nearby also decrease both in public and private suggesting that students who are leaving these schools might have been those with higher human capital.

Keywords: School Upgrading, Program Evaluation, Spillover Effects

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1 Introduction

Providing a supportive learning environment and facilitating effective teaching practices heavily rely on school infrastructure functionality. However, many schools in developing countries face major challenges due to a lack of facilities and resources. Therefore, several countries have launched school construction infrastructure upgrading (CITE XXXXXX). Even when there is mixed evidence about the effects of such policies (CITEXXXXXXXXXX), much less is known about the market effects that large investments can have on other schools, especially when there are higher levels of competition between low-cost private and public schools.

In this paper, we study the spillover effects of a school upgrading program in Peru. Interestingly, this program aimed not only to improve the infrastructure of these schools but also was part of a campaign to improve public schools' reputation, which at that time, had been losing enrollment due to quality concerns. This analysis is particularly relevant, given that private enrollment in Peru reaches up to 50 percent in large urban areas. We interpret this public infrastructure investment policy as a signal of increasing academic quality that can potentially increase public schools' attractiveness. In this sense, we examine how this policy can alter the private education sector's incentives regarding educational inputs.

In 2009, the Peruvian government created the Program for the Recovery of Emblematic and Centennial Public Educational Institutions¹ or Emblematic Schools Program, hereafter. This program aimed at refurbishing and upgrading the school infrastructure of several emblematic schools across the country. These schools were not selected in terms of school needs but rather because they are the oldest and used to have a higher reputation in the past. It is only after 2014, when the Ministry of Education, after closing the Emblematic Schools Program, when they decided to prioritize schools that actually required renovation or reconstruction.² The unexpected change of authorities and, therefore, the end of the Emblematic Schools Program provided us with a list of schools that were selected but did not get the program. These placebo schools form the basis of a difference-in-difference strategy. To causally estimate the effects of the Program, we leverage the staggered nature of the school upgrading and use the placebo schools as a never-treated control group.

¹Programa Nacional de Recuperación de las Instituciones Públicas Educativas, Emblemáticas y Centenarias

²According to the Infrastructure Census of 2014, approximately, 70% of public schools nationwide needed infrastructure improvements, and 67% lacked essential services such as water, sewage, or electricity.

Our results suggest that XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
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The paper speaks to four strands of the literature. First, we contribute to the extensive research investigating the relationship between educational spaces and student outcomes. This literature mainly uses as a source of exogeneity school construction or upgrading programs, or reforms increasing school funding to build and upgrade.³ Studies on school construction programs have found positive effects on student achievement (Lafortune and Schönholzer, 2022; Kazianga et al., 2013, 2019; Burde and Linden, 2013), enrollment (Dinerstein et al., 2020; Kazianga et al., 2013; Burde and Linden, 2013), attendance (Kazianga et al., 2013), education attainment and future income (Duflo, 2001). With respect to upgrading school programs, there are positive effects on enrollment and decreasing dropout Adukia (2017). However, the effects on school achievement are mixed (Neilson and Zimmerman, 2014; Martorell et al., 2016; Cellini et al., 2010; Hong and Zimmer, 2016; Andrabi et al., 2023).⁴ Currently, the main study evaluating improvements in school infrastructure in developing countries (Andrabi et al., 2023) does not disentangle if the gains in school achievement come from the infrastructure itself or other components of the intervention package. Our research adds to this literature by constituting the first study to analyze the direct effects of school infrastructure upgrading on student achievement in the context of a developing country.

A second strand of literature examines the market effects and spillovers of school improvements. The vast majority of studies analyze the spillover effects on housing prices or school zone composition (Cellini et al., 2010; Neilson and Zimmerman, 2014; Bayer et al., 2007; Black, 1999). Dinerstein and Smith (2021) examined an education reform that provided additional funding to public schools and found that this led to the exit of private schools (mainly low-quality ones) and an increase in dropout rates. Neilson and Zimmerman (2014) found no effects on competing schools context, and Andrabi et al. (2023) found a significant improvement in the standardized test scores of competing public and private schools,

³Building new schools and upgrading existing schools can lead to different outcomes: while creating new schools increases the number of available seats, upgrading allow students to enjoy more modern facilities, in the exact location and usually with the same teachers and staff (Lafortune and Schönholzer, 2022).

⁴School upgrading and equipping can lead to better academic performance through different channels (Cellini et al., 2010; Neilson and Zimmerman, 2014). On the student's side, it can reduce distractions, missed school days, and increase academic enthusiasm. On the teachers' side, it can affect teaching strategies, and improve morale, which in turn reduces absenteeism and turnover. Finally, it could also affect parents' involvement in their children's academic pursuits at home.

particularly those located closer to the treated schools. [Dinerstein et al. \(2020\)](#) studied a large construction program for public schools in the Dominican Republic, and found that it affected the private educational sector by generating a negative effect on enrollment, and an increase in school exit and dropout.

A third strand of literature examines the competition mechanism in generating market spillovers. From the school choice approach, the literature focuses on the effects generated in the educational market after the opening of charter schools on enrollment ([Slungaard, 2022](#)), attendance ([Slungaard, 2022](#)), suspensions ([Slungaard, 2022](#); [Rossetto and Aniceto, 2020](#)), school performance ([Slungaard, 2022](#); [Ansari, 2021](#); [Gilraine et al., 2021](#); [Rossetto and Aniceto, 2020](#)) and teacher salaries ([Jackson, 2012](#)). We contribute to this literature by showing that public school upgrading can change the educational market structure, even when there is no introduction of new competing schools.

Finally, this paper also speaks to the nascent literature that explores parental preferences for schools ([Beuermann et al., 2022](#); [Abdulkadiroğlu et al., 2020](#)). We complement this literature by showing that improvements in school infrastructure can lead to changes in preferences for schools, as measured by revealed preferences. Parents may value school facilities more for the recreational opportunities or enhanced safety they provide, or simply because they are aesthetically more appealing ([Cellini et al., 2010](#)).

We study the direct and indirect effects of school infrastructure upgrading on enrollment, school exit and students achievement. Similarly to [Dinerstein et al. \(2020\)](#), we are able to evaluate the private school responses on the intensive and extensive margin. While [Dinerstein et al. \(2020\)](#) can only evaluate the effect on students' achievement at the market level, we can estimate these effects for the treated schools, and the private and public schools, separately.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: in section 2, I present the education setting in Peru and the upgrade infrastructure program. In section 3, I present the data. Sections 4 and 5 include the empirical strategy and descriptive statistics. Sections 6 and 7 present the main results of the paper and conclusion.

2 Background

2.1 The Peruvian Education Market

The Peruvian education system consists of two compulsory levels of basic education: elementary and secondary education. Elementary education is six years in length (grades 1 to 6), and ii) secondary education is five years in length (grades 7 to 11). This education system enrolls approximately 5.5 million students in these two levels, on average, every year (2015-2019). The elementary and secondary net enrollment ratio has remained above 97% and 80% in the last decade, respectively.⁵

Our study focuses on the urban education markets located in main cities. Urban areas contain 69.2% of the 30,907 existing private and public schools, which in turn account for 76.9% of the total enrollment. The capital, Metropolitan Lima, concentrates approximately 33.3% of this enrollment. Private schools are a key actor in the education market, specially in the urban areas.⁶ They represent more than 25% of all the urban schools (Figure 1).⁷ Private schools are for-profit organizations, and they tend to be smaller than the public schools. On average, their number of students enrolled per grade accounts for only 6.9% of the total enrollment in a public school. Private schools are not subsidized via vouchers and their tuition fees translate one-to-one to out-of-pocket expenses for parents.

The administration of the public and private education systems differs. While the public education system relies on MINEDU as administrator, the private education sector is unregulated and lacks oversight mechanisms (Balarin and Escudero, 2019). MINEDU retains primary responsibility for funding, determining school calendars, setting the national curriculum, and designing and distributing textbooks in public schools. More importantly, since 2013 MINEDU monitors teacher training, establishes salary schedules for teachers, and implement a centralized application system for teacher assignment and tenure-track teacher contracts (with higher salaries based on tenure and performance).⁸ In contrast, private school can take independent decision on how to operate and organize the school.

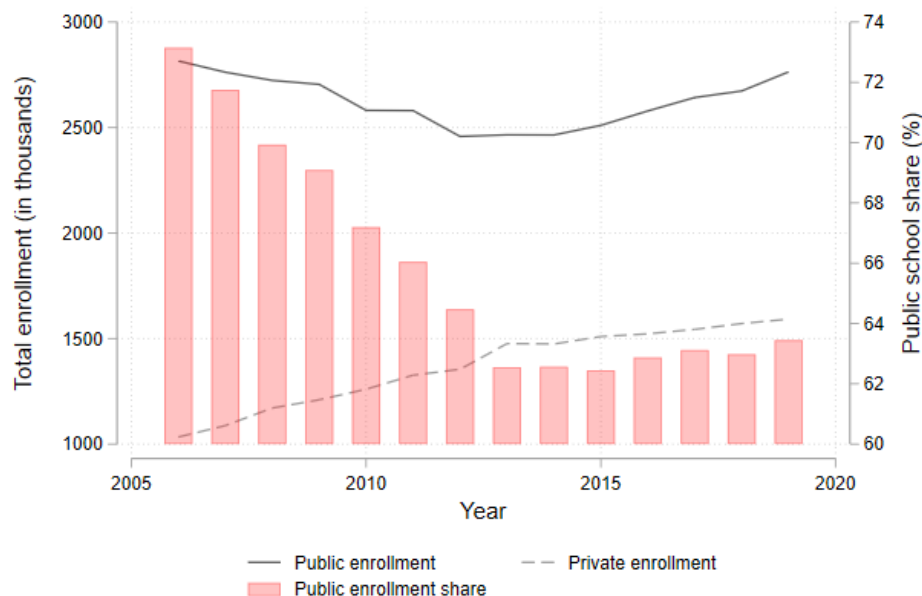
⁵World Bank Open Data.

⁶The percentage of the total number of private schools nationwide that are located in urban areas is 91.6%.

⁷Several qualitative studies have analyzed the factors driving rise of private enrollment in the country (Balarin, 2015; Cuenca, 2013; Cuenca et al., 2019; Roman and Ramirez, 2018; Sanz, 2014). These studies find that the main factor is the perception that private schools offer better quality education than public schools. Additionally, families perceive that private education enhances social status and provides better opportunities for higher education.

⁸For more detail, see *Law for the Teachers' Payment Reform* (Law N° 29944 and its regulations).

Figure 1: Evolution of enrollment and public enrollment share



Moreover, teachers in private schools do not need to meet any certification requirement and are only subject to labor laws for private employers.⁹ As a result, private schools are highly heterogeneous, with low-cost and low-quality schools to high-performance and high-cost schools. Low-cost schools account for approximately 63% of the private enrollment. Additionally, this lack of regulation allowed for the proliferation of informal and illegal schools.

2.2 The School Upgrading Program

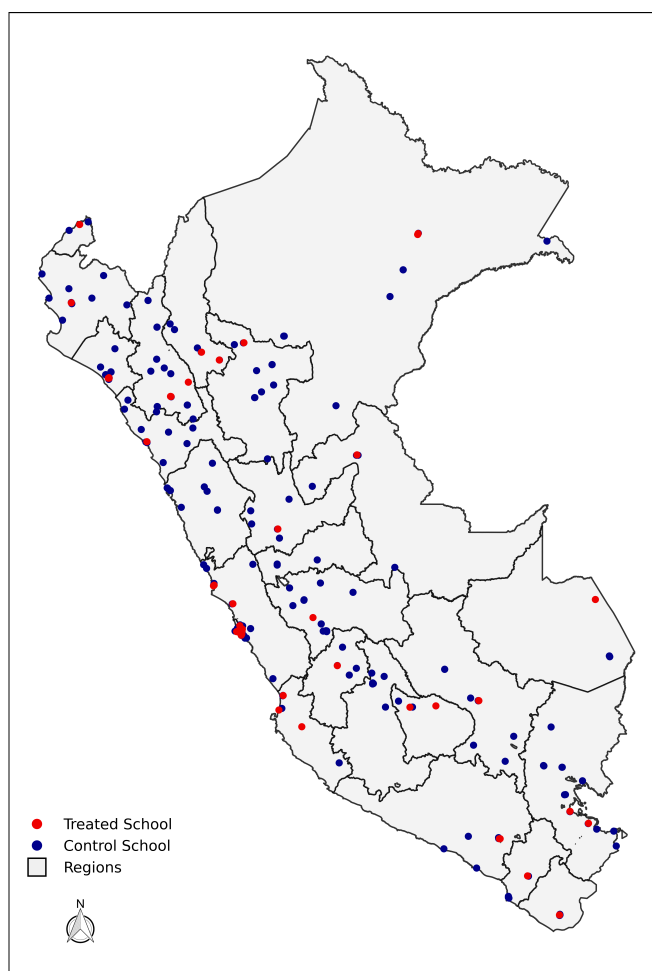
The Emblematic Schools Program was established in 2009 to refurbish, renovate, and equip priority existing schools at the primary and secondary levels (Saavedra and Gutierrez, 2020).¹⁰ This program did not to increase the capacity of the school, but replaced and refurbished the existing classrooms, and renovated or built new auxiliary areas (e.g., sports

⁹The origin of this lack of regulation of the private sector lies in the 1996 reform that liberalized the education market (*Legislative Decree N° 882 - Law for the Promotion of Private Investments in Education*). In 1989, 88.7% of schools were public, and the existing deficit of classrooms amounted to 40,000 (Mujica et al., 1992). Through the Law N° 882, the government aimed to promote the private investment in the education sector with the aim to modernize the educational system and expand the enrollment coverage. For this purpose, the government lowered the market entry barriers by providing tax incentives for private schools (credit for 30% of the reinvested utilities) and tax exemptions for importing and sales (Allende, 2019).

¹⁰See *Urgent Decree N° 004-2009 - Creation of the National Program for the Recovery of Emblematic and Centenary Public Schools*

fields, laboratories, teacher areas, etc.).¹¹ The program prioritized schools that had an outstanding historical trajectory, served many students, and were in middle income areas (MINEDU, 2013). In the beginning, the Program consisted of 20 schools in Metropolitan Lima, but by the middle of 2011, it had expanded to include 238 schools. These schools are nationwide, with 74.8% of them located in main cities and 20.6% in Metropolitan Lima (Figure 2). There are 71.5% of participating schools that offer both primary and secondary education, 24.3% offer only secondary education, and 4.2% offer only primary education.

Figure 2: Spatial distribution of the 238 Emblematic Schools



Note: The map shows the spatial distribution of the 238 educational institutions incorporated into the Emblematic Schools Program, classified according to whether they are treated or control schools as of 2014.

¹¹ Officials from the MINEDU indicate that, before 2015, every emblematic school would receive a standardized package of auxiliary areas, which was determined by the central government. Since 2015, the package of auxiliary areas would vary by school, in response to particular needs and population's demand.

The Emblematic Schools Program closed in January 2013,¹² due to the finding of irregularities and corruption.¹³ From 2013 to 2014, the infrastructure office of MINEDU (OINFE) took over the ongoing and new upgrading projects. During the OINFE administration, only 3 new Emblematic schools were implemented. In late 2014, the National Education Infrastructure Program (PRONIED) was created¹⁴ and took over the remaining projects since 2015. PRONIED share the objective from the Emblematic Schools Program;¹⁵ however, it does not limit its actions to the 238 Emblematic Schools. Instead, it prioritizes poor schools with high infrastructure deficits. In addition, the selection of treated schools is coordinated with local governments and can respond to local population's demand. These changes caused that several schools originally planned to be upgraded were not treated.

This study focuses on the period between 2009 and 2014, when only the Emblematic Schools were being treated and no other educational policies were in place. By 2014, only 93 schools had completed their first infrastructure investment project. Among these schools, 74.6% had both primary and secondary education, 24.9% had only secondary education, and 0.6% had only primary education. An annual average of 15 Emblematic schools were treated (Figure 3). The Emblematic Schools Program implemented multiple infrastructure upgrade projects, the most common being the construction or renovation of restrooms, classrooms, sports facilities, outdoor areas, and administrative spaces. On average, each school had 9 infrastructure upgrade projects and received a total investment of 1.5 million USD.¹⁶ The first project was completed in approximately 1.2 years, on average.

¹²See [Supreme Decree No. 018-2012-ED](#)

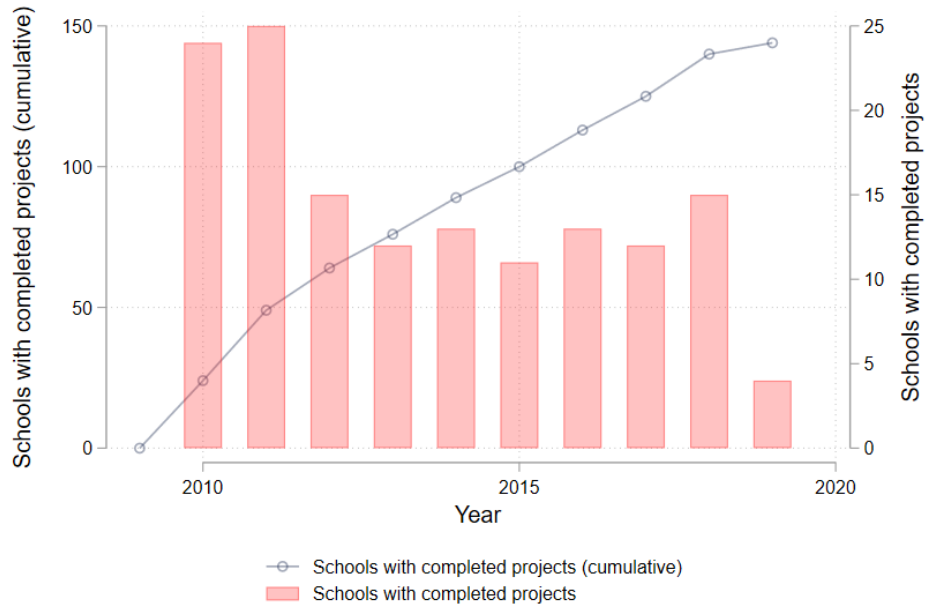
¹³In September 2011, the recently elected administration opened an investigation. Their findings indicate that, by 2011, only 21.8% of the physical investment had been realized with the full use of financial resources. Additionally, there was evidence of collusion between private companies and central government officials. More details can be found [here](#).

¹⁴[Supreme Decree N.º 001-2014-MINEDU](#) - Ministry of Education

¹⁵In addition to refurbishing, renovating, and equipping schools, this program also includes school maintenance activities. This Program also develops activities in higher education institutions.

¹⁶AQUI PONER EN PERSPECTIVA ESTE MONTO CONTANDO CUANTO SE INVIERTE EN LA RENOVACION DE COLEGIOS NO EMBLEMATICOS POR PRONIED

Figure 3: Number of emblematic schools with completed project



3 Data

3.1 Program Administrative Records

We use administrative data from the Emblematic Schools Program to obtain the final list of selected schools (238 schools). Additionally, we have information regarding the progress of each infrastructure investment project, their starting and ending dates, and the number of students benefiting from this program. This allows us to determine the precise moment when the schools are treated. We also have information on the exact characteristics of the renovations, refurbishing, and equipping from the projects' technical documentation.

3.2 Educational data

This study relies on 2 primary educational data sources: the School Census (CE), and the Student Census Evaluation (ECE).

- The **School Census** (2006 - 2014) contains school-level data on enrollment by gender, age, and grade; the number of teachers by gender, grade, level of education attained, and type of contract; students' academic results (i.e. approved, dropped out, and transferred). It also includes self-reported data on school facilities, infrastructure and

furniture. Our main outcomes are school enrollment and students' achievement. The information on teacher composition and school infrastructure allow us to analyze how schools adjust their educational inputs when they are directly or indirectly exposed to infrastructure upgrading. More importantly, the Census contains information on the addresses of public and private schools nationwide. We geocoded each institution since this information is crucial for defining the relevant market for each Emblematic School.

- The **Student Census Evaluation** (2007 – 2014) provides individual-level results on standardized test scores in mathematics and language for 2nd graders. All private and public schools with more than five 2nd-grade students should take this test. These results do not condition or relate to grades obtained in school.

4 Methodology

In this paper, we focus on the early stages of the program between 2009 and 2014, before it was closed down. This includes 238 schools listed in Emblematic Schools Program. We implement a difference-in-difference strategy with staggered treatment, given the gradual way these investments were implemented over time due to budget restrictions. Furthermore, the closing of the program due to major corruption issues in the central governments allowed us to have a group of schools that should have been treated but were not.

An advantage of this strategy is that it does not require random assignment to the treatment group. However, a threat to our empirical strategy is whether the opening of the renovated schools is correlated with other shocks to the dependent variables we are analyzing. From discussions with Ministry of Education officials, we are aware that any additional programs for those schools did not accompany the implementation of the Program.

First, to evaluate the direct effects of the Program on the treated schools, we will estimate the difference-in-difference model at the school level as follows:

$$y_{st} = \delta_s + \gamma_t + \beta 1[PCE_s \times Post_t] + \varepsilon_{st} \quad (1)$$

Where y_{st} is the variable of interest at school level s in period t . Our variables of interest are school exit, enrollment, student's achievement measured (measured by standardized tests and schools' academic results), and the school's educational inputs: teaching staff and school's infrastructure. β is the coefficient of interest (ATT). $1[PCE_s \times Post_t]$ is the indicator function that takes the value of 1 when the Program is active in school s . δ_s y γ_t are the school and year fixed effects, respectively. ε_{st} is the error term. We will employ the event study technique to visualize the dynamic results and show the treatment effects before treatment to validate the assumption of parallel trends. For this estimation, we will rely on the [Borusyak et al. \(2021\)](#) estimator, which is robust to heterogeneous and dynamic treatment effects for the staggered treatment.

To evaluate the indirect effects of the Program, we expand our sample to include nearby schools located in the neighborhood of the participating emblematic schools. First, we define the relevant markets of the 238 eligible schools for the Program. A relevant market is defined as a market that includes all schools among which there is close competition or which, from the consumer's perspective, are close substitutes. Following previous literature, we determine the relevant market using a distance criterion ([Dinerstein et al., 2020](#); [Allende, 2019](#); [Ansari, 2021](#); [Slungaard, 2022](#)). The relevant market of the program-eligible schools will be those located in a 2km buffer,¹⁷ but other distances will be explored as a robustness check. This definition assumes that competing schools are located geographically close together and that students typically choose schools close to them.

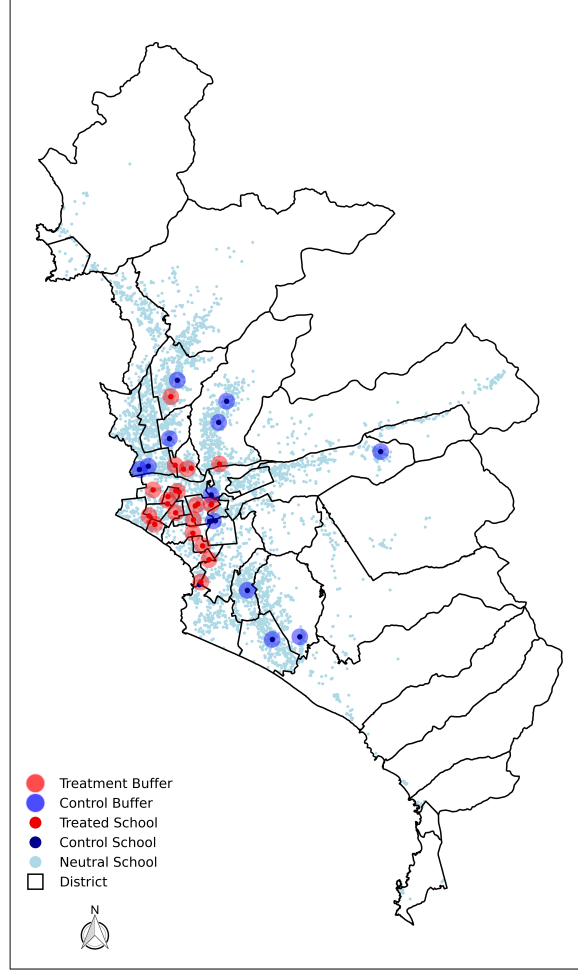
Figure 4 shows a graphical example of how the relevant markets are built for Lima, considering a 2km distance. Our final sample includes X relevant markets, each of them containing an average of X competing schools.¹⁸ The treatment assignment is at market level. Those schools that are located around the upgraded emblematic schools are the treated competing schools within their respective relevant market; while those schools that are nearby the control emblematic schools are part of the control competing schools.

For the analysis of the spillover effects, the econometric specification is as follows:

¹⁷Using the Encuesta Nacional de Programas Presupuestales (ENAPRES), which contains questions related to the time (in minutes) it takes a student to get from home to school, we estimate that a student travels on average 0.82 kilometers on foot, 2.23 kilometers by bicycle, 3.83 kilometers by motorcycle, 4.56 kilometers by car, and 4.28 kilometers by bus. For the calculation of these measures, we based speed assumptions on kilometers per hour taken from [Velásquez \(2023\)](#). [Accinelli \(2018\)](#) determines that in low-income areas of Lima the primary education market is highly competitive, and the school market size is 1km. [Allende \(2019\)](#) indicates that the average distance between the family's location and the chosen school is 3km in Peru.

¹⁸Since we explore the competition channel between schools, we restrict the sample to relevant markets composed of at least five competing schools. Only X relevant markets are left out of the analysis.

Figure 4: Relevant markets in Metropolitan Lima (2km)



$$y_{jmt} = \eta_j + \tau_t + \theta 1[PCE_{jm} \times Post_t] + \mu_{jmt} \quad (2)$$

This specification is similar to (1), with the difference that $1[PCE_{jm} \times Post_t]$ is the indicator function that takes the value of 1 when the emblematic school in the relevant market m is treated. In other words, the indicator function takes the value of 1 when the competing school j in the relevant market m is indirectly exposed to the Emblematic School Program (i.e. a emblematic school is treated). θ is the coefficient of interest.

5 Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 shows the summary statistics for the three analyzed samples for the period before the school upgrading program started (2006 - 2009): i) the emblematic schools, ii) the competing private schools, and iii) the competing public schools. Panel A shows the percentage of schools that exit the market and the average yearly enrollment. As we can see, the competing private schools are more likely to leave the market and are smaller in enrollment. While the average enrollment in these private schools is 81 students, the enrollment in the emblematic and competing public schools is 1,065 and 270, respectively.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics

	Emblematic schools			Competing private schools			Competing public schools		
	(1)			(2)			(3)		
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD
Panel A. School exit									
School exit	1504	0.01	0.09	58390	0.23	0.42	54466	0.03	0.18
Total enrollment	1504	1064.80	675.78	58390	80.84	123.87	54466	269.91	292.38
Panel B. Student's academic outcomes									
Approved (%)	1482	87.76	8.20	42831	95.54	8.24	51846	85.80	9.91
Dropout (%)	1482	3.92	3.23	42831	2.39	5.29	51846	6.55	6.51
Panel C. Standardized tests									
Math z-score	407	0.26	0.83	16559	0.24	0.87	20932	-0.20	1.06
Reading z-score	408	0.23	0.77	16543	0.50	0.80	20939	-0.40	0.97
Panel D. Teacher variables									
Number of teachers	1463	18.19	25.45	37977	7.76	8.57	50349	8.97	11.97
Number of students per teacher	1463	270.10	393.44	37977	33.45	64.46	50349	89.96	154.23
Female (%)	1463	51.58	30.83	37977	53.07	33.72	50349	50.36	33.15
Teachers with higher education (%)	1016	99.53	4.78	29867	99.66	3.90	33582	99.42	5.66
Teachers with tenure (%)	1268	70.80	36.00	32754	31.45	41.54	41868	67.20	40.08
Teachers with management positions (%)	1463	23.64	33.69	37977	22.75	34.00	50349	30.15	35.59
Panel E. Infrastructure variables									
Access to basic services	1476	0.93	0.25	42366	0.89	0.31	51912	0.54	0.50
Number of classrooms	1473	33.60	15.26	42237	11.57	7.90	51820	11.85	8.45
Classrooms in good condition (%)	1473	50.90	36.98	42217	94.90	17.36	51812	49.29	38.78
Has teacher rooms	1477	0.65	0.48	42442	0.57	0.49	51943	0.26	0.44
Has library	1477	0.89	0.32	42401	0.55	0.50	51900	0.52	0.50
Has laboratory	1480	0.69	0.46	42570	0.24	0.43	51964	0.22	0.42
Has auditorium	340	0.47	0.50	10012	0.20	0.40	12267	0.14	0.35
Has administrative building	1475	0.89	0.31	42333	0.87	0.34	51902	0.60	0.49

Note: The table shows descriptive statistics for enrollment, school exit, academic results, teacher variables and educational infrastructure for public schools, private schools and the emblematic schools. The period of analysis is between 2006-2009. Test scores correspond to 2nd graders and are standardized into z-scores based on yearly averages and standard deviations. The Access to basic services variable is a dummy that takes the value of 1 when the school has access to piped water, electricity and sanitation services.

On Panel B, we observe the student's academic outcomes. Private schools have higher approval rates (96%) than the public sector. The dropout rate is 7% in the traditional public schools, and lower in the emblematic and private schools (4 and 2%, respectively). Panel C shows the z-scores in the standardized tests in math and reading for 2nd graders. The emblematic and private schools have similar average math scores (approximately 0.25 sd), while the traditional public schools have an average of -0.20 sd. In terms of reading scores, the private schools show the highest scores (0.5 sd), followed by the emblematic schools (0.26 sd) and the traditional public schools (-0.2 sd).

Panel D shows the teacher's characteristics. The number of teachers at emblematic schools is double the number of teachers in the private and traditional public schools. The percentage of female teachers is close to 50% in all samples. Almost all teachers have higher education studies. The percentage of teachers with long-term contracts or tenure is higher in public schools. Finally, teachers in the traditional public schools are more likely to assume additional managerial roles at schools. Panel E shows the infrastructure variables. The emblematic schools have the highest access to the basic services of water, electricity, and sanitation (92%), followed by the private schools (84%) and the traditional public schools (53%). The emblematic schools have three times more classrooms than the private and traditional schools. However, private school classrooms have better conditions.

The balance tables are in the Appendix (Tables [A.1](#), [A.2](#) and [A.3](#)). These tables show the balance test for the treated and control schools during the period before the Program (2006 - 2009). Table [A.1](#) shows that the treated emblematic schools are bigger in terms of enrollment and size of infrastructure but equal in all other characteristics. Table [A.2](#) shows that the private treated schools have larger enrollment, and higher student's scores in both math and reading standardized tests. There are also differences in the teaching staff and infrastructure; however, these differences are economically trivial. Finally, Table [A.3](#) also shows small but significant differences between treated and control schools in terms of infrastructure and teaching staff. While these results are reassuring, it is worth noting that our identification strategy does not require balance between treatment and control schools at baseline. Instead, it relies on the assumption of parallel trends, which we investigate graphically later.

6 Results

6.1 Direct effects on the Emblematic Schools

6.1.1 Effect on Enrollment

In Table 2 we show the estimates for the aggregate effect of school upgrading program on enrollment. There are no aggregate impacts on enrollment. This is consistent with the fact that the program did not aim to increase school capacity. Figure A.1 shows the corresponding event study plot. We see a negative trend in the pre-period and a negative effect on enrollment in the year when the upgraded school starts full operation. We do not interpret this as a violation of the parallel trends. These negative effects are consistent with the fact that the emblematic schools do not close entirely, but create temporary classrooms to maintain most of their students enrolled during the upgrading process. The finding of significant negative effects on the previous two years before the emblematic school upgrading is finalized is consistent with the 2 years that the infrastructure upgrading work takes on average. Enrollment returns to levels previous to the beginning of the upgrading work after the first year of infrastructure upgrading completion.

Table 2: Direct effects on enrollment

	Total enrollment	Total enrollment (log)
	(1)	(2)
Treat*Open	-18.727 (27.807)	0.008 (0.068)
Dep. Var. Mean	1086.535	7.426
Observations	1,665	1,665
School FE	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes
Standard errors in parentheses. Errors clustered at the relevant market level. * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.		

6.1.2 Effect on Student's Achievement

Table 3 shows the aggregate effects on school academic outcomes and the standardized tests in math and reading for second graders. There is no effect on passing rates; however, the dropout rate decreased by 0.57 percentage points. Figure A.2 shows the corresponding event study plots on the approval and dropout rate. The trends in dropout are fairly flat in

the pre-period and show a significant reduction in treated schools in years 3 and 4 after the upgrading program was put in place. The event plot for the approval rate is particularly noisy. We find no effects on the achievement on standardized tests in reading and math (Table 3).¹⁹ However, these results may be a limited measure of academic outcomes for the emblematic schools, as improvements in school facilities may have greater effects in other subjects such as science, where laboratories, for instance, can make an important contribution (Cellini et al., 2010).

Table 3: Direct Effects on Student's Achievement

	Approved (%)	Dropout (%)	Reading z-score	Math z-score
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Treat*Open	0.771 (0.586)	-0.574** (0.264)	-0.010 (0.071)	0.042 (0.109)
Dep. Var. Mean	86.758	3.346	0.349	0.449
Observations	1,647	1,647	497	496
School FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Standard errors in parentheses. Errors clustered at the relevant market level. * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.

6.2 Spillover Effects

In this section we explore the spillover effects that the school upgrading program had on the nearby competing schools located 2km around the emblematic schools. In a similar manner to the previous section, we explore the outcomes of enrollment and student achievement; however, we add the outcome of school exit.

6.2.1 Spillover Effect on School Exit and Enrollment

Table 4 shows the indirect effects on school exit and enrollment. Panel A shows the jointly effect on private and public competing schools, while Panel B and C estimate these effects separately. From Column 1, we see that having an upgraded emblematic school makes surrounding schools more likely to close. In aggregate terms, we see that the cumulative exit rate increase by 4.1 p.p. This effect is more pronounced for private schools (6 p.p.), than for public schools (1.4 p.p.). These magnitudes are similar to the effects (5 p.p.) in the

¹⁹Unfortunately, we cannot estimate the dynamic effects for the standardized test scores.

increase in the private school exit rate when a new public school opens in the Dominican Republic (Dinerstein et al., 2020). From Figure A.3, we also see that the private schools react faster than the public schools. The effect on private school exit starts immediately after the emblematic schools are treated, while the public schools basically react since year 3.

Columns 2 and 3 from Table 4 show the result on enrollment in levels and logs. We found that there is a negative and significant effect on enrollment in the traditional public schools. These schools lose 57 students once the upgraded emblematic schools started operating. Private schools are also losing students, although this effect is not statistically significant. We found no evidence of a violation of parallel trends for any of the variables for either the public or private sector (Figure A.3).

Table 4: Spillover Effects on School Exit and Enrollment

	School exit	Unconditional Enrollment	Conditional Enrollment	Unconditional Log(Enrollment)	Conditional Log(Enrollment)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
<i>Panel A. Total schools nearby</i>					
Treat*Open	0.041** (0.020)	-3.331 (2.577)	-3.260 (2.514)	-0.090 (0.058)	-0.054*** (0.020)
Dep. Var. Mean	0.122	228.532	261.578	4.799	5.461
Observations	81538	92286	80383	92286	80383
School FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
<i>Panel B. Private schools nearby</i>					
Treat*Open	0.060** (0.026)	-1.931 (1.969)	-1.769 (1.725)	-0.135* (0.078)	-0.070*** (0.026)
Dep. Var. Mean	0.167	102.048	122.768	4.082	4.885
Observations	56876	64686	53258	64686	53258
School FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
<i>Panel C. Public schools nearby</i>					
Treat*Open	0.014*** (0.004)	-26.221*** (7.162)	-25.675*** (7.069)	-0.133*** (0.033)	-0.115*** (0.025)
Dep. Var. Mean	0.020	457.970	466.775	6.359	6.479
Observations	21659	24265	23805	24265	23805
School FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Standard errors in parentheses. Errors clustered at the relevant market level. * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.

6.2.2 Spillover Effects on Student's Achievement

Table 5 shows the spillover effects on the approval and dropout rate, and the results on the standardized tests on reading and math from second graders. From Column 1, we see that the approval rate in private schools increased by 0.67 p.p., while it decreased by 0.56 p.p. in

the public schools. Since these affects have contrary effects, the aggregate effect on approval rate is null. We do not find effects on dropout (Column 2). There is a significant reduction in the scores 2nd grade students get in the reading standardized test in the private and public competing schools. This negative effect is bigger in the public schools (0.057 sd) than in the private schools (0.038 sd). There are no effects on math.

In Figures A.4 and A.5, we assess the assumption of parallel trends for the sample of private and public schools, respectively. We find no evidence of a violation of parallel trends.

Table 5: Spillover effects on Student's Achievement

	Approved (%)	Dropout (%)	Reading z-score	Math z-score
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Panel A. <i>Total schools nearby</i>				
Treat*Open	0.149 (0.219)	-0.036 (0.123)	-0.057*** (0.020)	-0.038 (0.031)
Dep. Var. Mean	92	3	0	0
Observations	78,969	78,969	37,291	37,298
School FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Panel B. <i>Private schools nearby</i>				
Treat*Open	0.673** (0.271)	-0.190 (0.139)	-0.038** (0.019)	-0.002 (0.030)
Dep. Var. Mean	94	2	1	0
Observations	52,060	52,060	23,045	23,058
School FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Panel C. <i>Public schools nearby</i>				
Treat*Open	-0.564** (0.259)	0.090 (0.156)	-0.057** (0.029)	-0.024 (0.044)
Dep. Var. Mean	87	4	0	0
Observations	23,610	23,610	13,135	13,130
School FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Standard errors in parentheses. Errors clustered at the relevant market level. * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.

7 Conclusions

In this paper, we examined the direct and spillover effects of a national school infrastructure upgrade program in Peru. Using a staggered difference in difference strategy, we found the upgrade in the emblematic public schools generated a reduction in the dropout rate by 0.57 percentage points, but no effects on student's achievement. The upgrade of these schools produced market effects. The start of operations of the upgraded emblematic school exerted competitive pressure that provoke some competing schools to leave the market. This effect is bigger for private schools (6 p.p.) than for public schools (1.4 p.p.). The public schools that remained opened the enrollment had a reduction in total enrollment. There is a negative effect on the reading standardized test for second graders.

Future drafts will incorporate heterogeneous treatment effects in the event study analysis, robustness checks, and explore that mechanisms that can explain the observed results. Specifically, we will explore how the competing schools modify their educational inputs such as teaching staff and school infrastructure.

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A Additional Figures and Tables

Table A.1: Balance table for the emblematic schools

	Control (1)			Treatment (2)			T-test (2)-(1) Diff
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	
<u>Panel A. <i>School outcomes</i></u>							
School exit	944	0.01	0.09	540	0.01	0.09	-0.000
Total enrollment	944	945.52	612.25	540	1274.45	733.22	328.928***
<u>Panel B. <i>Student academic results</i></u>							
Approved (%)	928	87.84	7.78	534	87.53	8.96	-0.307
Dropout (%)	928	4.03	3.02	534	3.76	3.59	-0.271
<u>Panel C. <i>Standardized tests</i></u>							
Math z-score	257	0.25	0.86	144	0.28	0.79	0.033
Reading z-score	257	0.15	0.82	145	0.35	0.67	0.204
<u>Panel D. <i>Teaching Staff</i></u>							
Number of teachers	911	16.81	25.64	532	19.66	23.28	2.852
Number of students per teacher	911	272.71	383.72	532	267.94	411.91	-4.773
Female (%)	911	50.90	31.06	532	52.84	30.47	1.944
Teachers with higher education (%)	618	99.45	5.88	384	99.66	2.18	0.211
Teachers with tenure (%)	776	70.22	36.76	476	71.21	35.08	0.996
Teachers with management positions (%)	911	26.72	34.61	532	18.44	31.16	-8.280**
<u>Panel E. <i>Infrastructure variables</i></u>							
Access to basic services	937	0.92	0.27	536	0.93	0.26	0.009
Number of classrooms	937	29.61	13.50	536	39.00	17.30	9.391***
Classrooms in good condition (%)	922	49.61	36.21	531	52.14	37.99	2.529
Teacher rooms	937	0.57	0.49	536	0.74	0.44	0.170***
Library	937	0.88	0.33	536	0.88	0.33	-0.000
Laboratory	937	0.66	0.47	536	0.71	0.45	0.050
Auditorium	937	0.10	0.30	536	0.12	0.33	0.024
Administrative building	937	0.86	0.34	536	0.91	0.28	0.050*
Sports fields	937	0.00	0.00	536	0.00	0.00	0.000
Perimeter fence	937	0.00	0.00	536	0.00	0.00	0.000

The table shows the averages for the control and treatment groups for the sample of emblematic schools during baseline (2006-2009). All panels except Panel E were calculated using information from the School Census. Panel E used information from the Student Census Evaluation. The last column shows the difference in mean between treatment and control group. Asterisks indicate whether the difference is significant for the following levels: * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

Table A.2: Balance table for the competing private schools (buffer 2 km)

	Control (1)			Treatment (2)			T-test (2)-(1) Diff
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	
Panel A. <i>School outcomes</i>							
School exit	14347	0.20	0.40	14425	0.21	0.40	0.002
Total enrollment	14347	82.63	119.22	14425	101.31	148.78	18.675**
Panel B. <i>Student academic results</i>							
Approved (%)	10935	95.62	8.12	11038	95.27	8.03	-0.347
Dropout (%)	10935	2.34	4.81	11038	2.41	5.34	0.072
Panel C. <i>Standardized tests</i>							
Math z-score	4181	0.21	0.86	4079	0.38	0.86	0.174***
Reading z-score	4174	0.44	0.78	4075	0.70	0.76	0.257***
Panel D. <i>Teaching Staff</i>							
Number of teachers	9635	7.37	7.63	10051	8.72	10.47	1.350***
Number of students per teacher	9635	34.72	70.44	10051	37.54	68.00	2.823
Female (%)	9635	52.24	34.07	10051	53.64	33.66	1.397
Teachers with higher education (%)	7520	99.74	2.94	7819	99.62	3.93	-0.119**
Teachers with tenure (%)	8258	30.22	41.11	8687	36.34	42.56	6.120***
Teachers with management positions (%)	9635	23.26	34.37	10051	22.32	33.88	-0.945
Panel E. <i>Infrastructure variables</i>							
Access to basic services	11422	0.90	0.30	11462	0.88	0.33	-0.021
Number of classrooms	11422	10.80	7.01	11462	12.14	9.21	1.341**
Classrooms in good condition (%)	10936	94.47	17.95	10752	96.56	13.82	2.091**
Teacher rooms	11422	0.53	0.50	11462	0.61	0.49	0.081**
Library	11422	0.53	0.50	11462	0.56	0.50	0.035
Laboratory	11422	0.22	0.41	11462	0.28	0.45	0.063**
Auditorium	11422	0.05	0.21	11462	0.05	0.22	0.004
Administrative building	11422	0.85	0.36	11462	0.83	0.37	-0.013
Sports fields	11422	0.00	0.00	11462	0.00	0.00	0.000
Perimeter fence	11422	0.00	0.00	11462	0.00	0.00	0.000

The table shows the averages for the control and treatment groups for the sample of competing private schools (in the buffer of 2km) during baseline (2006-2009). All panels except Panel E were calculated using information from the School Census. Panel E used information from the Student Census Evaluation. The last column shows the difference in mean between treatment and control group. Asterisks indicate whether the difference is significant for the following levels: * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

Table A.3: Balance table for the competing public schools (buffer 2 km)

	Control			Treatment			T-test
	(1)			(2)			(2)-(1)
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	Diff
<u>Panel A. School outcomes</u>							
School exit	6265	0.03	0.16	4499	0.02	0.13	-0.008
Total enrollment	6265	482.71	382.29	4499	491.10	374.52	8.389
<u>Panel B. Student academic results</u>							
Approved (%)	6014	87.36	8.85	4363	87.67	9.19	0.314
Dropout (%)	6014	5.43	5.16	4363	5.26	5.09	-0.166
<u>Panel C. Standardized tests</u>							
Math z-score	2728	0.01	0.92	2075	0.02	0.85	0.012
Reading z-score	2734	-0.09	0.81	2074	0.06	0.77	0.146
<u>Panel D. Teaching Staff</u>							
Number of teachers	5815	10.17	12.60	4296	12.37	15.35	2.204**
Number of students per teacher	5815	156.49	227.42	4296	135.32	209.57	-21.175
Female (%)	5815	51.03	33.21	4296	52.61	31.91	1.588
Teachers with higher education (%)	3956	99.45	5.70	3035	99.38	5.40	-0.069
Teachers with tenure (%)	4908	66.91	40.82	3780	70.72	38.16	3.817*
Teachers with management positions (%)	5815	27.87	35.26	4296	23.18	32.74	-4.688*
<u>Panel E. Infrastructure variables</u>							
Access to basic services	6098	0.84	0.37	4416	0.89	0.32	0.051*
Number of classrooms	6098	16.73	9.96	4416	17.69	11.14	0.963
Classrooms in good condition (%)	6035	54.68	37.72	4345	59.15	38.03	4.471*
Teacher rooms	6098	0.38	0.49	4416	0.41	0.49	0.034
Library	6098	0.62	0.48	4416	0.64	0.48	0.021
Laboratory	6098	0.32	0.47	4416	0.36	0.48	0.037
Auditorium	6098	0.05	0.22	4416	0.04	0.20	-0.007
Administrative building	6098	0.77	0.42	4416	0.77	0.42	0.007
Sports fields	6098	0.00	0.00	4416	0.00	0.00	0.000
Perimeter fence	6098	0.00	0.00	4416	0.00	0.00	0.000

The table shows the averages for the control and treatment groups for the sample of competing public schools (in the buffer of 2km) during baseline (2006-2009). All panels except Panel E were calculated using information from the School Census. Panel E used information from the Student Census Evaluation. The last column shows the difference in mean between treatment and control group. Asterisks indicate whether the difference is significant for the following levels: * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

Figure A.1: Direct Dynamic effects on enrollment

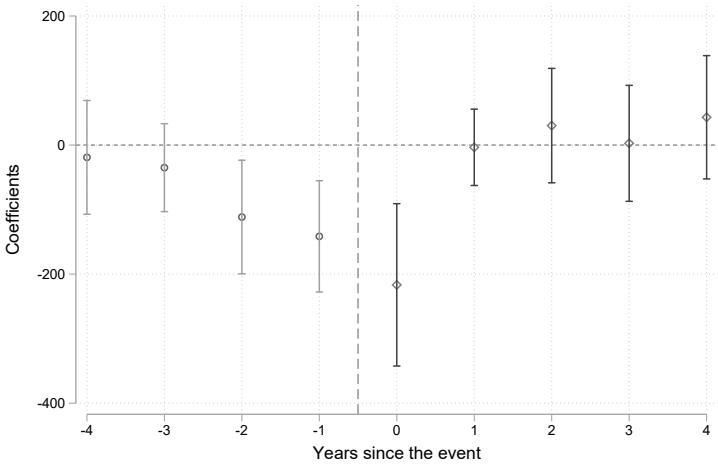
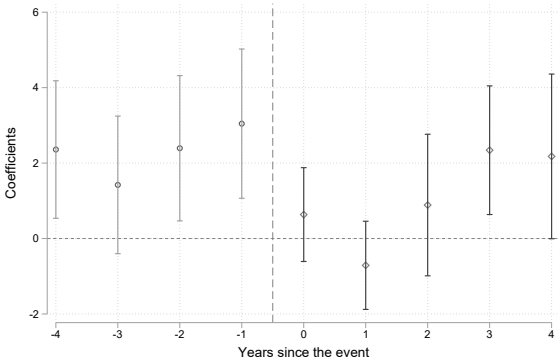


Figure A.2: Direct Dynamic Effects on Student's Achievement

((a)) Approved (%)



((b)) Dropout (%)

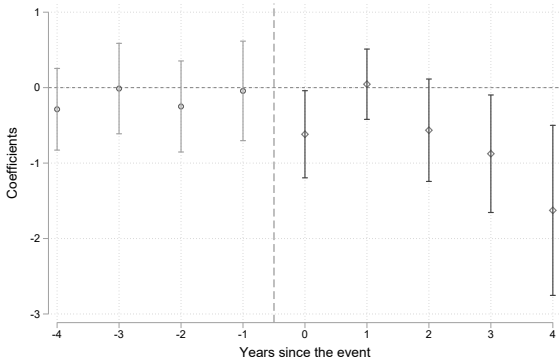
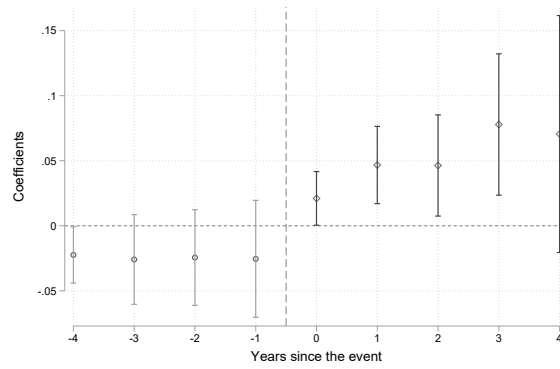
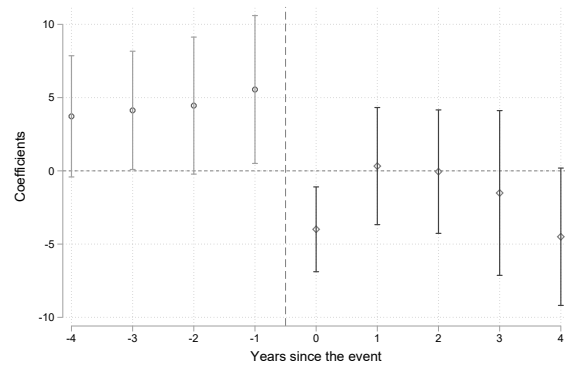


Figure A.3: Spillover Dynamic Effects School Exit and Enrollment

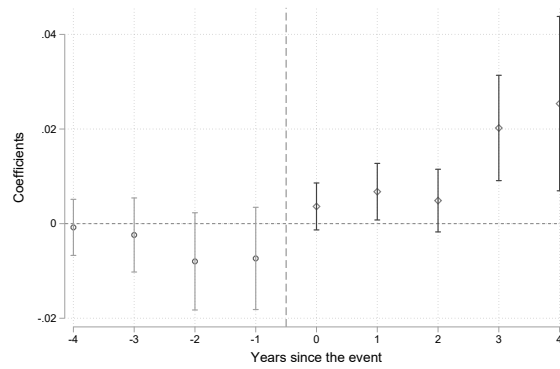
((a)) Private school exit



((b)) Private enrollment



((c)) Public school exit



((d)) Public enrollment

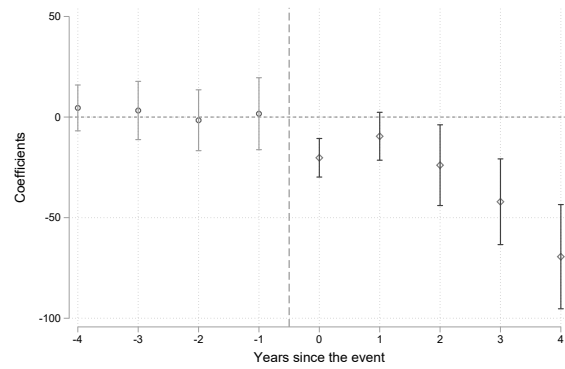


Figure A.4: Spillover Dynamic Effects on Private School's Student Outcomes

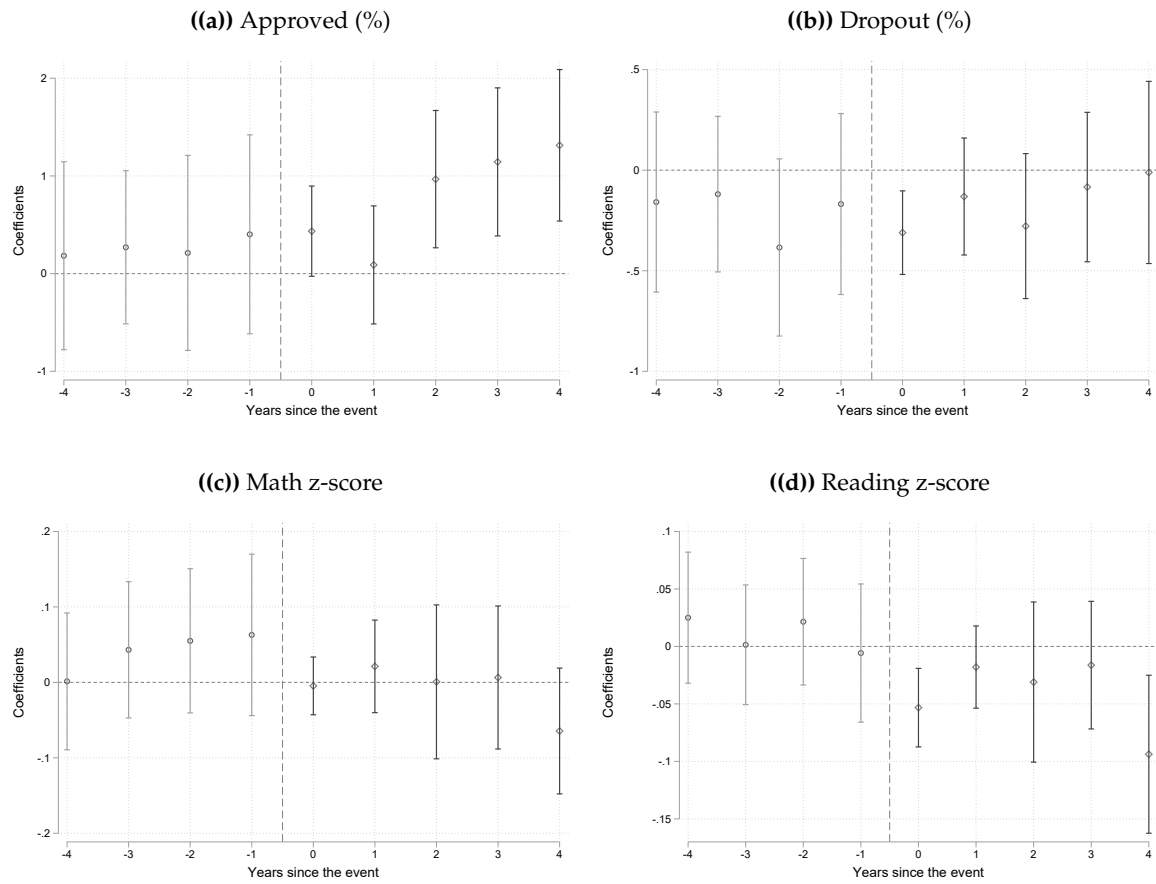


Figure A.5: Indirect Dynamic Effects on Public School's Student Outcomes

