

Magnet High Schools and Academic Performance in China: A Regression Discontinuity Design

Albert PARK, Xinzheng SHI, Chang-tai HSIEH, Xuehui AN

HKUST IEMS Working Paper No. 2015-07

February 2015

HKUST IEMS working papers are distributed for discussion and comment purposes. The views expressed in these papers are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views of HKUST IEMS.

More HKUST IEMS working papers are available at: <http://iems.ust.hk/WP>



Magnet High Schools and Academic Performance in China: A Regression Discontinuity Design

Albert PARK, Xingzheng SHI, Chang-tai HSIEH, Xuehui AN

HKUST IEMS Working Paper No. 2015-07
February 2015

Abstract

This paper investigates the impact of high school quality on students' educational attainment using a regression discontinuity research design based on entrance examination score thresholds that strictly determine admission to the best high schools. Using data from rural counties in Western China, we find that attending a magnet school significantly increases students' college entrance examination scores and the probability of being admitted to college.

Author's contact information

Albert Park
HKUST Institute for Emerging Market Studies, Division of Social Science, and Department of Economics
The Hong Kong University of Science and Technology
T : +852 2358 5981
E: albertpark@ust.hk

Xingzheng Shi
School of Economics and Management
Tsinghua University
E: shixzh@sem.tsinghua.edu.cn

Xuehui An
National Center for Education Development Research
China Ministry of Education

1
2
3 **Magnet High Schools and Academic Performance in China:**
4 **A Regression Discontinuity Design***
5
6

7
8
9 Albert Park, HKUST

10
11 Xinzheng Shi, Tsinghua University

12
13 Chang-tai Hsieh, Chicago Graduate School of Business

14
15 Xuehui An, National Center for Education Development Research,
16 China Ministry of Education
17
18

19
20 June 2014
21
22
23
24
25

26 **Abstract**

27
28
29 This paper investigates the impact of high school quality on students' educational
30 attainment using a regression discontinuity research design based on entrance
31 examination score thresholds that strictly determine admission to the best high schools.
32 Using data from rural counties in Western China, we find that attending a magnet school
33 significantly increases students' college entrance examination scores and the probability
34 of being admitted to college.
35
36

37 **Key Words:** Magnet high school; Regression discontinuity design; Academic
38 performance

39 **JEL Classifications:** I21; I28; O53
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

50
51 * Correspondence author: Xinzheng Shi, shixzh@sem.tsinghua.edu.cn. Other email addresses:
52 albertpark@ust.hk, chsieh@chicagobooth.edu, anxuehui@gmail.com. A previous version of this paper was
53 titled "Does School Quality Matter?: Evidence from a Natural Experiment in Rural China." The authors
54 thank seminar participants at Oxford, the University of Michigan, and Peking University for helpful
55 comments. They acknowledge grants to support data collection from the University of Michigan Population
56 Studies Center, NIH/Fogarty International Center, and the Economics Department of the University of
57 California at Berkeley. IRB approval was obtained. Xinzheng Shi acknowledges the financial support from
58 the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Project ID: 71103108). All remaining errors are ours.
59

1
2
3 **1. Introduction**
4

5 Ability tracking, a practice that originated in developed countries (Figlio and Page,
6 2002), is now commonly observed in developing countries, including China.¹ In China,
7 middle school graduates often are tracked into magnet or regular high schools based on
8 their academic ability as measured by high school entrance examination scores. Magnet
9 high schools teach students the same curriculum as regular schools but typically have
10 better teachers supported by greater resources, as well as more talented peers.
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18

19 Studying the effect of magnet high school attendance on educational performance is
20 important because it helps to answer a fundamental question in the economics of
21 education: to what extent does attending a better school affect educational attainment?
22 The answer to this question is of great interest to policymakers in developing countries,
23 who often must make trade-offs between improvements in educational quality and the
24 expansion of access to education when budgetary resources are scarce.
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

33 Theoretically, the effect of attending magnet schools on students is ambiguous. On
34 the one hand, grouping students on the basis of their test scores means that magnet
35 schools have more academically capable students than regular schools, which can
36 improve students' performance through peer effects. In addition to direct knowledge
37 spillovers among students, for teachers, having high-achieving students means less time
38 spent on discipline and more time spent on knowledge transmission.² On the other hand,
39 attending better schools could affect different students differently. As shown in Duflo,
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51

52 ¹ Other developing countries in which such a trend can be seen include, but are not limited to, Kenya,
53 Malawi, Colombia, Romania, and India (Duflo, Dupas, and Kremer, 2011; Lucas and Mbiti, forthcoming;
54 de Hoop, 2010; Saavedra, 2009; Pop-Eleches and Urquiola, 2013; Rubinstein and Sekhri, 2010).

55 ² A recent study by Ding and Lehrer (2007) carried out in a Chinese county produced strong evidence of
56 positive peer effects. Other studies in this arena include Hoxby (2000), Zimmerman (2003), Angrist and
57 Lang (2004), and Duflo, Dupas, and Kremer (2011). Epple and Romano (2011) provide a detailed review.
58
59

1
2
3 Dupas, and Kremer (2011), if students are far from the ability level being targeted by
4
5 instruction in magnet schools, attending a magnet school could have a negative effect on
6
7 academic performance. Students who are relatively poor performers in a better school
8
9 may have less confidence and receive less attention than better performers in lower
10
11 quality schools. Thus, the effect of magnet schools on the students is not clear and
12
13 requires empirical study.
14
15

16
17 In this paper, we quantify the impact of magnet high school attendance on students'
18
19 educational attainment by exploiting the fact that in many of China's rural counties
20
21 admission to the best high schools is strictly determined by entrance examination scores.
22
23 In China, many rural counties operate a magnet school system for high schools. Typically,
24
25 a rural county has one academically selective magnet high school as well as a number of
26
27 regular (less selective) high schools. Nearly all students resident in a given county attend
28
29 one of the county's middle schools. Graduating middle school students must take county-
30
31 wide uniform high school entrance examinations, which determine whether they are
32
33 eligible to attend the magnet high school, a regular high school, or no high school at all.
34
35 In any given county, the magnet school is usually widely viewed to have the best quality
36
37 and has the highest entrance examination score cutoff line.³
38
39
40
41
42

43 We compare students in the same county with nearly identical entrance scores who
44
45 attend different quality schools because they are just above or just below the cutoff score
46
47 for admission to the magnet school. Our main outcome measure is scores on the national
48
49 college entrance examination taken at the end of high school. Using information on the
50
51 cutoff lines for college admission, we can also examine whether attending a magnet
52
53
54

55 ³ After graduating from middle school, students take the high school entrance examination. Magnet high
56 schools admit students starting from highest score until they fill their admissions quota. The cutoff line is
57 the lowest score among the students admitted.
58

1
2
3 school affects the probability of qualifying for college admission. Using data from four
4
5 counties in Gansu Province in northwest China, we find that for students with entrance
6
7 scores near the cutoff line entering a magnet high school significantly increases students'
8
9 college entrance examination scores by 0.39 standard deviations and increases students'
10
11 probability of qualifying for college by 27.8 percentage points. However, we do not find
12
13 evidence of heterogeneous effects with respect to students' gender or age.
14
15

16
17 Our paper adds to the existing literature using regression discontinuity (RD) design
18
19 to examine the impact of attending better quality schools. Among those that examine the
20
21 impact of attending selective secondary schools on test scores, two studies of middle
22
23 income countries (Jackson (2010) on Trinidad and Tobago, and Pop-Eleches and
24
25 Urquiola (2013) on Romania) find positive effects; several studies in the US and UK find
26
27 no effects (Abdulkadiroglu, Angrist, and Phatak (2014), Dobbie and Fryer (forthcoming),
28
29 Bui, Craig and Imberman (forthcoming), and Clark (2010)); and two studies set in Sub-
30
31 Saharan Africa (Lucas and Mbiti (forthcoming) on Kenya, and Ajayi (2014) on Ghana)
32
33 also find no impact or mixed impacts.⁴ A few studies of selective colleges and selective
34
35 classes within schools also find mixed results.⁵
36
37
38
39
40

41 A possible reason for the mixed results of previous studies is that contextual factors
42
43 such as the capabilities of schools, teachers, and families of students may play a critical
44
45 role in determining the impact of selective schools on academic performance. In addition,
46
47 the RD design identifies impacts for students whose ability is near the threshold for
48
49
50
51

52 ⁴ de Hoop (2010) does find a positive impact on school participation in Malawi.

53 ⁵ Saavedra (2009) finds that attending an elite university in Columbia increases college exit examination
54 scores and Rubinstein and Sekhri (2010) find no evidence of better learning in public (more selective)
55 universities compared to private (less selective) universities in India. Duflo, Dupas, and Kremer (2011) find
56 no impacts on test scores of attending selective classes in primary schools in Kenya, and Ma and Shi (2014)
57 find positive impacts of attending magnet classes within a selective high school in China.
58

1
2
3 qualifying for selective schools, which may differ across different settings. Studies of
4
5 elite high schools in New York and Boston examine impacts on students who are quite
6
7 accomplished (only about 10% qualify for selective schools). In such settings, regular
8
9 high schools and student's families may have sufficient capacity to enable students to
10
11 realize their full potential even if the student does not attend a more selective school. In
12
13 Africa and many other developing countries, families are much poorer, parents are much
14
15 less educated, schools struggle to effectively teach students, and learning outcomes are
16
17 poor. In our context, evidence of large positive impacts on learning in a poor region of
18
19 China, akin to a developing country, contrasts sharply with the results found in African
20
21 countries and thus makes a valuable contribution to the literature. Although family
22
23 resources and parental education also are lacking in our setting, in China and other Asian
24
25 countries, families put great emphasis on education and schools perform well, sometimes
26
27 spectacularly as seen in Shanghai's topping the global PISA rankings.
28
29
30
31
32

33
34 Our paper is also related to other studies that use different strategies to estimate the
35
36 impact of different dimensions of school quality on students' performance.⁶ On China,
37
38 our results are consistent with those of Ding and Lehrer (2007), who find that attending
39
40 high schools with higher ability peers and better teachers increases college entrance
41
42 examination scores using data from one county in a rich province (Jiangsu).⁷ Two other
43
44 studies exploit natural experiments associated with admissions lotteries to examine the
45
46
47

48
49 ⁶ These strategies include comparison with matched control groups (Angrist and Lavy, 2001; Rockoff, 2004;
50 Rivkin, Hanushek and Kain, 2005), randomized trials to examine the impact of specific schooling inputs,
51 educational grants, or teacher incentive schemes (Dee, 2004; Banerjee, et.al., 2007; Glewwe, Kremer and
52 Moulin, 2009; Muralidharan and Sundararaman, 2011; Duflo, Hanna, and Ryan, 2012), and natural
53 experiments that create plausibly exogenous variation in class size (Angrist and Lavy, 1999; Hoxby, 2000)
54 or in the quality of schools attended, e.g., lotteries (Gould, Lavy and Paserman, 2004; Hoxby, Murarka, and
55 Kang, 2009).

56 ⁷ They do not employ an RD design but control for selectivity by instrumenting for elite school attendance
57 with the estimated probability of such placement as a function of entrance examination scores and other
58 factors.
59

1
2
3 impact of attending higher quality middle schools in China, finding mixed results (Zhang,
4
5 2013; Lai, Sadoulet and de Janvry, 2011).⁸ Using a randomized trial in primary schools in
6
7 China, Li, et. al. (2014) find that pairing high and low achieving students and offering
8
9 them group incentives can increase low achiever's performance.
10

11
12 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the institutional
13
14 backgrounds. Section 3 describes the data and variable definitions. Section 4 presents the
15
16 methodology for implementing the RD design and describes the empirical specification.
17
18 Section 5 describes students' assignment to different schools in the sample used for
19
20 analysis. This section also presents the results of tests of the continuity of covariates.
21
22 Section 6 presents the main empirical results. Section 7 extends the analysis in several
23
24 directions, and Section 8 concludes.
25
26
27
28
29
30

31 **2. Institutional backgrounds**

32 **2.1. Magnet high school system**

33
34
35
36 China's pre-college education system includes 6 years of primary school, 3 years of
37
38 middle school, and 3 years of high school. Nearly all schools are public schools,
39
40 especially in poor, rural regions; and public schools enjoy a much stronger quality
41
42 reputation than private schools.⁹ In China, most counties operate a magnet school system
43
44 for public high schools. Typically, a county has one academically selective magnet high
45
46 school as well as a number of regular (less selective) high schools. Middle school
47
48 graduates are obligated to take an entrance examination before they can be admitted to
49
50
51
52
53

54
55 ⁸ Zhang (2009) finds no impact of attending selective middle schools on high school entrance examination
56
57 scores, while Lai, Sadoulet and de Janvry (2011) find a positive effect on high school entrance examination
58
59 scores in a district in Beijing but mainly for lower ability students.

60
61
62
63
64
65 ⁹ We did not find any private schools in the four counties that are examined in this study.

1
2
3 public high schools. A county-wide uniform high school entrance examination is
4 administered to all middle school graduates by the county Education Bureau. To gain
5 admission to magnet high schools, students need to achieve examination scores above the
6 cutoff line set by these schools. After students take the high school entrance examination,
7 the county assigns students to the magnet high school starting from the highest score until
8 the school's admissions quota is filled. The cutoff line thus is the lowest score among the
9 students admitted. Students who fail to enter magnet high schools can be admitted by
10 regular high schools depending on whether their scores are higher than the cutoff lines set
11 by the regular high schools.¹⁰ If their scores are below the regular high school cutoff lines,
12 they can attend vocational high schools (which typically have no cutoff) or exit schooling.
13
14 Increasing effort during or prior to the test when expected scores are near the cutoff is not
15 possible because the cutoffs are set only after the test scores are calculated based on the
16 entire distribution of scores. Given the importance placed by all parties on high school
17 placements, county Education Bureaus generally follow strict procedures to ensure the
18 integrity of the grading of examinations and recording of examination scores, making
19 manipulation of such scores unlikely.¹¹

20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41 Although magnet and regular high schools teach the same curriculum, they differ in
42 many dimensions. To assess the extent of these differences, we analyze school-level data

43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

¹⁰ In 2004, the share of middle school graduates who went to high school in Gansu (not including vocational schools) was 47 percent, compared to 39 percent for all of China based on data from Ministry of Education (2005). In general, middle school graduates can be admitted only to high schools located within the county or district in which they reside. A few elite students may qualify for outstanding high schools in the municipal or provincial capital cities, and some students may attend high schools in other counties or districts if their parents move or have special connections.

¹¹ Required high school tuition and other fees are set by schools with the approval of county Education Bureaus, and may be more expensive for magnet high schools compared to regular high schools. Many schools provide limited scholarships for students from poor families.

1
2
3 on a variety of quality indicators.¹² Table 1 presents the results of simple regressions of
4
5 school quality indicators on a dummy variable for whether the school is a magnet school
6
7 and county-year fixed effects, as well as sample means for regular high schools. All of
8
9 the differences are statistically significant. In magnet schools, the share of teachers with
10
11 highest quality ranks, which are based on annual teaching evaluations throughout a
12
13 teacher's career, is 0.10 greater than in regular schools, which have a mean share of only
14
15 0.07 (column 1).¹³ Teacher quality ranks have been found to strongly predict differences
16
17 in student test scores (Hannum and Park, 2001). The share of teachers with four-year
18
19 college education is 0.42 greater in magnet schools than in regular schools, whose share
20
21 is only 0.34 (column 2). Class size in magnet schools is greater by about 9 students, or 17
22
23 percent (column 3). Magnet schools have 852 more students (or 111 percent) than regular
24
25 schools, are larger in area by 52 thousand square meters (208 percent), have 67,720 more
26
27 library books (1026 percent), and are 52.6 percentage points more likely to meet national
28
29 criteria for adequate school facilities (only 32 percent of regular schools meet this
30
31 standard). Thus, magnet schools are superior to regular high schools for a host of
32
33 observable quality indicators.
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42

43 **2.2. College admission**

44
45 In order to be admitted to colleges, Chinese high school graduates are required to
46
47 take the nationally standardized College Entrance Examination (CEE). The total CEE
48
49

50
51 ¹² Using annual data on schools collected from questionnaires, we measure school quality for each class by
52
53 4-year average values of school indicators that span the years that the class attended the school. For
54
55 example, for students starting high school in September 1997 and graduating in June 2000, we take mean
56
57 values for the years 1997 to 2000.

58
59 ¹³ There are three levels of quality ranks for high school teachers in China: from lowest to highest, a second
60
61 degree title, first degree title, and advanced title. These titles are awarded primarily on the basis of the
62
63 educational degrees that teachers have obtained and their number of years of teaching experience.
64
65 Additionally, there are several requirements regarding their teaching achievements.

1
2
3 score is the main criterion used for college admissions.¹⁴ A distinct feature of Chinese
4
5 college admission is that colleges are categorized into different tiers and those belonging
6
7 to a higher tier are afforded first priority in admitting students. Students submit their
8
9 college preferences (4–6 schools in each tier) and favored majors in order of priority, and
10
11 are assigned to a university and major based on these preferences and their college
12
13 entrance examination score.¹⁵ Students then accept the offer or decline, in which case
14
15 they will not attend college that year. Many universities have quotas for the number of
16
17 students admitted from each province. Given the fixed supply of university openings for
18
19 students from each province, there is a minimum cutoff score required for students in
20
21 each province to secure a position in a university.
22
23
24
25
26
27
28

29 **3. Data and variables**

30

31 The data used in this paper were collected from high schools in rural counties in
32
33 Gansu Province in western China during the summer of 2005. Gansu is one of China's
34
35 poorest provinces, with a population of 26 million and GDP per capita of \$744 in 2004
36
37 which ranked 30th among China's 31 provinces (National Bureau of Statistics, 2005).
38
39 Data was initially collected by graduate students from Northwest Normal University who
40
41 approached high schools in a set of randomly selected counties. We were able to obtain
42
43 data suitable for analysis in nine counties (and 25 county-years, all for entering classes
44
45
46
47
48

49 ¹⁴ Applicants to some special programs are screened by additional criteria: some art departments (e.g.,
50 audition), military and police schools (political screening and physical exam), and some sports programs
51 (tryout).

52 ¹⁵ Most provinces use an admission procedure similar to the Boston Mechanism. In the first round, each
53 college considers only students who list it as their first choice. Students with scores above a threshold score
54 are accepted and the rest are rejected and placed in a pool of candidates for to be considered by the college
55 next on students' lists of preferences. Only if there are remaining slots after the first round will a college
56 consider admitting students who list it as their second or third choice. Once a college offers admission to a
57 student, the selection process ends and the students are not considered by any other colleges.
58
59

1
2
3 from 1997 to 2001).¹⁶ These nine counties vary substantially in GDP per capita; on
4
5 average they are somewhat poorer than the province as a whole (mean GDP per capita in
6
7 2003 was 80% of the provincial as a whole).¹⁷ China's high schools have three grade
8
9 levels, so all students in the sample had completed high school and taken college entrance
10
11 examinations by the time of the survey.
12
13

14
15 Given our identification strategy, we focus on counties in which there is strong
16
17 evidence that the cutoff lines are actually used to determine admission to the magnet
18
19 school. Each county has discretion in how to run its admissions policy, so there is no
20
21 guarantee that cutoff lines are strictly enforced in practice in every county. To verify
22
23 whether the cutoff line is strictly enforced, for each county we regress an indicator for
24
25 entering magnet high school on an indicator for having high school entrance examination
26
27 scores higher than the cutoff after controlling for a female dummy, age, middle school
28
29 fixed effects, year fixed effects, and a polynomial function of high school entrance
30
31 examination score relative to the cutoff. The order of the polynomial function is
32
33 determined using the Akaike information criterion (AIC) as in Lee and Lemieux (2010).
34
35 According to the results, four of the nine counties strictly enforce the cutoff line for
36
37 admission to magnet schools, meaning that having a high school entrance examination
38
39 score just above the cutoff line significantly increases the probability of entering the
40
41 magnet high school.¹⁸ We therefore focus our main analysis on all data available for these
42
43 four counties, which includes data on students from 20 high schools in 13 county-years.
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52

53
54 ¹⁶ Gansu has 86 counties. Data was not available for all years in each county due to differences in the
55 quality of record keeping in different schools and counties.

56 ¹⁷ Calculated from county data on GDP and population reported in Gansu Bureau of Statistics (2004).

57 ¹⁸ Among the 9 counties with suitable data, the four counties that enforce the cutoff line are ranked 1, 2, 5,
58 and 8 in terms of GDP per capita.
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3 Given our sample selection criteria, strictly speaking our estimates capture the
4
5 impact of attending magnet schools in counties that strictly enforce entrance examination
6
7 score cutoff lines. If enforcement of the cutoff line in a given county is endogenous to the
8
9 quality difference between magnet and regular schools, our estimates are likely to be
10
11 upper bound estimates for the impact of attending magnet schools in counties that did not
12
13 strictly enforce the cutoff lines. However, analysis of the school data does not provide
14
15 any evidence that the observable quality differences between magnet and regular high
16
17 schools is different in counties that do and do not enforce the cutoff lines. We regress
18
19 different measures of school quality on a magnet school dummy and the interaction of the
20
21 magnet school dummy and a dummy indicating counties having binding cutoff line after
22
23 controlling for county-year fixed effects.¹⁹ Results are presented in Appendix Table 1.
24
25 None of the coefficients on the interaction terms are statistically significant, which
26
27 suggests that the magnet-regular school quality difference does not differ significantly
28
29 between counties having binding cutoff lines and those without binding cutoff lines.
30
31
32
33
34
35

36 We observe the high school entrance examination score for nearly 100 percent of
37
38 students in the sample but only for 62 percent of those with high school entrance
39
40 examination scores do we have data on the student's college entrance examination
41
42 score.²⁰ Missing data on college entrance examination scores can be due to multiple
43
44 reasons: the student could have dropped out or transferred to another school, or decided
45
46 not to sit for the college entrance examination; or the school could have kept incomplete
47
48
49

50
51 ¹⁹ As in Section 2.1, we measure school quality for an entering class by the 4-year average values of school
52 indicators that span the years that they attended the school. For example, for students starting high school in
53 September 1997 and graduating in June 2000, we take mean values for the years 1997 to 2000.

54 ²⁰ The sample includes all students beginning high school in each year; students transferring into the high
55 school after the first year are excluded but such transfers are relatively rare. The sample excludes students
56 who take the high school entrance examination but do not attend high school; however, because nearly all
57 students who get into any high school choose to enroll, this is unlikely to create sample selection bias
58 among students whose entrance scores are near the cutoff lines for entering magnet high schools.
59

1
2
3 records. In one school we visited, college entrance examination scores had been kept only
4
5 for those who had scored high enough to enter college. One concern that arises with
6
7 missing college examination scores is that our estimates of the impact of attending a
8
9 magnet school on college examination scores could suffer from bias caused by
10
11 differences in the selectivity of who have college entrance examination scores in magnet
12
13 schools and in regular schools. However, our estimate results show that for students
14
15 around the cutoff line whether they attend magnet schools or regular schools does not
16
17 have a statistically significant impact on their probability of having a college entrance
18
19 examination score (see Section 7.1), suggesting that such selection bias is not likely to be
20
21 a major concern.²¹ In this paper, we focus on 5373 students having college entrance
22
23 examination scores.
24
25
26
27

28
29 The survey collected school administrative data on students' gender, birth year,
30
31 year of high school entrance, high school entrance examination score, and college
32
33 entrance examination score. The survey also collected data from schools on the high
34
35 school entrance examination score cutoff line and school characteristics such as teachers'
36
37 educational attainment and the availability and quality of different types of school
38
39 facilities.
40
41
42

43 Two treatment variables are defined. The variable *magnet* is assigned to equal one
44
45 if the student actually attended a magnet school. The other treatment variable *eligible* is
46
47 assigned to equal one if the student's high school entrance score was higher than the high
48
49 school entrance examination cutoff line of the magnet school. While *magnet* more
50
51 accurately reflects whether students actually attended better schools, it is subject to
52
53
54

55 ²¹ In supplementary regressions (not reported), we also find that the relationship between high school
56
57 examination scores and having the college entrance examination score is not significantly different in
58
59 magnet and regular high schools.
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3 selection bias if eligible students did not attend the magnet schools or ineligible students
4
5 did attend the magnet school. Our preferred specification is one in which *eligible* is used
6
7 as an instrumental variable (IV) for *magnet*.
8
9

10 The high school entrance examination scores and college entrance examination
11
12 scores are the key variables used in the analysis. Scores are normalized to be equal to the
13
14 number of standard deviations from mean scores of students taking the same examination.
15
16 Specifically, define the normalized high school entrance examination score as follows:
17
18

$$19 \quad \widehat{HS}_{ijt} = \frac{HS_{ijt} - \overline{HS}_{jt}}{HSSD_{jt}}. \quad (1)$$

20
21 Here, HS_{ijt} is the high school entrance examination score for student i in county j who
22
23 entered high school in year t , \overline{HS}_{jt} is the mean high school entrance examination score for
24
25 students in county j who entered high school in year t , and $HSSD_{jt}$ is the standard
26
27 deviation of high school entrance examination scores among students in county j who
28
29 began high school in year t .
30
31
32
33
34

35 College entrance examination scores are similarly defined in equation (2):
36

$$37 \quad \widehat{CS}_{ipt} = \frac{CS_{ipt} - \overline{CS}_{pt}}{CSSD_{pt}}. \quad (2)$$

38
39 The only difference is that the subscript j is replaced with subscript p for the college
40
41 examination type, which in China can be liberal arts, natural science, physical education,
42
43 musical education, or arts education. College entrance examinations differ from high
44
45 school examinations in two respects: they are nationally standardized and they are
46
47 specialized by subject area. Thus, CS_{ipt} is the college entrance examination score for
48
49 student i entering high school in year t taking test in subject p .
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3 Another educational attainment variable is an indicator variable for whether the
4 student is qualified to attend college. We compare the student's college entrance
5 examination score with the lowest college admission cutoff lines in Gansu Province in the
6 year the student took the college entrance examination in order to determine whether the
7 student qualified for college.²² This measure is highly correlated with whether students
8 actually attended colleges.²³ However, this measure is not subject to selection biases
9 associated with the student's decision to actually attend college conditional on his or her
10 entrance examination score being above the cutoff line. Such decisions could be
11 influenced by credit constraints, family income and wealth, parental expectations, and
12 other factors that could be correlated with learning outcomes.
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25

26 Table 2 gives summary statistics for the variables used in the analysis. Thirty six
27 percent of students are female and their average age is 15. Fifty four percent of students
28 attend magnet schools and 53 percent are eligible to attend magnet schools. Among all
29 students, 30 percent take the liberal arts track. About 50 percent of students have college
30 entrance examination scores that make them eligible for college entrance.
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40

41 **4. Methodology**

42
43 We employ an RD design to quantify the impact of school quality on educational
44 attainment. First developed by Thistlethwaite and Campbell (1960), in recent years there
45 has been an explosion of interest in applying RD design to a range of empirical questions
46
47
48
49
50

51 ²² The cutoff lines from different provinces come from
52 http://www.eol.cn/include/cer.net/gaokao/zhuanti/2006_fenshuxian.shtml#2000. There are different lowest
53 cutoff lines for different types of college entrance examinations.

54 ²³ In Gansu Province, the share of students having college entrance examination scores higher than the
55 lowest cutoff lines who enroll in colleges are 94% in 2000, 94% in 2001, 92% in 2002, and 93% in 2003.
56 These numbers are calculated from college entrance examination data files (2000-2003) provided by the
57 Economic and Social Data Center in Tsinghua University.
58

1
2
3 (see Lee and Lemieux (2010) for a review), and methodological best practice has evolved
4
5 rapidly (Hahn, Todd, and van der Klaauw, 2001; Porter, 2003; Imbens and Lemieux,
6
7 2008; Lee and Lemieux, 2010).

8
9 We start with the basic regression model:

$$10 \quad Y_i = \beta + \alpha T_i + u_i, \text{ where } T_i = 1\{S_i \geq \bar{S}\} \quad (3)$$

11
12 Here, Y_i is the outcome variable, and T_i is the treatment variable, which equals one if
13
14 treated and zero otherwise. Those whose high school entrance examination score S_i falls
15
16 below some distinct cutoff point \bar{S} are placed in the control group ($T_i=0$), whereas those
17
18 on or above the cutoff are placed in the treatment group ($T_i=1$).

19
20 Under the assumption that the conditional mean function $E[u|S]$ is continuous at \bar{S} ,
21
22 the treatment effect α can be identified as follows:

$$23 \quad \alpha = \lim_{S \downarrow \bar{S}} E[Y|S] - \lim_{S \uparrow \bar{S}} E[Y|S] \quad (4)$$

24
25 Intuitively, the treatment effects are identified by the sample of individuals within a small
26
27 interval around the cutoff point. Since these individuals have essentially the same S_i
28
29 value, we can expect individuals just below the cutoff line on average to be very similar
30
31 to individuals just above the cutoff line and thus to have similar average characteristics
32
33 regardless of treatment status, thus providing credible estimates of the true treatment
34
35 effect.

36
37 One approach is to estimate α using non-parametric methods and a small range of
38
39 data around the cutoff line. Another approach is to assume that $E[u|T, S]$ can be
40
41 represented by a (low-order) polynomial function of S , and use a wider range of data
42
43 around the cutoff line (Lee and Lemieux, 2010). These two methods are equivalent if
44
45

1
2
3 kernel regression methods and a rectangular kernel are used in the non-parametric
4
5 method. Our paper follows the second method. The following equation is estimated:
6

$$7 \quad Y_i = \beta + \alpha T_i + k(S_i) + \omega_i \quad (5)$$

8
9
10 As long as $k(S_i)$ is continuous in S_i , identification is achieved because of the
11
12 discontinuity in the function $T(S_i)$. As pointed out by Lee and Lemieux (2010), the spirit
13
14 of RD design is to compare the conditional expectation of Y at the cutoff approaching
15
16 from the left with the conditional expectation of Y at the cutoff approaching from the
17
18 right, which implies that slope of the lines at the cutoff could be different. We therefore
19
20 define $k(S_i) = k_L(S_i - \bar{S}) + T_i * ((k_R(S_i - \bar{S}) - k_L(S_i - \bar{S})))$, where L indicates the left
21
22 of the cutoff while R indicates the right of the cutoff. This formulation normalizes S_i by
23
24 the cutoff line and allows the continuous function of S to have a different shape to the
25
26 right of the cutoff than to the left of the cutoff. In practice, we approximate k_R and k_L
27
28 using polynomial functions whose order is determined by the AIC.²⁴ To address the
29
30 potential concerns that the probabilities of students having the same high school entrance
31
32 examination score being admitted to magnet schools are correlated within counties and
33
34 that the high school entrance examination score is discrete, we cluster the standard errors
35
36 at the county-high school entrance examination score level (Lee and Card, 2008, and
37
38 Dobbie and Fryer, forthcoming).
39
40
41
42
43
44

45 A key specification issue in estimating (5) is selection of an appropriate bandwidth,
46
47 or range of observations around the cutoff, to be used in the regressions. On the one hand,
48
49 a wider bandwidth increases the sample size and so increases the power of the regression;
50
51 on the other hand, it allows students with scores increasingly far from the cutoff to
52
53
54

55
56 ²⁴ The detailed summary statistics for AIC are not reported due to space limitations but are available from
57 the authors upon request.
58

1
2
3 influence the impact estimates, increasing potential bias. To choose an optimal bandwidth
4
5 that balances these factors, we follow the cross-validation procedure suggested by Imbens
6
7 and Lemieux (2008).²⁵ The main idea is to predict outcome values by estimating
8
9 nonparametric local linear regressions using a “leave one out” procedure for different
10
11 possible bandwidths, and to choose the bandwidth that minimizes the mean square
12
13 residuals for each regression specification. The method is carried out separately for
14
15 observations on either side of the cutoff line.²⁶
16
17
18

19 We conduct several tests of the assumptions that underpin the RD specification.
20
21 Lee (2008) proposes a direct test of the continuity assumption by checking whether there
22
23 are discontinuities in the relationship between the treatment effect and any predetermined
24
25 covariates. That is, the following equation can be estimated:
26
27

$$X_i = \delta + \varphi T_i + k(S_i) + \varepsilon_i \quad (6)$$

28
29 If φ is not statistically significant, then the continuity assumption is valid. We test for
30
31 three predetermined covariates: gender, age, and the quality of middle school attended,
32
33 which is measured by the average high school entrance examination score of students
34
35 attending the same middle school in the same year.²⁷
36
37
38
39
40

41 In the RD design, treatment depends on the selection variable S in a deterministic
42
43 way. However, in reality, it is likely for treatment assignment to depend on S in a
44
45 stochastic manner, which is referred to in the literature as fuzzy RD design. In our main
46
47 sample, 11.7 percent of students not in magnet schools have high school entrance
48
49

50
51 ²⁵ Please see Imbens and Lemieux (2008) or Lee and Lemieux (2010) for a detailed description of the
52 cross-validation method. The method includes all of the covariates in the estimated models.

53 ²⁶ Detailed summary statistics on mean square residuals are not reported due to space limitations but are
54 available from the authors upon request.

55 ²⁷ We should note that our measure of middle school quality is not perfect since we only collected
56 information on students attending high schools; therefore, it is an upward biased estimate of the middle
57 school quality.
58

1
2
3 examination scores above the cutoff line, and 10.9 percent of students in magnet schools
4
5 have high school entrance examination scores below the cutoff.²⁸ In this case, the OLS
6
7 estimate of α in equation (5) using the variable *magnet* could be subject to selection bias.
8
9 This is where the second treatment variable *eligible* can help avoid the problems
10
11 associated with bias caused by fuzzy RD design. The variable *eligible* itself does not
12
13 suffer from fuzziness and so can be used to cleanly estimate an intent-to-treat effect.
14
15 However, the impact of eligibility is not of primary interest. Our goal is to estimate the
16
17 impact of actually attending better schools. To obtain an unbiased estimate of this effect,
18
19 we can use *eligible* as an instrument for *magnet*, since *eligible* strongly predicts *magnet*
20
21 but is not subject to selectivity bias. If we believe that the slope of the relationship
22
23 between the outcome variables and the high school entrance examination score differs to
24
25 the right and left of the cutoff because the relationship is different in magnet schools and
26
27 regular schools, then one can capture this difference by interacting *magnet* with the
28
29 polynomial terms of $(S_i - \bar{S})$ and instrumenting these interactions with the interactions of
30
31 *eligible* with the same polynomial terms. We note that, conditional on the validity of the
32
33 IV, our estimates apply only to students complying with the assignment rule, for whom
34
35 we identify a local average treatment effect (LATE).
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44

45 **5. Student assignment and continuity of covariates**

48
49 ²⁸ There are several possible reasons. One is that parents or teachers influence high school placement
50
51 decisions using personal connections. Many schools even establish explicit systems to allow parents to pay
52
53 extra fees to enable their children to attend their schools if their children's test scores are just below the
54
55 cutoff, although the extent of such practice was limited during the time period covered by the data. In such
56
57 systems, normally the amount of extra fees is a function of how far the student's entrance examination
58
59 score is from the cutoff, with very poor students being excluded altogether because of the school's concern
60
61 to maintain its quality reputation. On the contrary, some students having scores higher than the cutoff could
62
63 decide not to attend magnet high schools because they cannot afford the tuition charged by magnet high
64
65 schools or they live in remote villages such that the transportation costs are too high.

1
2
3 Students are assigned to magnet schools and regular schools according to their
4
5 high school entrance examination score. Figure 1 shows the distribution of students with
6
7 different high school entrance scores in magnet and regular schools. In order to pool data
8
9 from different county-years, we create a variable that indicates each student's score
10
11 relative to the entrance cutoff score in each county-year, which is shown on the x-axis. Y-
12
13 axis shows the share of students enrolled in the magnet school. We plot this share for
14
15 students with entrance scores falling in equidistant bins, plotted against the midpoint of
16
17 each bin.²⁹ The figure highlights the fact that there is a sharp change in the probability of
18
19 treatment close to the cutoff. However, Figure 1 also reveals that, in practice, the cutoff
20
21 line is not adhered to in all cases; if it were, then the gap at the cutoff line would be equal
22
23 to one. Because of this fuzziness in the implementation of cutoff lines, in the following
24
25 analysis, our preferred results come from the regressions using *eligible* as an instrument
26
27 for *magnet*.
28
29
30
31
32

33
34 We also conduct regressions to estimate the impact of *eligible* on *magnet*. Columns
35
36 1 and 2 in Table 3 use the sample consistent with that used in Figure 1, controlling only
37
38 for first and second order polynomial functions of students' high school entrance
39
40 examination score relative to the cutoff, respectively. Columns 3 and 4 correspond to the
41
42 different samples used to explain the two outcome variables: the college entrance
43
44 examination score and the probability of qualifying for college. Therefore, these two
45
46 columns are also the first stage regression results for the main regressions (shown in
47
48 Table 5). A female dummy, age, middle school fixed effects, county-year fixed effects,
49
50
51

52
53 ²⁹ The bin size width used is 0.3. For this figure and those reported afterwards, in order to ensure that the
54
55 bin size width does not hide significant outcome differences within bins, we verify that the bin size passes a
56
57 simple test in which bin dummies and interactions of bin dummies with the running variable ($S_i - S$) are
58
59 included and the coefficients on the interaction terms are jointly statistically insignificant (Lee and Lemieux,
60
61 2010).
62
63
64
65

1
2
3 and a first order polynomial function of students' high school entrance examination score
4
5 relative to the cutoff are controlled for in columns 3 and 4. Table 3 shows that the
6
7 coefficient of *eligible* is statistically significant at the 1% level in all columns. Depending
8
9 on the specification, the results imply that having a high school entrance examination
10
11 score just above the cutoff increases the probability of entering a magnet high school by
12
13 33.1 to 51.7 percentage points. The last row presents F-values for the null hypothesis that
14
15 the coefficients of *eligible* and the interactions of *eligible* and polynomial terms of
16
17 $(S_i - \bar{S})$ are equal to zero. The F-values are 121.14 (column 3) and 111.59 (column 4).
18
19 These results suggest that *eligible* is an extremely strong predictor of actually enrolling in
20
21 a magnet school, justifying its use as an instrument.
22
23
24
25

26
27 Next, we report results for tests that examine whether the three predetermined
28
29 covariates jump in a discontinuous fashion at the entrance examination cutoff line. In
30
31 Figure 2, the x-axis measures the difference between the high school entrance
32
33 examination scores and the cutoff line for each county-year; the y-axis measures
34
35 proportion of female students in Panel A, age in Panel B, and middle school quality
36
37 (measured by the average high school entrance examination score of students attending
38
39 the same middle school in the same year) in Panel C.³⁰ The samples used for Figure 2 are
40
41 the same as those used in the regressions in Table 4, which are determined by the cross-
42
43 validation method described earlier. It is evident that for all three variables there is no
44
45 jump at $x=0$, the point at which the high school entrance examination score is equal to the
46
47 cutoff line. This provides support for the validity of the RD design.
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55

56
57 ³⁰ We plot the mean values for students with entrance scores falling in equidistant bins, plotted against the
58
59 midpoint of each bin. The bin size widths used in panels A, B and C are 0.08, 0.08, and 0.016, respectively.
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3 Table 4 presents the regression results for the covariate continuity tests. Columns 1-
4
5 2 are for the female dummy, columns 3-4 are for age, and columns 5-6 are for middle
6
7 school quality. In the regression specifications, we control for a first order polynomial
8
9 function of the high school entrance examination score relative to the cutoff, and county-
10
11 year fixed effects. In checking a pre-determined variable, we do not add the variable itself
12
13 to the regressions while controlling for other pre-determined variables. For example,
14
15 when we check whether the proportion of female students jumps at the cutoff line
16
17 (columns 1-2), we do not add the female dummy to the regressions but control for age
18
19 and middle school fixed effects. From the table, we can see that, the coefficients of the
20
21 treatment variables are never statistically significant whether they are estimated using
22
23 OLS or IV regressions. These results confirm that the students' pre-treatment
24
25 characteristics are continuous at the cutoff line.
26
27
28
29
30
31

32 33 34 **6. Impacts of attending a magnet high school on educational attainment**

35
36 Figure 3 plots the two outcome variables as a function of the high school entrance
37
38 examination score relative to cutoff lines. In each figure, we plot the mean values of the
39
40 outcome variables for students with entrance scores falling in equidistant bins, plotted
41
42 against the midpoint of each bin.³¹ Panel A in Figure 3 plots the college entrance
43
44 examination scores. One can see that at the cutoff ($x=0$), there is a clear positive jump of
45
46 about 0.4 standard deviations. Panel B plots college eligibility, and shows a jump at the
47
48 cutoff line of about 0.2 (20 percentage points). These pictures provide visual estimates of
49
50 the size of the treatment effects using the RD design, but do not control for covariates or
51
52 a polynomial function of the running variable as is done in the regressions.
53
54
55

56
57 ³¹ The bin size width used is 0.06 in both Panel A and Panel B.
58
59

1
2
3 Table 5 presents the estimates of the effects of entering a magnet school on a
4 student's college entrance examination score and a student's probability of qualifying to
5 enter college. For all outcome variables we present results using three treatment variables:
6
7 *magnet* (columns 1 and 4), *eligible* (columns 2 and 5), and *magnet* using *eligible* as an IV
8 (columns 3 and 6). In each column, we control for a female dummy, age, middle school
9 fixed effects, county-year fixed effects, and a first order polynomial function of the high
10 school entrance examination score relative to the cutoff. We report bandwidths on left
11 and right chosen using the cross-validation procedure described by Imbens and Lemieux
12 (2008). For example, [-1.8,1.1] in column 1 means that only students having high school
13 entrance examination scores greater than 1.8 standard deviations below the cutoff and
14 less than 1.1 standard deviations above the cutoff are used in the estimation.
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28

29 Columns 1 to 3 of Table 5 show the estimated impact on the college entrance
30 examination score. The coefficient on *magnet* is 0.302 (column 1), the coefficient on
31 *eligible* is 0.153 (column 2), and the coefficient on *magnet* using *eligible* as an IV is
32 0.387 (column 3). All three coefficients are significant at the 1% level. This suggests that
33 attending a magnet school increases college entrance examination scores by 0.387
34 standard deviations.
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42

43 Columns 4 to 6 of Table 5 show the estimated impact on the probability of
44 qualifying to enter college. All of the coefficients on the treatment variables are
45 statistically significant at the 1% level. The effect of *magnet* is 0.135 (column 4), the
46 effect of *eligible* is 0.099 (column 5), and the IV estimate for *magnet* is 0.278 (column 6).
47 Thus, according to our preferred IV estimate, attending a better high school increases the
48 probability of qualifying for college entrance by 27.8 percentage points.
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3 The results presented in Table 5 are average impacts of school quality on students'
4 educational attainment. However, the impacts might be different for different groups of
5 students. To check this, we present the results of heterogeneity tests with respect to
6 gender and age, with results presented in Table 6. We continue to follow the same
7 specifications as before but add an interaction term between the female dummy and the
8 treatment variable (columns 1 and 2) and an interaction term between age and the
9 treatment variable (columns 3 and 4), respectively. In Table 6, we only present the
10 preferred IV estimates. We find that the coefficients of the interactions of *magnet* and the
11 female dummy are equal to 0.003 and 0.074 in the regressions for college entrance
12 examination scores and qualifying for college admission, respectively. Neither of them
13 are statistically significant. Columns 3 and 4 report results on heterogeneous impacts with
14 respect to age. All the coefficients on the interaction terms of *magnet* and age are
15 statistically insignificant (with magnitudes -0.059 and -0.012, respectively).
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35

36 **7. Extensions**

37 **7.1. Impact of attending magnet high schools on the probability of observing a** 38 **college entrance examination score** 39 40 41

42
43 As mentioned in Section 3, we observe 62 percent of students having college
44 entrance examination scores. There is a concern that for students having high school
45 entrance scores around the cutoff there are differences in the selectivity of who have
46 college entrance examination scores in magnet schools and in regular schools such that
47 the estimates of the impact of attending magnet schools on the college entrance
48 examination scores would be biased. In this section, we check whether attending magnet
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3 high schools has any impacts on the probability to observe a college entrance
4
5 examination score for students around the cutoff.
6

7
8 Table 7 presents estimates of the impact of entering a magnet school on whether a
9
10 college examination score is observed. In all columns, we control for the female dummy,
11
12 age, middle school fixed effects, county-year fixed effects, and a first order polynomial
13
14 function of the high school entrance examination score relative to the cutoff line.
15
16 Columns 1 and 2 use the same samples as those used for college entrance examination
17
18 score (columns 1-3 in Table 5) and eligibility for college (columns 4-6 in Table 5),
19
20 respectively. Column 3 uses the sample chosen by the method of cross-validation for the
21
22 probability to observe a college entrance examination score. We only present the results
23
24 using *eligible* as an IV for *magnet*. The coefficients of *magnet* are -0.022 (column 1), -
25
26 0.020 (column 2) and -0.039 (column 3). None of the three coefficients are statistically
27
28 significant. In supplementary regressions (not reported), we also find that the relationship
29
30 between high school examination scores and having the college entrance examination
31
32 score is not significantly different in magnet and regular high schools. These results
33
34 suggest that selection problem is not likely to be a major concern.
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42

43 **7.2. Impact of attending magnet high schools on students' course study**

44

45
46 In China, high school students can choose different courses of study, focusing on
47
48 liberal arts, natural sciences, physical education, or musical education. The vast majority
49
50 (97% in our sample) choose either liberal arts or natural sciences. If entering magnet
51
52 schools decreases the probability of students to choose liberal arts, which is generally
53
54 viewed as less competitive than natural sciences, and it is harder for students studying
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3 natural sciences to earn a higher college entrance examination score, then our estimates
4
5 of the impact of attending a magnet school on college entrance scores and college
6
7 admissions probability could be biased downward.
8
9

10 To test whether this concern is likely to be important, we estimate the impact of
11
12 entering a magnet school on the probability of choosing the liberal arts track, following
13
14 the same specification as for other outcomes. The results are presented in Table 8. The
15
16 dependent variable in this table is equal to one if the student takes the liberal arts track
17
18 and zero otherwise. As in Section 7.1, columns 1 and 2 use the same samples as those
19
20 used in estimating the determinants of college entrance examination score (columns 1-3
21
22 in Table 5) and eligibility for college (columns 4-6 in Table 5), respectively, while
23
24 column 3 uses the sample chosen by the method of cross-validation for the probability to
25
26 take the liberal arts track. We only present the results using *eligible* as an IV for *magnet*.
27
28 The coefficients on *magnet* are -0.081 (column 1), -0.087 (column 2), and -0.068 (column
29
30 3). None of the three estimates are statistically significantly different from zero. Thus,
31
32 overall there is no evidence that attending a magnet school significantly impacts students'
33
34 courses of study.
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42

43 **7.3. Robustness of main results to the sample used**

44

45 In the main analysis (Table 5), two different bandwidths (and therefore samples),
46
47 chosen by the method of cross-validation, are used for college entrance examination
48
49 scores ([-1.8,1.1]) and eligibility for college ([-1.4,1.1]), respectively. To check whether
50
51 the estimated impacts of entering magnet high schools are robust to samples used, we
52
53 firstly switch the samples used for these two outcome variables. That is, we use the
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3 bandwidth [-1.4,1.1] for college entrance examination scores while we use the bandwidth
4
5 [-1.8, 1.1] for eligibility for college. We then take the smallest endpoint of the above two
6
7 bandwidths (i.e. 1.1) and use a symmetric bandwidth (i.e. [-1.1,1.1]) for both outcome
8
9 variables. We use the same specifications as those in Table 5. The estimated results are
10
11 shown in Table 9. We only present the estimated results using *eligible* as an IV for
12
13 *magnet*.
14
15

16
17 The estimated impacts of attending magnet high schools are robust to different
18
19 samples used. The outcome variables in columns 1 and 2 in Table 9 are college entrance
20
21 examination scores. The bandwidth [-1.4,1.1] is used in column 1 while the bandwidth [-
22
23 1.1,1.1] is used in column 2. We can see that the coefficients on *magnet* are 0.365
24
25 (column 1) and 0.355 (column 2). The former one is significant at the 5 percent level and
26
27 the latter one is significant at the 10 percent level. These two coefficients are close to that
28
29 (0.387) shown in column 3 in Table 5. The outcome variables in columns 3 and 4 are
30
31 eligibility for college. The bandwidth [-1.8,1.1] is used in column 3 while the bandwidth
32
33 [-1.1,1.1] is used in column 4. We can see that the coefficients on *magnet* are 0.298
34
35 (column 3) and 0.279 (column 4). The former one is significant at the 1 percent level and
36
37 the latter one is significant at the 5 percent level. These two coefficients are also close to
38
39 that (0.278) shown in column 6 in Table 5.
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47

48 **7.4. Total effect of attending magnet high school**

49

50 As described in Section 3, 38 percent of students have missing college entrance
51
52 examination scores. One important reason is that they did not take the college entrance
53
54 examination. In this section, we assume that students with missing college entrance
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3 examination scores did not take the college entrance examination and therefore were not
4
5 eligible for college. By doing so, we construct a new college eligibility variable. This
6
7 variable is similar with that defined in the main analysis but includes students having
8
9 missing college entrance examination scores, for whom the value of this new college
10
11 eligibility variable is zero. Then, we estimate the effect of attending magnet high schools
12
13 on this newly defined college eligibility variable. Table 10 shows the estimated results.
14
15

16
17 We use the same specification in Table 10 as that used in Table 5 and only present
18
19 the estimates using *eligible* as an IV for *magnet*. The bandwidths used in columns 1 and 2
20
21 are the same as those used for college entrance examination scores (columns 1-3 in Table
22
23 5) and eligibility for college (columns 4-6 in Table 5), respectively. The bandwidth used
24
25 in column 3 is chosen by the method of cross-validation for the newly defined college
26
27 eligibility. We can see from Table 10 that the coefficients are 0.227, 0.217, and 0.217 in
28
29 columns 1-3, respectively. All of them are significant at the one percent level. Compared
30
31 with the coefficient (0.278) shown in column 6 in Table 5, the coefficients shown in
32
33 Table 10 are similar but smaller, which could be due to the fact that attending magnet
34
35 schools (insignificantly) reduces the probability to observe college entrance examination
36
37 scores (shown in Table 7).
38
39
40
41
42
43
44

45 **8. Conclusion**

46
47 Whether school quality can improve students' educational attainment is an
48
49 important and highly debated question in the economics of education. This paper uses
50
51 China's magnet school system and the RD approach to credibly estimate the effects of
52
53 higher high school quality on students' educational attainment.
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3 Using data from four counties in Gansu province in China, according to our
4
5 preferred IV estimates, we find that for students whose high school entrance scores are
6
7 near the cutoff line for being admitted to magnet schools, attending a magnet high school
8
9 significantly increases students' college entrance scores by 0.387 standard deviations and
10
11 increases the probability of qualifying for college by 27.8 percentage points.
12
13

14
15 These large positive impacts of attending magnet high schools in a poor, rural
16
17 region of China are one of the only estimates for a low-income setting, and contrast
18
19 sharply with the finding of no impacts of attending selective schools in African countries.
20
21 These differences, along with mixed findings from other RD studies in other countries,
22
23 highlight the likely importance of contextual factors in conditioning the impact of
24
25 attending selective high schools. In rural Gansu, families have limited capability to
26
27 support students in terms of both income and parental human capital, but schools general
28
29 perform well and provide strong promotion incentives for teacher effort (Karachiwalla
30
31 and Park, 2014). In this environment, attending schools with better teachers, peers, and
32
33 infrastructure appears to make a difference.
34
35
36
37

38
39 Although RD analysis can help to resolve the problem of omitted variables, caution
40
41 should be exercised in interpreting our findings. The RD analysis identifies the impact of
42
43 attending magnet schools on students whose high school entrance scores are near the
44
45 cutoff line. The impacts could be different for students at other parts of the distribution of
46
47 high school entrance scores (better students and worse students). Also, because we use
48
49 the IV approach to deal with fuzziness, our results can be interpreted as LATE, meaning
50
51 that they can be applied only to students who complied with the admissions rule.
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3 Due to data limitations, we also cannot investigate the channels through which
4
5 magnet high schools affect students' academic performance. Shedding greater light on
6
7 this question in future research will yield deeper insights into the determinants of
8
9 educational attainment and enable researchers to provide more specific policy
10
11 implications.
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3 **References**

4 Abdulkadiroglu, Atila, Joshua D. Angrist, and Parag A. Pathak (2014). "The elite illusion:
5 Achievement effects at Boston and New York exam schools," *Econometrica*, Vol. 82,
6 No.1: 137-196.

7
8
9 Ajayi, Kehinde F. (2014), "Does School Quality Improve Student Performance? New
10 Evidence from Ghana", mimeo.

11
12 Angrist, Joshua D., and Kevin Lang (2004). Does school integration generate peer effects?
13 Evidence from Boston's Metco Program, *American Economic Review*, 94(5): 1613-1634.

14
15 Angrist, Joshua D. and Victor Lavy (1999). "Using Maimonides' rule to estimate the
16 effect of class size on scholastic achievement," *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Vol.
17 114, No. 2, 533- 575.

18
19 Angrist, Joshua D. and Victor Lavy (2001). "Does teacher training affect pupil learning?
20 Evidence from matched comparisons in Jerusalem public schools," *Journal of Labor*
21 *Economics*, Vol. 19, No. 2, 343-369.

22
23 Banerjee, Abhijit V., Shawn Cole, Esther Duflo, and Leigh Linden (2007). "Remedying
24 education: Evidence from two randomized experiments in India," *The Quarterly Journal*
25 *of Economics*, Vol. 122, No, 3, 1235-1264.

26
27 Bui, Sa A., Steven G. Craig, and Scott A. Imberman. (forthcoming). "Is gifted education
28 a bright idea? Assessing the impact of Gifted and Talented programs on Students,"
29 *American Economic Journal-Economic Policy*.

30
31 Clark, Damon (2010). "Selective Schools and Academic Achievement," *The B.E. Journal*
32 *of Economic Analysis & Policy*, Vol. 10, No. 1 (Advances), Article 9.

33
34
35 Dee, Thomas S. (2004). "Teachers, race and student achievement in a randomized
36 experiment," *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, Vol. 86, No.1, 195-210.

37
38
39 de Hoop, Jacobus. (2010). "Selective Secondary Education and School Participation in
40 Sub-Saharan Africa: Evidence from Malawi," Discussion Paper 2010-041/2, Tinbergen
41 Institute.

42
43 Ding, Weili, and Steven F. Lehrer (2007). "Do Peers Affect Student Achievement in
44 China's Secondary Schools?," *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, Vol.89, No.
45 2,300-312.

46
47
48 Dobbie, Will, and Roland Fryer (forthcoming). "The Impact of Attending a School with
49 High-Achieving Peers: Evidence from the New York City Exam Schools," *American*
50 *Economic Journal: Applied Economics*.

1
2
3 Duflo, Esther, Pascaline Dupas, and Michael Kremer (2011).“Peer Effects, Teacher
4 Incentives, and the Impact of Tracking: Evidence from a randomized evaluation in
5 Kenya,” *American Economic Review*, Vol. 101, No. 5,1739-74.
6

7
8 Duflo, Esther, Rema Hanna, and Stephen P. Ryan (2012).“Incentives Work: Getting
9 Teachers to Come to School”, *American Economic Review*, Vol. 102, No. 4, 1241-1278.
10

11 Epple, Dennis, and Ricard Romano (2011). Peer effects in education: A survey of the
12 theory and evidence. *Handbook of Social Economics*, 1(11): 1053-1163.
13

14 Figlio, David, and Marianne Page (2002). School choice and the distributional effects of
15 ability tracking: Does separation increase inequality?, *Journal of Urban Economics*, 51:
16 497-514.
17
18

19 Gansu Bureau of Statistics (2004). Gansu Statistical Yearbook 2004 (Beijing: China
20 Statistical Press).
21

22
23 Glewwe, Paul, Michael Kremer, and Sylvie Moulin (2009). “Many children left behind?
24 Textbooks and test scores in Kenya,” *American Economic Journal: Applied*
25 *Economics*, Vol.1, No. 1, 112-135.
26

27
28 Gould, Eric D., Victor Lavy, and M. Daniele Paserman (2004). “Immigrating to
29 opportunity: Estimating the effect of school quality using a natural experiment on
30 Ethiopians in Israel,” *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Vol. 119, No. 2, 489-526.
31

32
33 Hahn, Jingyong, Petra Todd, and Wilbert van der Klaauw (2001). “Identification and
34 estimation of treatment effects with a regression-discontinuity design,” *Econometrica*,
35 Vol. 69, No. 1, 201-209.
36

37
38 Hannum Emily and Albert Park (2001). “Do teacher characteristics affect student
39 learning in developing countries?: Evidence from matched teacher-student data from
40 rural China”, mimeo.
41

42
43 Hoxby, Caroline M. (2000). “The effects of class size on student achievement: New
44 evidence from population variation,” *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Vol. 115, No.
45 4, 1239-1285.
46

47
48 Hoxby, Caroline M., Sonali Murarka, and Jenny Kang (2009). “How New York City’s
49 Charter Schools Affect Achievement,” Report for the New York City Charter Schools
50 Evaluation Project.
51

52
53 Imbens, Guido W., and Thomas Lemieux(2008).“Regression Discontinuity Designs: A
54 Guide to Practice,” *Journal of Econometrics*, Vol. 142, No. 2, 615–635.
55
56
57
58
59

1
2
3 Jackson, C. Kirabo (2010). “Do Students Benefit from Attending Better Schools?:
4 Evidence from Rule-based Student Assignments in Trinidad and Tobago,” *The Economic*
5 *Journal*, 120: 1399–1429.
6

7 Karachiwalla, Naureen, and Albert Park (2014). “Promotion Incentives in the Public
8 Sector: Evidence from Chinese Schools”, mimeo.
9

10 Lai, Fang, Elisabeth Sadoulet, and Alain de Janvry. (2011). “The contributions of school
11 quality and teacher qualifications to student performance: Evidence from a natural
12 experiment in Beijing middle school,” *Journal of Human Resources*, Vol. 46, No.1, 123-
13 153.
14
15

16 Lee, David S. (2008). “Randomized experiments from non-random selection in U.S.
17 House Elections,” *Journal of Econometrics*, Vol. 142, 675-697.
18
19

20 Lee, David S., and Thomas Lemieux (2010). “Regression Discontinuity Design in
21 Economics,” *Journal of Economic Literature*, 48, 281-355.
22
23

24 Lee, David S., and David Card (2008). “Regression discontinuity inference with
25 specification error,” *Journal of Econometrics*, 142: 655-674.
26

27 Li, Tao, Li Han, Linxiu Zhang, and Scott Rozelle (2014). “Encouraging classroom peer
28 interactions: Evidence from Chinese migrant schools,” *Journal of Public Economics*, 111:
29 29-45.
30
31

32 Lucas, Adrienne M, and Isaac M. Mbiti (forthcoming). “Effects of school quality on
33 student achievement: Discontinuity evidence from Kenya,” *American Economic Journal:*
34 *Applied Economics*.
35
36

37 Ma, Mingming, and Xinzheng Shi (2014). “Magnet classes and educational performance:
38 Evidence from China”, *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, Vol. 62, No. 3,
39 537-566.
40
41

42 Ministry of Education (2005). *China Education Statistics Yearbook 2005* (Beijing:
43 People’s Education Press).
44

45 Muralidharan, Karthik, and Venkatesh Sundararaman (2011). “Teacher Performance Pay:
46 Experimental Evidence from India,” *Journal of Political Economy*, Vol. 119, No. 1, 39-
47 77.
48
49

50 National Bureau of Statistics (2005). *Chinese Statistical Yearbook*.
51

52 Pop-Eleches, Christian, and Miguel Urquiola (2013). “Going to a Better School: Effects
53 and Behavioral Responses,” *American Economic Review*, Vol. 103, No. 4, 1289-1324.
54
55

56 Porter, Jack (2003). “Estimation in the regression discontinuity model,” mimeo.
57
58
59

1
2
3
4 Rivkin, Steven G., Eric A. Hanushek, and John F. Kain (2005). “Teachers, schools, and
5 academic achievement,” *Econometrica*, Vol. 73, No. 2, 417-458.
6

7
8 Rockoff, Jonah E. (2004). “The impact of individual teachers on student achievement:
9 Evidence from panel data,” *American Economic Review*, Vol. 94, No. 2, 247-252.
10

11 Rubinstein, Yona, and Sheetal Sekhri (2010). “Do public colleges in developing countries
12 provide better education than private ones? Evidence from general education sector in
13 India,” mimeo.
14

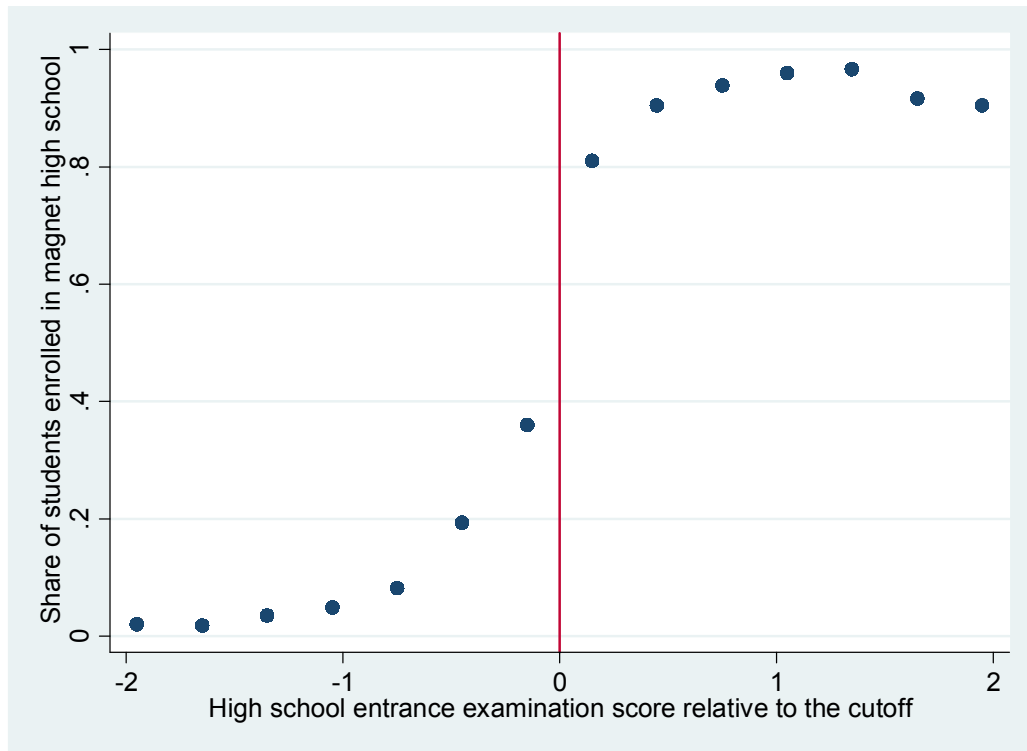
15
16 Saavedra, Juan Esteban. (2009). “The learning and early labor market effects of college
17 quality: A regression discontinuity analysis,” mimeo.
18

19
20 Thistlethwaite, Donald L. and Donald T. Campbell (1960). “Regression-discontinuity
21 analysis: an alternative to the ex post facto experiment,” *Journal of Educational
22 Psychology*, Vol. 51, No. 6, 309-317.
23

24
25 Zhang, Hongliang (2013). “The mirage of elite schools: Evidence from lottery-based
26 school admission in China,” mimeo.
27

28
29 Zimmerman, David J. (2003). Peer effects in academic outcomes: Evidence from a
30 natural experiment, *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 85(1): 9-23.
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

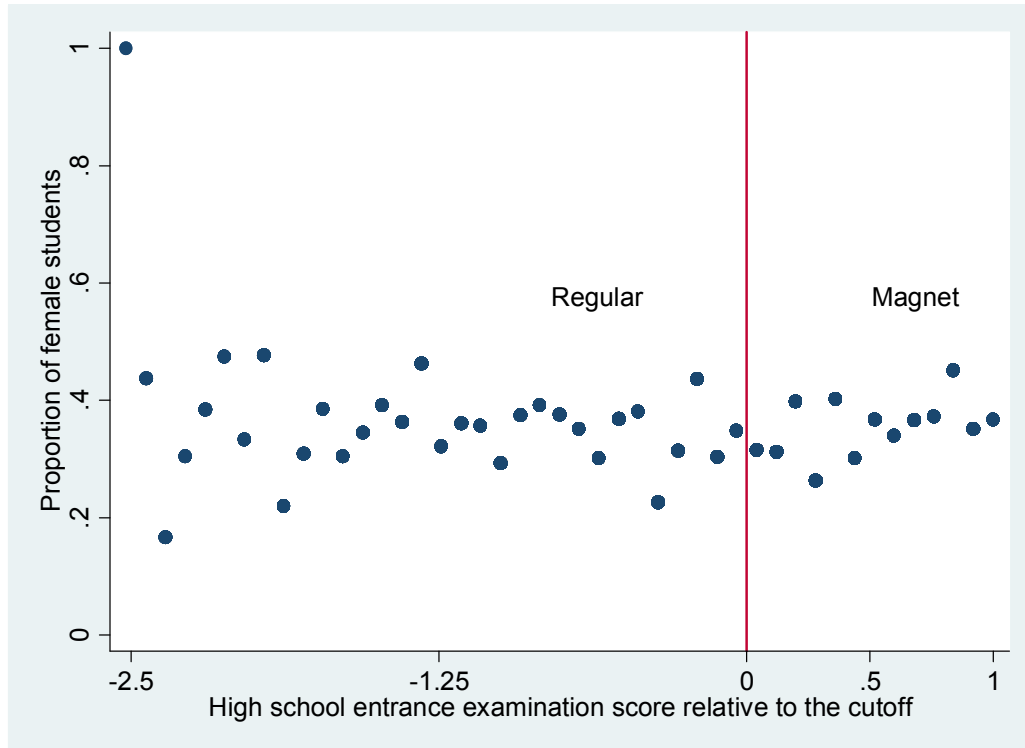
1
2
3 **Figure 1 Student assignment**
4
5



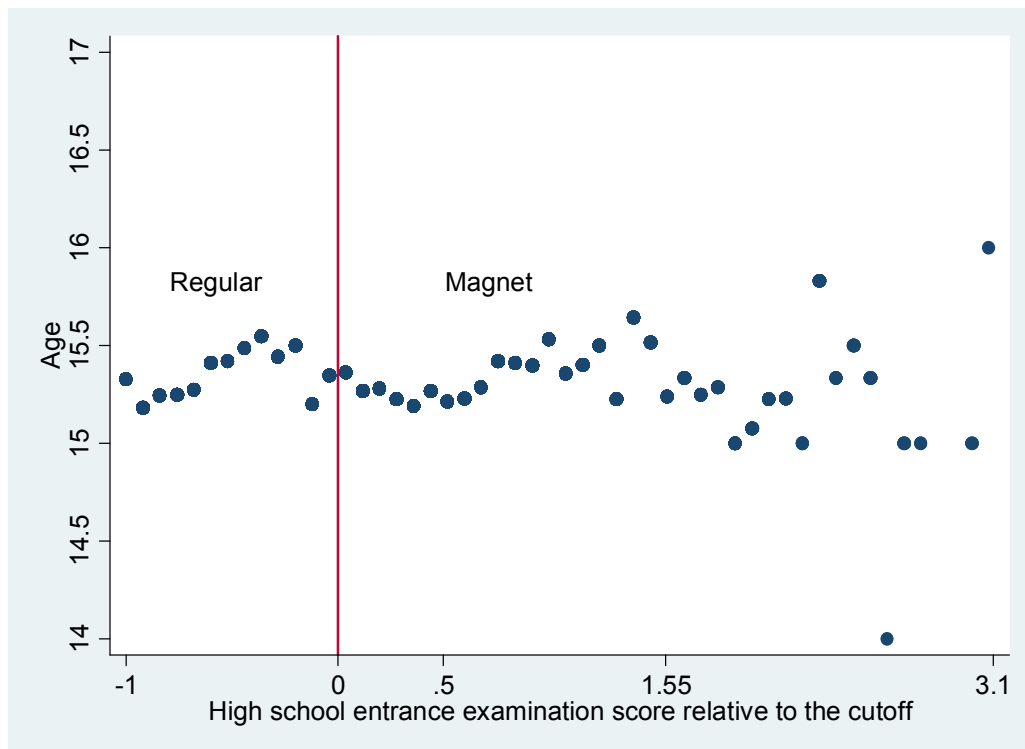
30 Note: (1) Dots in the graph are share of students enrolled in magnet high schools in
31 equidistant bins with the width equal to 0.3. The dots are plotted against the midpoint of
32 each bin.
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3 **Figure 2 Tests of continuity of covariates**
4

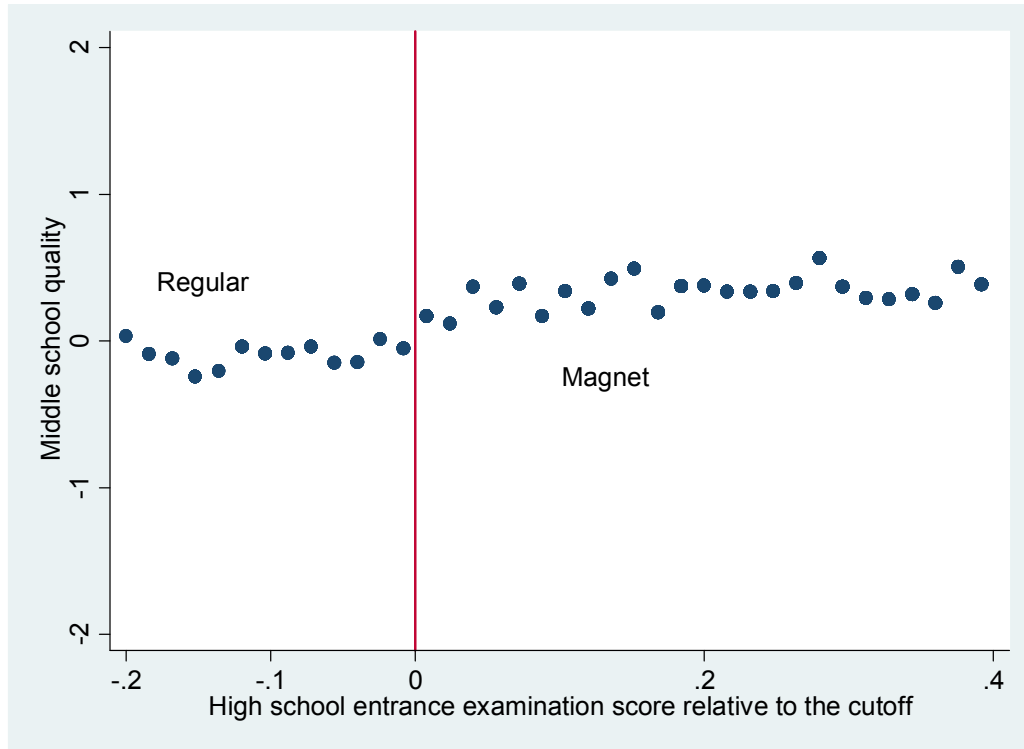
5 **Panel A Gender**
6



31
32 **Panel B Age**
33



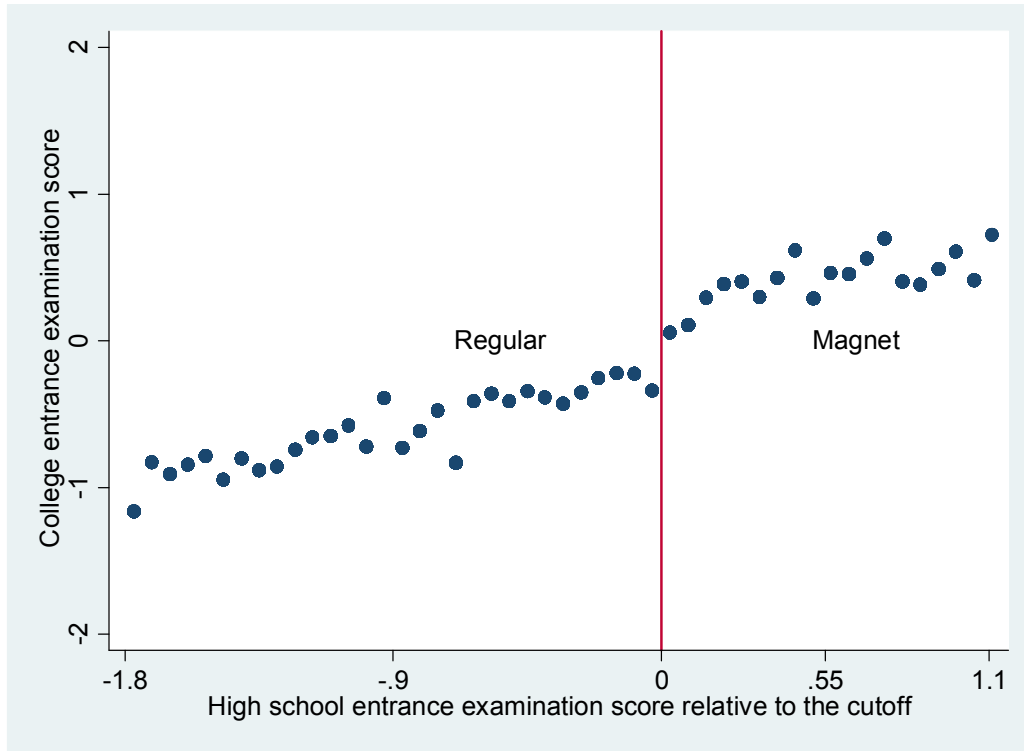
1
2
3 Panel C Middle school quality
4



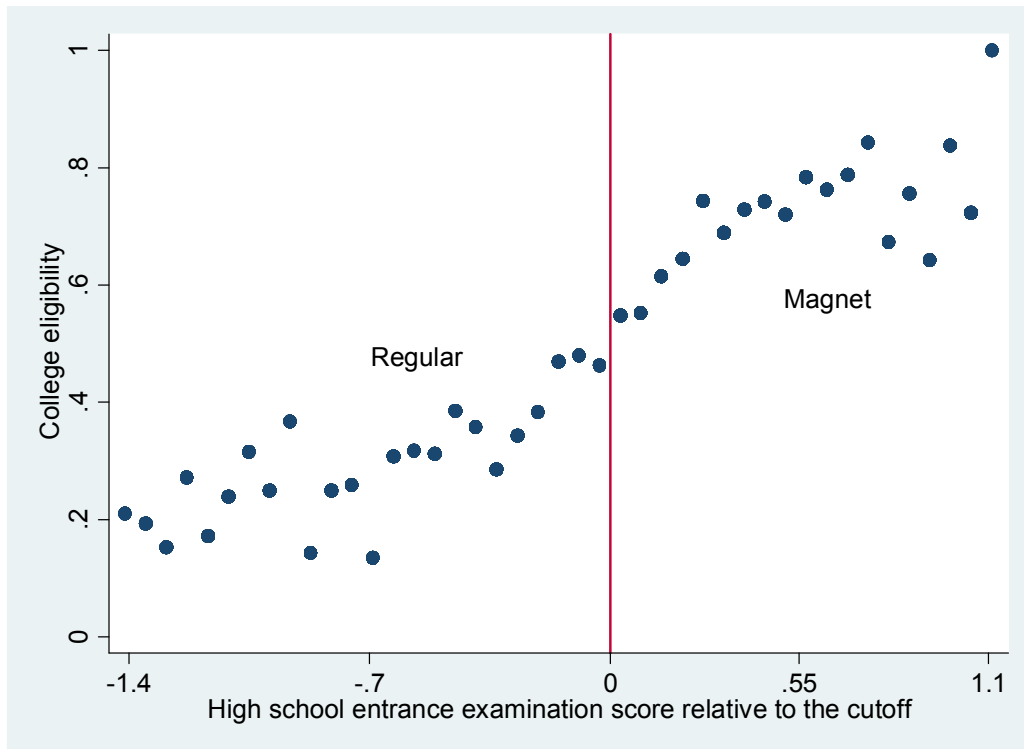
29 Note: (1) Middle school quality for a student is measured by average high school
30 entrance examination score of students attending the same middle school in the same year.
31 (2) Dots in Panel A are the mean values of female dummy for students having high
32 school entrance examination score (relative to the cutoff) in equidistant bins with the
33 width equal to 0.08. Dots in Panel B are the mean values of age for students having high
34 school entrance examination score (relative to the cutoff) in equidistant bins with the
35 width equal to 0.08. Dots in Panel C are the mean values of the middle school quality
36 measurement for students having high school entrance examination score (relative to the
37 cutoff) in equidistant bins with the width equal to 0.016. The dots are plotted against the
38 midpoint of each bin.
39 (3) The bandwidth of the neighborhood around the cutoff line in each figure is consistent
40 with that used for the corresponding outcome variable in Table 4, which is chosen by the
41 cross-validation method.
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3 **Figure 3 Effects of attending magnet high schools**

4 Panel A College entrance examination score



31 Panel B College eligibility



1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

Note: (1) Dots in Panel A are the mean values of college entrance examination score for students having high school entrance examination score (relative to the cutoff) in equidistant bins with the width equal to 0.06. Dots in Panel B are share of students qualifying for college for students having high school entrance examination score (relative to the cutoff) in equidistant bins with the width equal to 0.06. The dots are plotted against the midpoint of each bin.
(2) The bandwidth of the neighborhood around the cutoff line in each figure is consistent with that used for the corresponding outcome variable in Table 5, which is chosen by the cross-validation method.

Table 1 Different characteristics between magnet schools and regular schools

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Ratio of teachers having advanced title	Ratio of teachers having education of four year college	Class size	No. of students	Campus area (10000 square meters)	No. of books in library (10000 units)	Does equipment satisfy criteria
Magnet school=1	0.101	0.424	8.883	851.773	5.171	6.772	0.526
	(0.047)**	(0.094)***	(4.524)*	(166.235)***	(0.693)***	(1.070)***	(0.191)**
Observations	57	55	58	55	51	46	43
Regular school	0.074	0.341	52.814	767.803	2.523	0.660	0.324

Robust standard errors in parentheses; * significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

Note:

(1) All regressions include county-year fixed effects.

(2) The row of "Regular school" shows the mean values of the dependent variables for regular schools.

1
2
3
4 **Table 2. Summary statistics**

Variable	Mean	S.D.	Observation
Female	0.359	0.480	5373
Age	15.315	0.678	5373
High school entrance examination score	0.098	0.957	5373
Magnet	0.535	0.499	5373
Eligible	0.531	0.499	5373
Taking liberal arts track	0.295	0.456	5373
College entrance examination score	-0.085	1.035	5373
Eligible for college	0.497	0.500	5373

20 Note:

21 (1) Magnet is a dummy variable with one representing attending magnet high school
22 and zero otherwise. Eligible is also a dummy variable with one representing having
23 high school entrance examination scores equal to or higher than the cutoff line of
24 magnet high school and zero otherwise. The definitions apply to all other tables.
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

Table 3. Determinants of attending a magnet school

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<u>Dependent variable: Magnet</u>				
Eligible	0.517 (0.027)***	0.331 (0.040)***	0.385 (0.026)***	0.354 (0.028)***
Female			0.019 (0.010)*	0.021 (0.010)**
Age			-0.040 (0.010)***	-0.039 (0.010)***
Bandwidth used	[-2,2]	[-2,2]	[-1.8, 1.1]	[-1.4, 1.1]
Observations	4986	4986	4478	4155
R-squared	0.60	0.61	0.68	0.66
IV validity (F-value)	261.28	376.18	121.14	111.59

Standard errors in parentheses are calculated by clustering over county-high school entrance examination score.

* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

Note:

(1) In columns 3 and 4, we control for the county-year fixed effects, and middle school fixed effects.

(2) In columns 1, 3 and 4, a first order polynomial function of students' high school entrance examination score relative to the cutoff is controlled, respectively. In column 2, a second order polynomial function of students' high school entrance examination score relative to the cutoff is controlled.

(3) Bandwidth used in columns 1 and 2 is consistent with that used in Figure 1. Bandwidth in column 3 is consistent with that used in columns 1-3 in Table 5. Bandwidth in column 4 is consistent with that used in columns 4-6 in Table 5.

Table 4 Covariate continuity tests

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Female=1	Female=1	Age	Age	Middle school quality	Middle school quality
Eligible	-0.009 (0.028)		-0.031 (0.039)		0.092 (0.056)	
Magnet(Eligible as IV)		-0.023 (0.068)		-0.092 (0.119)		0.592 (0.373)
Female=1			-0.048 (0.019)**	-0.046 (0.019)**	0.040 (0.026)	0.037 (0.025)
Age	-0.049 (0.014)***	-0.050 (0.014)***			0.010 (0.014)	0.024 (0.021)
Bandwidth used	[-2.5,1]	[-2.5,1]	[-1,3.1]	[-1,3.1]	[-0.2,0.4]	[-0.2,0.4]
Observations	4648	4648	4174	4174	1388	1388
R-squared	0.05	0.05	0.39	0.39	0.24	0.26

Standard errors in parentheses are calculated by clustering over county-high school entrance examination score.

* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

Note:

(1) Middle school quality for a student is measured by the average high school entrance examination score of students attending the same middle school in the same year.

(2) In all columns, we control for a first order polynomial function of students' high school entrance examination scores relative to the cutoff, and county-year fixed effects. In columns 1 to 4, we also control for middle school fixed effects.

(3) The bandwidths used in this table are chosen by the cross-validation method for outcome variables, respectively.

Table 5 Effects of school quality on students' college entrance examination score and college eligibility

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
<u>Dependent Variable :</u>	College entrance examination score			College entrance score is equal to or higher than the lowest cutoff line for entering college=1		
Magnet	0.302 (0.041)***			0.135 (0.023)***		
Eligible		0.153 (0.050)***			0.099 (0.028)***	
Magnet(Eligible as IV)			0.387 (0.130)***			0.278 (0.082)***
Female	-0.014 (0.026)	-0.012 (0.026)	-0.016 (0.026)	-0.014 (0.015)	-0.012 (0.015)	-0.017 (0.015)
Age	-0.113 (0.026)***	-0.121 (0.026)***	-0.109 (0.027)***	-0.038 (0.014)***	-0.042 (0.014)***	-0.032 (0.014)**
Bandwidth used	[-1.8,1.1]	[-1.8,1.1]	[-1.8,1.1]	[-1.4,1.1]	[-1.4,1.1]	[-1.4,1.1]
Observations	4478	4478	4478	4155	4155	4155
R-squared	0.32	0.31	0.32	0.26	0.26	0.25

Standard errors in parentheses are calculated by clustering over county-high school entrance examination score.

* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

Note:

(1) In all regressions, we control for middle school fixed effects, county-year fixed effect, and a first order polynomial function of students' high school entrance examination scores relative to the cutoff.

(2) The bandwidths used in this table are chosen by the cross-validation method for outcome variables, respectively.

Table 6 Heterogeneity tests

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	College entrance examination score	College entrance score is equal to or higher than the lowest cutoff line for entering college=1	College entrance examination score	College entrance score is equal to or higher than the lowest cutoff line for entering college=1
Magnet*Female (Eligible*Female as IV)	0.003 (0.072)	0.074 (0.049)		
Magnet*Age (Eligible*Age as IV)			-0.059 (0.062)	-0.012 (0.035)
Magnet (Eligible as IV)	0.387 (0.132)***	0.256 (0.088)***	1.292 (0.971)	0.470 (0.566)
Female	-0.017 (0.046)	-0.059 (0.035)*	-0.015 (0.028)	-0.017 (0.016)
Age	-0.109 (0.029)***	-0.031 (0.015)**	-0.076 (0.044)*	-0.024 (0.027)
Bandwidth used	[-1.8,1.1]	[-1.4,1.1]	[-1.8,1.1]	[-1.4,1.1]
Observations	4478	4155	4478	4155
R-squared	0.32	0.25	0.32	0.25

Standard errors in parentheses are calculated by clustering over county-high school entrance examination score.

* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

Note:

(1) In all regressions, we control for middle school fixed effects, county-year fixed effects, and a first order polynomial function of students' high school entrance examination score relative to the cutoff.

(2) Bandwidth used in columns 1 and 3 is consistent with that used in columns 1-3 in Table 5. Bandwidth used in columns 2 and 4 is consistent with that used in columns 4-6 in Table 5.

Table 7 Determinants of observing a college entrance examination score

	(1)	(2)	(3)
<u>Dependent Variable : Having a college entrance examination score=1</u>			
Magnet(Eligible as IV)	-0.022 (0.045)	-0.020 (0.051)	-0.039 (0.042)
Female	-0.069 (0.010)***	-0.069 (0.011)***	-0.072 (0.010)***
Age	-0.012 (0.007)*	-0.012 (0.007)*	-0.008 (0.007)
Bandwidth used	[-1.8,1.1]	[-1.4,1.1]	[-1.5,2.4]
Observations	7032	6331	7202
R-squared	0.30	0.29	0.28

Standard errors in parentheses are calculated by clustering over county-high school entrance examination score.

* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

Note:

(1) In all regressions, we control for middle school fixed effects, county-year fixed effects, and a first order polynomial function of students' high school entrance examination score relative to the cutoff.

(2) Bandwidth in column 1 is consistent with that used in columns 1-3 in Table 5. Bandwidth in column 2 is consistent with that used in columns 4-6 in Table 5. Bandwidth in column 3 is chosen by the cross-validation method for the dependent variable.

Table 8 Effects of entering a magnet school on students' course study

	(1)	(2)	(3)
<u>Dependent Variable : Taking literal arts track=1, taking other tracks=0</u>			
Magnet(Eligible as IV)	-0.081 (0.071)	-0.087 (0.081)	-0.068 (0.076)
Female	0.135 (0.015)***	0.134 (0.015)***	0.111 (0.015)***
Age	0.010 (0.013)	0.009 (0.014)	0.009 (0.013)
Bandwidth used	[-1.8,1.1]	[-1.4,1.1]	[-1.2,2.4]
Observations	4478	4155	4395
R-squared	0.11	0.11	0.10

Standard errors in parentheses are calculated by clustering over county-high school entrance examination score.

* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

Note:

(1) In all regressions, we control for the middle school fixed effects, county-year fixed effects, and a first order polynomial function of students' high school entrance examination scores relative to the cutoff.

(2) Bandwidth used in column 1 is consistent with that used in columns 1-3 in Table 5. Bandwidth used in column 2 is consistent with that used in columns 4-6 in Table 5. Bandwidth used in column 3 is chosen by the method of cross-validation for the dependent variable.

Table 9 Robustness of main results to the bandwidth used

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<u>Dependent Variable :</u>	College entrance exam score	College entrance exam score	College entrance score is higher than the lowest cutoff line for entering college=1	College entrance score is higher than the lowest cutoff line for entering college=1
Magnet(Eligible as IV)	0.365 (0.151)**	0.355 (0.207)*	0.298 (0.071)***	0.279 (0.113)**
Female	-0.012 (0.027)	-0.007 (0.030)	-0.016 (0.014)	-0.009 (0.016)
Age	-0.117 (0.028)***	-0.128 (0.030)***	-0.029 (0.013)**	-0.035 (0.015)**
Bandwidth used	[-1.4,1.1]	[-1.1,1.1]	[-1.8,1.1]	[-1.1,1.1]
Observations	4155	3591	4478	3591
R-squared	0.29	0.27	0.27	0.23

Standard errors in parentheses are calculated by clustering over county-high school entrance exam score.

* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

Note:

(1) In all regression, we control for middle school fixed effects, county-year fixed effect, and a first order polynomial function of students' high school entrance examination scores relative to the cutoff.

Table 10 Total effects of entering good school on the probability to enter college

	(1)	(2)	(3)
Magnet(Eligible as IV)	0.227 (0.053)***	0.217 (0.062)***	0.217 (0.073)***
Female	-0.041 (0.010)***	-0.045 (0.011)***	-0.042 (0.012)***
Age	-0.032 (0.012)***	-0.037 (0.013)***	-0.043 (0.014)***
Bandwidth used	[-1.8,1.1]	[-1.4,1.1]	[-1.2,1]
Observations	7032	6331	5765
R-squared	0.21	0.19	0.18

Standard errors in parentheses are calculated by clustering over county-high school entrance exam score.

* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

Note:

(1) The dependent variable is an indicator. It is equal to 1 if the student's college entrance examination score is equal to or higher than the lowest cutoff line for entering the college, and it is equal to 0 if the student's college entrance examination score is lower than the cutoff line or the student does not have a college entrance examination score. In other words, students having missing college entrance examination scores are assumed not to be eligible for colleges.

(2) In all regressions, we control for middle school fixed effects, county-year fixed effects, and a first order polynomial function of students' high school entrance examination score relative to the cutoff.

(3) Bandwidth used in column 1 is consistent with that used in columns 1-3 in Table 5. Bandwidth used in column 2 is consistent with that used in columns 4-6 in Table 5. Bandwidth used in column 3 is chosen by the cross-validation method for the dependent variable.

Appendix Table 1 Difference of the difference between magnet and regular schools

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Ratio of teachers having advanced title	Ratio of teachers having education of four year college	Class size	No. of students	Campus area (10000 square meters)	No. of books in library (10000 units)	Does equipment satisfy criteria
Magnet school=1							
*County having binding cutoff line=1	0.019	0.178	-0.318	-82.672	2.632	5.350	-0.035
	(0.080)	(0.154)	(6.248)	(371.810)	(2.920)	(4.464)	(0.393)
Magnet school=1	0.083	0.246	9.201	934.446	2.538	1.422	0.562
	(0.021)***	(0.047)***	(5.619)	(323.279)**	(0.608)***	(1.072)	(0.360)
County-year fixed effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	103	99	94	99	95	91	80
R-squared	0.24	0.43	0.37	0.58	0.72	0.63	0.57

Robust standard errors are in parentheses

* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%