

# Chapter 3

## Research Synthesis of Studies Published Between 1990 and 2012

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In this chapter, the results of a research synthesis of the effects on school size on various outcome variables are presented. The present review built on an earlier “quick scan” on the impact of secondary school size on achievement, social cohesion, school safety, and involvement conducted for the Dutch Ministry of Education and Sciences in 2008 (Hendriks et al. 2008). It focuses on a broader set of outcome variables, and includes studies that investigated the effects of school size in primary education as well. Studies that provided information about economies of school size were included as well.

The research synthesis seeks answers on the following research questions:

- (1) What is the impact of school size on various cognitive and noncognitive outcomes?
- (2) What is the “state of the art” of the empirical research on economies of size?

To answer the first question the impact of school size of variety of student, teacher, parents’, and school organizational outcome variables was investigated. A distinction is made between outcome variables, i.e., cognitive and noncognitive outcome variables, and school organization variables. Cognitive outcomes refer to student achievement. The noncognitive outcome variables included in the review relate both to students’ (attitudes toward school and learning, engagement, attendance, truancy, and drop-out) and teachers outcomes (satisfaction, commitment, and efficacy). School organization variables relate to safety, to involvement of students, teachers and parents, as well as to other aspects of the internal organization of the school, including classroom practices (i.e., aspects of teaching and learning). In the review school organization variables are seen both as a desirable end in itself, but also as intermediate variables conducive to high academic performance and positive student and teacher attitudes. To answer the second question, costs was included as a dependent variable in the review.

In the research synthesis we were not able to apply a quantitative meta-analysis in which effect sizes are combined statistically. One reason was many empirical

studies did not provide sufficient information to permit the calculation of an effect size estimate. What is more, in many of the studies the relationship of school size and a dependent variable is not always modeled as a linear relationship. Instead a log-linear or quadratic relationship is examined or different categories of school size are compared, of which the number and distribution of sizes over categories varies between studies.

Therefore in this research synthesis, we used the so-called vote count technique, which basically consists of counting the number of positive and negative statistically significant and nonsignificant associations. This technique could be seen as a rather primitive form of meta-analysis,<sup>1</sup> and has many limitations, as will be documented in more detail when presenting the analyses. In this chapter, the results of the vote counts with a narrative review providing more in-depth information on a great number of the studies included in the review.

### 3.1 Search Strategy and Selection Criteria

A computer-assisted literature search procedure was conducted to find empirical studies that investigated the impact of school size on a wide array of student outcomes (such as achievement, cohesion, safety, involvement, participation, attendance, drop-out, and costs). Literature searches of the electronic databases Web of science ([www.isiknowledge.com](http://www.isiknowledge.com)), Scopus ([www.scopus.com](http://www.scopus.com)), ERIC, Psycinfo (provided through Ebscohost), and Picarta were conducted to identify eligible studies. Search terms included key terms used in the meta-analyses by Hendriks et al. (2008), i.e., (a) “school size,” “small\* schools,” “large\* schools” (b) effectiveness, achievement (c) cohesion, peer\*, climate, community\*, “peer relationship,” “student teacher relationship” (d) safe\*, violence, security (e) influence\*, involvement, participation (f) truancy, “drop out,” attendance, and (g) costs. In the search, the key terms of the first group were combined with the key terms of each other group separately. We used the limiters publication date January 1990–October 2012 and peer reviewed (ERIC only) to restrict our search.

The initial search in the databases yielded 1,984 references and resulted in 875 unique studies after removing duplicate publications. The titles and abstracts of these publications were screened to determine whether the study met the following criteria:

The study had to include a variable measuring individual school size. Studies investigating schools-within-schools or studies examining size at the school district level were not included in the review. Studies were also excluded if size was measured as grade or cohort enrollment or the number of teachers in the school.

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<sup>1</sup> Following Cooper et al. 2009, “vote counting” is still seen as meta-analysis, since it involves statistically describing study outcomes.

The dependent variable of the study had to be one or more of: (1) student attainment and progress, (2) student behavior and attitudes, (3) teacher behavior and attitudes, (4) school organizational practices and teaching and learning, and (5) economic costs

The study had to focus on primary or secondary education (for students aged 6–18). Studies that focused on preschool, kindergarten, or on postsecondary education were excluded.

The study had to be conducted in mainstream education. Studies containing specific samples of students in regular schools (such as students with learning, physical, emotional, or behavioral disabilities) or studies conducted in schools for special education were excluded from the meta-analysis.

The study is published or reported no earlier than January 1990 and before December 2012.

The study had to be written in English, German, or Dutch.

The study had to have estimated in some way the relationship between school size and one or more of the outcome variables. Study had to report original data and outcomes. Existing reviews of the literature were excluded from the review.

When cognitive achievement was the outcome variable studies had to control for a measure of students' background, such as prior cognitive achievement and/or socioeconomic status (SES).

After this first selection, 314 studies left for the full text review phase. In addition recent reviews on school size (i.e., Andrews et al. 2002; Newman et al. 2006; Hendriks et al. 2008; Leithwood and Jantzi 2009) as well as references from the literature review sections from the obtained publication were examined to find additional publications. A cut-off date for obtaining publications was set at 31 December 2012.

The full text review phase resulted in 84 publications covering the period 1990–2012 admitted to the review and fully coded in the coding phase. The data were extracted by one of two reviewers and confirmatory data extraction was carried out by a second reviewer.

## 3.2 Coding Procedure

Lipsey and Wilson (2001) define two levels at which the data of the study should be coded: the study level and the level of an effect size estimate. The authors define a study as “a set of data collected under a single research plan from a designated sample of respondents” (Lipsey and Wilson, p. 76). A study may contain different samples, when the same research is conducted on different samples of participants (e.g., when students are sampled in different grades, cohorts of students or students in different stages of schooling -primary or secondary-), or when students are sampled in different countries. An estimate is an

effect size, calculated for a quantitative relationship between an independent and dependent variable. As a study may include different measurements of the *independent* variable (school size), as well as different measures of the *dependent* variable (such as e.g., different outcome measures (achievement, engagement, drop-out), different achievement tests covering different domains of subject matter (e.g., language or math), measurement as different point in time (learning gain after 2- and 4 years), a study may yield many effect sizes, each estimate different from the others with regard to some of its details.

The studies selected between 1990 and 2012 were coded by the researchers applying the same coding procedure as used by Scheerens et al. (2007). The coding form included five different sections: report and study identification, characteristics of the independent (school size) variable(s) measured, sample characteristics, study characteristics, and school size effects (effect sizes).

The report and study identification section recorded the author(s), the title and the year of the publication.

The section with characteristics of the explanatory variable(s) measured coded the operational definition of the size variable(s) used in the study (In all studies referring to a measure of total number of students attending a school) as well as the way in which the relationship between size and outcomes was modeled in the study: either linear or transformed to its logarithm (size measured as a continuous variable), quadratic (estimating both linear and quadratic coefficients), or comparing different size categories.

The sample characteristics section recorded the study setting and participants. For study setting the country or countries in which the study was conducted were recorded. With regard to participants, the stage of schooling (primary or secondary level) the sample referred to was coded as well as the grade or age level(s) of the students the sample focused on. The number of schools, classes, and students included in the sample were recorded as well.

The study characteristics section coded the research design chosen, the type of instruments employed to measure the time variable(s), the statistical techniques conducted and the model specification. For the type of research design, we coded whether the study applied a quasi experimental—or experimental research design and whether or not a correlational survey design was used. With regard to the type of instruments used we coded whether a survey instrument or log was used and who the respondents were (students, teachers, principals, and/or students), and whether data were collected by means of classroom observation or video-analysis or (quasi-) experimental manipulation. The studies were further categorized according to the statistical techniques conducted to investigate the association between time and achievement. The following main categories were employed: ANOVA, Pearson correlation analysis, regression analysis, path analysis/LISREL/SEM, and multilevel analysis. We also coded whether the study accounted for covariates at the student level, i.e., if the study controlled for prior achievement, ability, and/or student social background.

Finally, the school size effects section recorded the effects sizes, either taken directly from the selected publications or calculated. The effect sizes were coded

as reflecting the types of outcome variables distinguished in the review (i.e., achievement, students' and teachers' attitudes to school, students', teachers' and parents' participation, safety, attendance, absenteeism, truancy and drop out, school organization and teaching and learning, and costs). With regard to achievement, four groups of academic subjects were distinguished in the coding: language, mathematics, science, and other subjects.

### 3.3 Vote Counting Procedure

As the nature of the data reported in the 84 studies and 107 samples did not permit a quantitative meta-analysis without eliminating a significant number of studies in each of the outcome domains, a vote counting procedure was applied. Vote counting permitted inclusion of those studies and samples that reported on the significance and direction of the association of school size and an outcome measure, but did not provide sufficient information to permit the calculation of an effect size estimate. Vote counting comes down to counting the number of positive significant, negative significant, and nonsignificant associations between an independent variable and a specific dependent variable of interest from a given set of studies at a specified significance level, in this case school size and different outcome measures (Bushman and Wang 2009). We used a significance level of  $\alpha = 0.05$ . When multiple effect size estimates were reported in a study, each effect was individually included in the vote counts. Vote counting procedures were applied for each of the (groups of) dependent variables: achievement, students' and teachers' attitudes to school, students', teachers' and parents' participation, safety, attendance, absenteeism, truancy and drop out, school organization and teaching and learning, and costs.

The vote counting procedure has been criticized on several grounds (Borenstein et al. 2009; Bushman 1994; Bushman and Wang 2009; Scheerens et al. 2005). It does not incorporate sample size into the vote. As sample sizes increase, the probability of obtaining statistically significant results increase. Next, the vote counting procedure does not allow the researcher to determine which treatment is the best in an absolute sense as it does not provide an effect size estimate. Finally, when multiple effects are reported in a study, such a study has a larger influence on the results of the vote-count procedure than a study where only one effect is reported.

As vote counting is less powerful it should not be seen as a full blown alternative to the quantitative synthesis of effect sizes, but, rather as a complementary strategy.

Table 3.1 gives an overview of the studies, samples, and estimates included in the vote counting procedures for each type of outcome variables (i.e., achievement, students' and teachers' attitudes to school, students', teachers' and parents' participation, safety, attendance, absenteeism, truancy and drop out, school organization and teaching and learning, and costs) as well as in total.

**Table 3.1** Number of studies, samples and estimates included in the vote counting procedure for each (group of) dependent variable(s) and in total

	Studies	Samples	Effect size estimates
Achievement	46	64	126
Students' and teachers' attitudes to school	14	14	24
Participation	10	13	13
Safety	24	25	54
Attendance, absenteeism, and truancy	12	16	23
Drop-out	4	5	5
Other student outcomes	5	7	9
School organization and teaching and learning	4	4	18
Costs	5	5	5
Total	84	107	277

### 3.4 Moderator Analysis

Moderator analyses were conducted to examine the degree to which the relationship between school size on one hand and an outcome variable on the other could be attributed to specific sample or study characteristics. Due to the low number of samples included in the review for most of the outcome variables (see Table 3.1), moderator analysis was only applied for those studies and samples that included student achievement or safety as the outcome variable, and in which the relationship between size and outcomes was modeled as a linear or log-linear function. The following types of moderator variables were used in our analyses: sample characteristics as geographical region, and the level of schooling (primary, secondary schools), and study characteristics that refer to methodological and statistical aspects, e.g., study design, model specification, whether or not covariates at the student level (SES, cognitive aptitude, prior achievement) or school level (school level SES, urbanicity) are taken into account and whether or not multilevel analysis was employed.

#### 3.4.1 *Characteristics of the Studies and Samples Included in the Review*

In total, 84 studies and 107 samples were included in the review. Almost three quarter of the studies (i.e., 58 studies) originate from the United States. Seven studies were conducted in the Netherlands, four in the United Kingdom, three in Israel, two in Canada, two in Sweden, and one in each of Australia, Hong Kong, Ireland, Italy, and Taiwan.

Eighteen studies examined effects of school size in primary education contexts, 53 studies in secondary schools, and six studies collected data in primary and

secondary schools separately. In three studies, a combined sample of primary and secondary schools was used.

More detailed information about the characteristics of the samples and studies can be found in Tables [A.1](#) and [A.2](#).

## 3.5 Results

### 3.5.1 Academic Achievement

Evidence about the relationship between school size and academic achievement was derived from 46 studies and 64 samples (yielding in total 126 effect estimates). Of the 46 studies, 20 studies (22 samples) provided evidence about the relationship between school size and achievement in primary education. Evidence about the effects of school size in secondary education was available from 29 studies (39 samples). In five studies the data were obtained from samples that included students from both levels of schooling. The majority of studies (and samples) were conducted in the United States. The other studies originate from Canada (1 sample), Hong Kong (1 sample), The Netherlands (2 samples), and Sweden (2 samples).

Table [3.2](#) shows the results of the total number of negative, nonsignificant, curvilinear, and positive effects found for the associations between school size and achievement. In this table, evidence is presented for all studies in total as well as separately for the three different ways in which school size is measured in the studies: (1) school size measured as a continuous variable usually operationalized as the total number of students attending a school or different sites of a school at a given date, suggesting a linear relationship, (2) school size measured as a quadratic function, seeking evidence for a curvilinear relationship and, (3) school size measured through comparison of different categories. In these latter studies, the evidence reported could show either a linear or curvilinear relationship, or favoring a certain size category.

The results of the vote counting show that of 126 effects sizes in total, more than half of the associations (78 effects, 62 %) between school size and achievement appeared to be nonsignificant, 23 estimates (18 %) showed negative effects and 11 estimates (9 %) positive effects.

### 3.5.2 School Size Measured as a Continuous Variable

When school size was measured as a continuous variable, in 11 of the 46 samples (20 effects) a negative relationship between school size and achievement was reported while in 8 samples (8 effect sizes) it was found that achievement rises as school size increases (see Tables [3.2](#) and [A3](#)).

**Table 3.2** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, curvilinear, and positive effects of school size on achievement

	Studies	Samples	Direction of effect			
			–	ns	∩	+
School size measured as a continuous variable	31	46	20	62	0	8
School size squared measured	4	8	0	0	8	0
School size measured as discrete variable (categories)	15	18	3	16	6	3
Total	46	64	23	78	14	11

– = negatively related with school size

ns = no significant relation with school size

∩ = optimal school size found

+ = positively related with school size

In 15 of the 46 samples effects were examined for more than one achievement measure (e.g. in different domains (language or math), or at different points in time), the effects reported within one sample were in the same direction, thus all effects found were either nonsignificant, positive, or negative. The only sample that reported conflicting results was the study by Fowler and Walberg (1991). In this study 13 school achievement outcome measures were regressed on 23 school characteristics. After district socioeconomic status and the percentage of students from low-income families were accounted for, school size was the next most influential and consistent factor related to outcomes. Five of the achievement measures were negatively associated with school size; the other effects were nonsignificant. According to the authors these results suggest “that smaller school districts and smaller schools, regardless of socioeconomic status ..., may be more efficient at enhancing educational outcomes” (p. 189). However, other authors (Spielhofer et al. 2004) recommended caution as only school level data were used in the regression analysis.

Besides Fowler and Walberg, eight other studies (samples) also found negative associations between school size and achievement (Archibald 2006; Caldas 1993; Deller and Rudnicki 1993; Driscoll et al. 2003; Heck 1993; Lee and Smith 1995; Moe 2009; Stiefel et al. 2006). In four of these studies the effect of school size on achievement was examined at different levels of schooling (Caldas 1993; Driscoll et al. 2003; Moe 2009; Stiefel et al. 2006). In these four studies the authors all reported a (weak) negative effect for primary education while for secondary education a nonsignificant (negative or positive) effect was found. Two of the remaining studies were conducted in primary education (Archibald 2006; Deller and Rudnicki 1993) and in the study by Heck a sample from both primary and secondary schools was used.

Archibald conducted the study in Washoe County, Nevada, USA. The researcher used a three level HLM model and found a small negative relationship



between school size and both math and reading (standardized regression coefficient  $\beta = -0.03$  for reading and  $-0.07$  for math).

Ma and McIntyre examined the effects of pure and applied mathematics courses on math achievement in Canada, using data from the Longitudinal Study of Mathematics Participation. Variables included in the multilevel model were student background variables, prior math achievement, course attendance (pure math, applied math, low-level preparatory math), school location, school SES, parental involvement, and school climate. Ma and McIntyre did not find a significant main effect. In the final model positive interaction effects of school size with course taking were found. Students taking pure math or students taking applied math in smaller schools had higher achievement in math than did students taking pure math or applied math in larger schools. The effects were small: “a difference of 100 students in enrollment was associated with a difference in mathematics achievement of 5 % of a standard deviation. A quarter of a standard deviation often indicates a difference that is substantial enough to warrant practical implications: to reach that level a reduction in school size between 400 and 500 students is required” (p. 843).

Five studies (8 samples) found positive effects, i.e., achievement declined as school size increased (Borland and Howsen 2003; Bradley and Taylor 1998; Foreman-Peck and Foreman-Peck 2006; Lubienski et al. 2008; Sun et al. 2012). For three of these studies the curvilinear relationship was examined as well (for these studies see the text on curvilinear relations below).

In the study by Lubienski et al. (2008) the relationship between school size and math achievement is examined both in primary and secondary education, using data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP 2003) on over 150,000 students in grade 4 (primary) and 110,000 in grade 8 (secondary). Variables included in the HLM models refer to school type, student demographics, school demographics, school location, school climate, teacher education and experience, teaching methods, and student beliefs and attitudes. The authors found that “school size is slightly positive associated with math achievement” (p. 129) in grade 8, and nonsignificant in grade 4. Moreover, they noted that the “demographic variables accounted for the vast majority of the variance in achievement between schools” (p. 128).

In the study by Sun et al. (2012) data were taken from the Hong Kong sample of PISA 2006. The dependent variable was science literacy. For statistical analysis, the authors used a two-level multilevel model. At the student level sex (male students performed better), student SES, parental views on science, motivation, and student self-efficacy positively contributed to student science achievement. At the school level, school SES composition, quantity of instruction and school size were found to be positive predictors of science achievement. A possible explanation the authors provide for the positive effect of school size on science achievement is that “larger student body schools are more likely to have more grants or financial opportunities and greater support from parents ... Therefore, big schools are more likely to attract and retain qualified and talented science teachers as well as create large peer effects as more active and bright students work together” (p. 2118).

### ***3.5.3 Curvilinear Relationships (School Size as a Quadratic Function)***

Of the 46 samples in which school continuous variable, 8 samples (4 studies) also reported curvilinear relationships (Borland and Howsen 2003; Bradley and Taylor 1998; Foreman-Peck and Foreman-Peck 2006; Sawkins 2002) (see Tables 3.3 and A.4).

The study of Borland and Howsen is the only study providing evidence about the curvilinear relationship of school size effects on academic achievement of elementary (3rd grade) students. The study was conducted in Kentucky (United States). The mean school size of the 654 schools was 490 students. Other variables in the model included student ability, teacher experience, the existence of a teacher union, average income of the community, class size, and poverty. The results of the two-stage least-squares regression suggested an optimal school size of around 760 students.

The three studies related to secondary education were all conducted in the United Kingdom. All three studies focused upon the upper end of the exam results distribution, with either the proportion of 15–16-year-old pupils in each school obtaining five or more General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) examination results at grades A to C in England (Bradley and Taylor) or Wales (Foreman-Peck and Foreman-Peck) as dependent variable, or the percentage of pupils in their last year of secondary education (S4) gaining five or more Standard Grade passes at levels 1 or 2 in Scotland (Sawkins). The estimates for the samples in England and Wales suggest an inverted ‘U’-shaped relationship between school examination performance and school size. For the schools in England (Bradley and Taylor) the optimum school size found was around 1,200 students for 11–16 schools and 1,500 students for 11–18 schools, optima that seem to be considerably higher than the mean school size of the schools in the samples (685–765 for 11–16 schools and 916–1,010 for 11–18 schools, see also Table 3.3). The optimum school size found for schools in Wales appeared to be much lower (560 students), both compared to the evidence in England and to the mean sizes of the schools in the Welsh samples (respectively 871 in 1996 and 936 in 2002).

In the study using Scottish data (Sawkins 2002), a contradictory ‘U’-shaped relationship was found between examination performance and school size. Scottish school examination performance appeared to decline as the number of pupils in a school increases, reaching a minimum turning point of around 1,190 pupils for the 1993–1994 sample and 1,230 pupils for the 1998–1999 sample, after which the performance started to increase. The explanation might be that in Scotland very large schools are uncommon. In the study by Sawkins, only 4 % of the secondary schools appeared to be larger than the calculated minimum.

**Table 3.3** Overview of directions of effect (negative, nonsignificant, positive, and curvilinear) of relationships of school size on academic achievement for each sample (school size effect modeled as quadratic function)

Study	Sample	School level	Direction of effect			Remarks
			-	<i>ns</i>	+	
Borland and Howsen (2003)	11-16	P		∩	760	Linear (+)
					∩	1130
Bradley and Taylor (1998)	11-16	S		∩	1230	Linear (+)
	11-16	S		∩	1350	Linear (+)
	11-18	S		∩	1440	Linear (+)
Foreman-Peck and Foreman-Peck (2006)	11-18	S		∩	560	Linear (+)
	1993-1994	S		U	1190	Linear (-) Only 4 % of schools were larger than the calculated minimum for 1993-1994
Sawkins (2002)	1998-1999	S		U	1230	Linear (-) Only 3.3 % of schools were larger than the calculated minimum for 1998-1999

*P* = primary, *S* = Secondary

- = negatively related with school size

*ns* = no significant relation with school size

∩ = optimal school size found

+ = positively related with school size

### ***3.5.4 School Size Measured as Categories***

In 15 studies (18 samples), schools were classified in categories, based on the number of pupils. Six studies (6 samples), were conducted in primary education and 10 studies (8 samples) in secondary education (see Table A.5). The range of school sizes included in the studies was variable. Some studies compared small and larger schools while in other studies schools of three or more different size categories were compared.

In three samples (2 studies), a positive relationship between school size and achievement was found (large schools doing better) (Gardner et al. 2000; McMillen 2004) and in three other samples (2 studies) a negative association (Eberts et al. 1990; Lee and Loeb 2000). In 16 samples, the relationship was nonsignificant, and in the remaining six samples a certain size category or optimum was favored (Alspaugh 2004; Lee and Smith 1997; Ready and Lee 2006; Rumberger and Palardy 2005).

In their study of 264 inner-city elementary schools in Chicago Lee and Loeb (2000) found that school size influenced both teachers and students. In small schools (with 400 pupils or less) 1 year gains in math achievement were significantly higher compared to those in mid-size (400–750 pupils) and large schools (750 pupils or more). Both direct and (small) indirect effects were found, the latter through teachers' positive attitudes about collective responsibility for student learning. The limited number of small schools participating in the study, however, was a drawback of the study. Only 25 of the 264 schools were small (400 pupils or less).

McMillen (2004) investigated the impact of school size achievement for three separate samples of students (at either elementary, middle, or high school level), using longitudinal achievement data from schools in North Carolina. At high school level, a positive and main effect was found of school size with both reading and math achievement after controlling for school and student demographic characteristics. Students in larger high schools were associated with higher achievement. But “the benefits of size at the high school level, however, appeared to accrue disproportionately ... to higher-achieving students, white students and students whose parents had more education, especially in mathematics ...” (p. 18). At the elementary and middle cohort the multilevel analyses yielded no statistical significant main effects for school size, but small interaction effects were found between size and prior achievement. Students who scored on grade level in the 3rd (respectively 6th) grade tended to do slightly better in larger middle and high schools. Students who scored below grade level in grade 3 (respectively 6) performed better in smaller schools. The interaction effects found at high school level (between size and ethnicity and size and parent education) were nonsignificant at primary and middle school level. McMillen also estimated curvilinear effects for school size. However, in all models tested, a better fit was achieved when only the linear term for school size was used. Possible explanations for the results found in the study refer to the broader curriculum offerings in large schools (higher

achieving students in large schools might be able to take more advantage of these) (see also Haller et al. 1990; Monk 1994), and/or the culture and organization of small schools. Students from disadvantaged and minority background might have better achievement in small schools because of the better social climate and more personal relationships between students and teachers.

Rumberger and Palardy (2005) used data from the National Education Longitudinal Study (Nels: 88) to estimate the impact of school size on achievement growth, drop-out rate and transfer rate. The study was based on a sample of 14,199 pupils from 912 schools in the United States (nationwide) and was one of the rare studies in which achievement growth and drop-out rate were investigated simultaneously. Results of the multilevel analyses showed that “schools that are effective in promoting student learning (growth in achievement) are not necessarily effective in reducing drop-out and transfer rates” (p. 24). An “inverted U” relationship was found for achievement and drop-out. Achievement growth was significantly higher in large high schools (1200–1800 pupils) as was also the drop-out rate. Next to this, it was found that background characteristics contributed differently to the variability in the various outcome measures (i.e., 58 % of the variance in school drop-out rates, 36 % of the variance in student achievement and 3 % of the variance in transfer) as did also school policies and practices. When dropout was the dependent variable, school policies and practices accounted for 25 % of the remaining variance after controlling for student background. This was far more than for achievement or transfer.

The study by Luyten (1994) is the only Dutch study examining the association between school size and achievement included in the review. Luyten employed multilevel analysis to investigate the effect of school size on math and science achievement in the Netherlands, Sweden, and the US. Controlling for background characteristics (sex, achievement motivation, socioeconomic status, and cognitive aptitude), the study did not reveal any significant effects in any of the three countries.

### ***3.5.5 Moderator Analyses***

For the studies and samples in which school size was measured as a continuous variable moderator analyses were conducted to examine the degree to which the relationship between school size and achievement could be attributed to specific characteristics of the study or sample. Also we investigated whether the school size and achievement correlation was moderated by the academic subjects in the achievement measure.

The analyses of vote counts applied to studies and samples addressing the impact of school size on achievement in different subject areas does not show differences of importance (see Table 3.4). The percentage of positive effects (students in larger schools having better performance) for achievement in science and “all other subjects” is somewhat higher than those for language and mathematics.

**Table 3.4** Results of vote counts examining the number and percentage of negative, nonsignificant, and positive effects of school size on academic achievement in all subjects, language, mathematics, science, and subjects other than math or language (school size measured as a continuous variable)

Subject	Negative effects	Nonsignificant effects	Positive effects	Negative effects	Nonsignificant effects	Positive effects
	N	N	N	%	%	%
All subjects	20	62	8	22	69	9
Subject math	5	19	1	20	76	4
Subject language	7	19	0	26	74	0
Subject science	1	4	1	17	67	17
Subject other than math or language	7	20	6	21	61	18

Moderator analyses of study and sample characteristics examining the number and percentage of negative, nonsignificant, and positive effects of school size on academic achievement are presented in Table 3.5. Of the moderator analyses of study and sample characteristics, the statistical technique employed and the inclusion of a covariate for student's prior achievement in the model tested are the most striking outcomes. More negative effects are found in studies that account for prior achievement as well as in studies that employed multilevel modeling.

### ***3.5.6 Social Cohesion: Attitudes of Students and Teachers Toward School***

Fourteen studies (15 samples, yielding in total 26 effect estimates) provided evidence about the relationship between school size and students' and teacher attitudes toward school (see Tables 3.7, A.6, A.7). Evidence about the effects of school size on attitudes was mainly available from secondary education (12 studies; 13 samples). Only two of the 14 studies examined the impact of school size on students' attitudes in primary education.

The majority of studies were conducted in the United States (9 studies; 10 samples). Other countries were Australia (1 study), Israel (1 study), Italy (1 study), and the Netherlands (2 studies).

The outcome variables (attitudes) measured in the studies could be classified into three main variables: identification and connection to school, relationships with students, and relationships with teachers (see Table 3.6). With regard to student attitudes identification and connectedness to schools the variables used included perceptions of pupils' like feeling part of the school, feeling competent and motivated, feeling safe, being happy and satisfied with school, with education and the usefulness of their school work in later life. Relationships with students targeted at perceptions of being happy together as well as the kindness and

**Table 3.5** Results of moderator analyses examining the number and percentage of negative, nonsignificant and positive effects of school size on academic achievement (school size measured as continuous variable)

Moderator	Negative effects N	Nonsignificant effects N	Positive effects N	Negative effects %	Nonsignificant effects %	Positive effects %
Level of schooling						
Primary school	7	24	1	22	75	3
Primary and secondary school	2	3	0	40	60	0
Secondary school	11	35	7	21	66	13
Country						
Canada	0	1	0	0	100	0
Hong Kong	0	0	1	0	0	100
Netherlands	0	2	0	0	100	0
Sweden	0	1	0	0	100	0
UK	2	5	5	17	42	42
USA	18	53	2	25	73	3
Covariates included						
Included covariate for student's prior achievement	8	15	1	33	63	4
Included covariate for ability	0	3	1	0	75	25
Included covariate for SES	8	23	3	24	68	9
Included covariate for composite SES	19	57	8	23	68	11
Included covariate for urbanicity	2	5	1	25	63	13
Statistical technique used						
Technique multilevel	7	13	2	32	59	9
Technique not multilevel	13	49	6	19	72	0
<i>Total</i>	20	62	8	22	69	9

helpfulness of their peers. The relationship with teachers is a variable in which relational aspects were included (e.g., the teacher treats pupils fairly and cares about them) as well as perceptions with regard to the support students receive (such as encouraging students to higher academic performance, helping pupils with school work).

As identification and connection to school is concerned, Kirkpatrick Johnson et al. (2001) distinguish between affective aspects (the feelings toward and identification with school, which he calls school attachment) and behavioral aspects

**Table 3.6** Overview of outcome variables and variable heading used in studies where attitudes of students and teachers toward school were the dependent variable

Variable	Variable heading
Student attitudes	School satisfaction (Bowen et al. 2000)
	Student school attachment (Crosnoe et al. 2004; Holas and Huston 2012; Kirkpatrick Johnson et al. 2001)
	Sense of belonging (Kahne, Sporte, De la Torre and Eaton)
	Achievement motivation (Koth et al. 2008)
	School connectedness (McNeely et al. 2002; Van der Vegt et al. 2005)
	Student engagement (Silins and Mulford 2004)
	Students sense of community in the school (Vieno et al. 2005)
	Classroom climate (De Winter 2003)
	Student engagement (Silins and Mulford 2004)
	Students sense of community in the school (Vieno et al. 2005)
Teacher attitudes	Relationship with peers
	Relationships with peers (Van der Vegt et al. 2005)
	Teacher support (Bowen et al. 2000)
	Student-teacher bonding (Crosnoe et al. 2004)
	Student school attachment (Holas and Huston 2012)
	Academic personalism, classroom personalism, student-teacher trust (Kahne et al. 2008)
	School connectedness (McNeely et al. 2002)
	Student engagement (Silins and Mulford 2004)
	Students' sense of community in the school (Vieno et al. 2005)
	Relationships with teachers (Van der Vegt et al. 2005)
Teacher attitudes	Teachers' collective responsibility (Lee and Loeb 2000)
	Communal school organization (Payne 2012)
	Organizational commitment (Rosenblatt 2001)
	Teacher-teacher trust (Kahne et al. 2008)
	Communal school organization (Payne 2012)
	Identification and connectedness to schools
	Relationship with teachers
	Teachers' collective responsibility (Lee and Loeb 2000)
	Communal school organization (Payne 2012)
	Organizational commitment (Rosenblatt 2001)



**Table 3.7** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, curvilinear, and positive effects of school size on students' and teachers' attitudes to school

	Studies	Samples	Direction of effect			
			–	<i>ns</i>	∩	+
School size measured as a continuous variable	9	9	12	4	0	0
School size measured as a quadratic function	1	1	0	1	1	0
School size measured as discrete variable (categories)	4	4	5	0	1	0
Total	14	14	17	5	2	0

– = negatively related with school size

*ns* = no significant relation with school size

∩ = optimal school size found

+

(students' participation or engagement). The latter refers to behaviors that represent participation, such as trying to their best in class, doing homework, and participate in extra-curricular activities. The authors further state that “theoretically, engagement and attachment are related to each other and to achievement. A student who feels more embedded in his or her school is more likely to exert effort, while one who participates in school and classroom activities is more likely to develop positive feelings about his or her school” (p. 320). Also, in previous research a positive relationship was found between identification and connection with aspects of schooling on the one hand and higher achievement and lower levels of problem behaviors on the other (e.g., Newmann et al. 1992; Bryk and Thum 1989; Gutman and Midgley 2000).

In this section, where the attitudes of students and teachers toward school are the outcome variable, we limit ourselves to attitudes to identification of and connection with school. Participation is addressed both in the section on involvement and in the section on other student outcomes.

Table 3.7 gives an overview of the number of studies, samples, and estimates included in the vote counting procedure for students' and teachers' attitudes to school. In total, 14 studies and 15 samples were included in the vote count. Two-third of the effects (derived from half of the 15 samples) between school size and attitudes to school appeared to be negative.

Two studies reported nonsignificant effects (Holas and Huston 2012; Kirkpatrick Johnson et al. 2001). Mixed effects were found in the studies by Crosnoe et al. (2004), Kahne et al. (2008), Van der Vegt et al. (2005). In these studies, both negative and nonsignificant effects were reported (see Tables A.8, A.9, A.10).

### ***3.5.7 School Size Measured as a Continuous Variable***

Eight studies reported linear negative effects of school size on attitudes to school. Five of these studies were conducted in the US, the other three in Australia, Israel, and Italy.

One of the five US studies in which a negative effect was found is the study by McNeely et al. (2002). The authors used evidence from a sample taken from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health (about 75,000 adolescents from 127 schools, grades 7–12). Average level of school connectedness of pupils was the dependent variable. This variable measured the degree to which students felt close to people at this school, felt safe, and felt part of the school, were happy and experienced that the teachers treated them fairly. Multilevel analysis was employed. Variables included in the model were student background characteristics at individual and school level, teacher qualifications, structural school characteristics, discipline policies and student participation, and classroom management. The results showed that small school size is positively associated with school connectedness, but the strength of this relationship was meager, as an increase of 500 students in school size was associated with a very small decline in school connectedness.

The studies not conducted in the United States focused on respectively the impact of school size on teachers' organizational commitment in Israeli schools (Rosenblatt 2001), student engagement and participation in Australia (Silins and Mulford 2004) and students' sense of community in the Veneto region in Italy (Vieno et al. 2005). Negative effects of school size on students' attitudes and teachers' attitudes were reported in the studies, respectively by Silins and Mulford (2004) and Rosenblatt (2001). Vieno et al. (2005) found a positive effect, although this effect was not significant. In this latter study, conducted in the Italian context, students' sense of community was measured by a six-item scale (example items were "our school is a nice place to be, our students accept me as I am and when I need extra help I can get it from my teacher"). School size appeared to be non-significant in this study, as well as many of the other structural characteristics (e.g., facilities, extracurricular activities, and whether the school is public or private). SES was significant at the school level but not at the individual level. An intermediate variable positively associated with sense of community was democratic school climate, a variable better malleable to change than school size and other structural variables.

Silins and Mulford (2004) employed path modeling to examine the association between school size and SES on both students' perceptions of teachers' work in the class and students' outcomes (such as attendance, participation in, and engagement with school). Engagement with school was operationalized as students' perceptions with regard to the way teachers and peers relate to them, the usefulness of their schoolwork in later life, and the extent of identification with their school. School size had an indirect and negative effect on engagement through participation (i.e., absences, participation in extracurricular activities,

preparedness to do extra school work, involvement in classroom decisions, etc.,  $ES = -0.16$ ). Students in large schools participated less and this was associated with less engagement.

In the study conducted in the Netherlands finally, mixed effects were found. Van der Vegt et al. (2005) reported a nonsignificant effect of school size on students' connectedness with school and significant negative effects of school size on both relationships with peers and relationships with teachers.

### ***3.5.8 Curvilinear Relationships***

Like, McNeely et al., Crosnoe et al. (2004) also used data from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health. The sample included 15,000 students from 84 schools. The mean school size was 1,381 (with a standard deviation of 838). Interpersonal climate was the dependent variable. It was measured with three variables: (1) student school attachment (the extent to which adolescents felt close to people at their school and felt a part of their schools), (2) student–teacher bonding (the extent to which adolescents believed that teachers treated students fairly and, felt that teachers cared about them), and (3) student extra-curricular participation. Multilevel modeling was applied to estimate the effects of school size. The intra-class correlation (amount of variation between schools) appeared to be smaller for school attachment and teacher bonding (3 and 5 %, respectively) than for extra-curricular participation (14 %). For school attachment and teacher bonding a curvilinear effect was found with the lowest levels of attachment and teacher binding occurring at a size of 1,900 or 1,700 students, respectively. For extracurricular participation, a negative linear effect was found. The authors conclude that, based on the results of their study, an optimal school size for school connectedness would be less than 300 students, considerably lower than the optimal size for academic achievement found in other studies.

### ***3.5.9 School Size Measured in Categories***

In two of the tree studies in which school size was measured in categories (Bowen et al. 2000; Lee and Loeb 2000) small schools were favored above larger schools. In the study by Bowen et al., the focus was on student attitudes. School satisfaction and teacher support were the dependent variables. In the study by Lee and Loeb the impact of school size on teachers' collective responsibility was investigated by means of teacher attitudes, i.e., the extent of a shared commitment among the faculty to improve the school so that all students learn.

Bowen et al. conducted their study in middle schools in the US and used five size categories (the smallest 0–399 pupils, the largest 1,000–1,399 pupils). They found negative effects of school size on school satisfaction and teacher support and

**Table 3.8** Overview of outcome variables and variable heading used in studies in which participation of students, teachers or parents was the dependent variable

	Variable	Variable heading
Participation of students	Extracurricular participation	Extracurricular participation (Coladarci and Cobb 1996; Crosnoe et al. 2004; Feldman and Matjasko 2006; Lay 2007; MacNeal 2008)
	Broader school participation	School involvement including school activity participation (Holas and Huston 2012) Participation in school activities (Silins and Mulford 2004)
Participation of teachers	Involvement in school decision making	Teacher influence (Kahne et al. 2008)
Participation of parents		Parent(s) act as a volunteer at the school (Dee et al. 2007)
		Average of total number of California Parent Teacher Association members for each affiliated school (Gardner et al. 2000)

concluded that “schools with enrolments of 800 or more might be too large to ensure a satisfactory educational environment.” Lee and Loeb (2000) employed their study in 264 schools in Chicago. They found that compared to small schools (0–400 pupils) “teachers’ views about the prevalence of collective responsibility appeared to be more negative in medium-sized schools (400–750 pupils) and even more in large schools (more than 750 pupils)”.

De Winter (2003) also used three size categories in his study (less than 500, 500–1,000, more than 1,000 pupils), which was conducted in Dutch secondary education. He concluded that an optimal size, as far as school climate for pupils is concerned is that a school is neither too big nor too small.

### 3.5.10 Participation

Participation of students, teachers, or parents was the dependent variable in 10 studies (see Tables 3.9, A.11, A.12). With the exception of the study by Holas and Huston, in which primary and middle schools were sampled both, all other studies were concerned with secondary education. Nine studies were conducted in the United States and one in Australia (Silins and Mulford 2004).

Seven of the ten studies provided evidence on participation of students, one about teachers and two about participation of parents (see Table 3.8). In five studies, students’ participation was restricted to participation in extracurricular activities; in the remaining two studies a broader operationalization of participation was taken. In the study by Holas and Huston, school involvement included four aspects (school attachment, teacher support, negative affect toward school and school activity participation). Higher scores represented higher involvement. Silins

**Table 3.9** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, curvilinear, and positive effects of school size on participation

	Studies	Samples	Direction of effect			
			–	<i>ns</i>	∩	+
School size measured as a continuous variable	7	8	8	0	0	0
School size measured as discrete variable (categories)	4	5	2	2	1	0
Total	10	13	10	2	1	0

– = negatively related with school size

*ns* = no significant relation with school size

∩ = optimal school size found

+

and Mulford used a broad concept of students' participation, including absences, participation in extracurricular activities, preparedness to do extra work, involvement in classroom/school decisions and setting own learning goals, and voicing opinion in class.

The study by Kahne et al. (2008) examined the impact of 4 years of small school reform in Chicago. A variety of teacher and student measures was included in the study, including teachers' involvement in school decision making (see also the section on other dependent variables).

The impact of school size on participation of parents was examined in two studies. Dee et al. (2007) included four-dependent variables about parental involvement in their study, each variable measured through one single item. The item addressing the most intense involvement with school (i.e., volunteering at school) was chosen to be included in this review.

The results of the vote count for school size on participation are presented in Table 3.9.

In almost all samples a negative and significant association between size and participation was found despite different conceptualizations, outcome measurements, and types of respondents (see also Tables A.13, A.14). Although the number of studies is limited such a pattern of results supports the claim that smaller schools are associated with greater engagement. This was also found in other review studies (see Leithwood and Jantzi 2009).

A dissenting opinion came from the study by Lay (2007), titled "Smaller isn't always better." In this study data from the 1999, National Household Survey was used to examine the effects of school size on participation in school activities. School size was measured in three ways: based on parental answers about the enrollment of their child's school (responses were classified in categories) as well as based on data taken from matching zip codes for each pupil respondent with the high school within its borders (data were both used to measure school size as continuous variable as well as classified in categories). Other variables in the model were race, parent income, and plan to attend college. Depending on the measurement of school size used the effects on school activities differed. In the model where school size categories were based on parental responses (with

categories <300, 300–599, 600–999 and over 1,000) the association between school size and participation was nonsignificant. When school size was measured by a continuous variable (based on matching zip codes with each pupil response) the effect was significant and negative. Finally, when categories based on the continuous measure were used (with categories <300, 301–600, 601–900, 901–1,200, 1,501–1,800, and over 1,800) a curvilinear relationship was found, in which participation in schools with 1501-1800 students was significantly less likely. According to the author, concerns over the measurement of school size as well the limited number of student, school, and community variables included in the model may account for the few significant effects found.

Teacher influence was just one of the 10 teacher measures included in the multilevel models of a study on the implementation and impact of Chicago High School Redesign Initiative (CHSRI) (Kahne et al. 2008). In this initiative, large traditional neighborhood high schools (non-CHSRI schools) were converted into small autonomous ones. Data were collected for four successive waves of 11th graders starting in the 2002–2003 school year when three CHSRI conversion schools had 11th graders to the 2005–2006 school year when 11 CHSRI schools had 11th graders. Based on the theory of change ten teacher outcome variables (e.g., collective responsibility, quality professional development, teacher-teacher trust) were included in the study as well as ten student outcome variables (e.g., quality of English instruction, academic press, sense of belonging), and four outcomes (absences, drop-out rate, graduation rate, and achievement test scores). A great number of student and school level background variables were controlled for. Three level hierarchical linear modeling was used to estimate the significance and effects of the CHSRI schools compared to around the rest of the Chicago Public Schools (the non-CHSRI schools). The main conclusion is that “given the newness of the reform and the small size of the samples, it is clearly too soon to make broad claims about the efficacy of small school conversions in Chicago. ... We see indications that small school conversions as promised provide a more personalized and supportive school context for students ... We saw evidence that smaller schools enable the creation of contexts for teachers (e.g., ones characterized by greater trust, commitment. and sense of influence) but that these contexts do not appear to be fostering more systematic efforts at instructional improvement, different instructional practices, and improved performance on standardized tests” (p. 299).

### ***3.5.11 School Safety***

Evidence about the relationship between school size and school safety was derived from 24 studies (25 samples) (see Tables 3.11, A.15, A.16). Two studies were conducted in primary education (Bonnet et al. 2009; Bowes et al. 2009), one study used samples both from primary and secondary school students (O’Moore et al. 1997) and in three studies elementary and secondary school students were sampled

**Table 3.10** Overview of outcome variables and variable heading used in studies in which safety was the dependent variable

Variable	Variable headings	Author(s)
Disciplinary school and class climate	School climate, respectful classroom behavior	Inspectorate of Education (2003), Kahne et al. (2008), Koth et al. (2008)
	Feelings of safety	Mooij et al. (2011)
	Students' behaviors (fights, use of alcohol, students' physical and verbal abuse of teachers etc.)	Bowen et al. (2000), Haller (1992)
	Misbehavior (disorder and bullying)	Chen (2008)
Bullying	School misbehavior	Stewart (2003)
	Bullying others and being bullies	Bowes et al. (2009), Klein and Cornell (2010), O'Moore et al. (1997), Van der Vegt et al. (2005), Wei et al. (2010), Winter (2003)
Problem behavior	Norm violating behaviors, alcohol, and marijuana	Chen and Vazsonyi (2013), Van der Vegt et al. (2005)
	Substance abuse while at school	Eccles et al. (1991)
	Suspensions	Heck (1993)
Violence	Sexual harassment	Attar-Schwartz (2009)
	Violence	Eccles et al. (1991), Leung and Ferris (2008), Van der Vegt et al. (2005), Watt (2003)
	Victimization (personal, property, physical, verbal)	Bonnet et al. (2009), Gottfredson and DiPietro (2011), Khoury-Kassabri et al. (2004), Klein and Cornell (2010)
	Crime (incidents)	Chen (2008), Chen and Weikart (2008)

together. The remaining 18 studies were conducted in secondary education. Thirteen studies were performed in the United States, five studies in The Netherlands (Bonnet et al. 2009; Inspectorate of Education 2003; Mooij et al. 2011; Van der Vegt et al. 2005; De Winter 2003), two in Israel (Attar-Schwartz 2009; Khoury-Kassabri et al. 2004), one in Ireland (O'Moore et al. 1997), one in the United Kingdom (Bowes et al. 2009), one in Canada (Leung and Ferris 2008), and one in Taiwan (Wei et al. 2010).

The outcome variables addressed in the 24 studies referred to various forms of student safety behavior, including (combinations of) disciplinary behavior, bullying, norm violating behavior, and different types of violence (see Table 3.10).

The summary of directions of effect for school size and safety is presented in Table 3.11 (for detailed information we refer to the Appendix, Tables A.17 and A.18). The results indicate that the number of negative and nonsignificant effects do not differ from each other.

**Table 3.11** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, curvilinear, and positive effects of school size on safety

	Studies	Samples	Direction of effect			
			–	ns	∩	+
School size measured as a continuous variable	17	17	19	17	0	5
School size measured as discrete variable (categories)	8	9	3	5	2	3
Total	24	25	21	22	2	9

– = negatively related with school size

ns = no significant relation with school size

∩ = optimal school size found

+ = positively related with school size

### 3.5.12 Positive Relationships/Mixed Effects

Positive effects of school size on feelings of safety were reported in five studies. With the exception of the study by O’Moore et al. (1997) in which a sample from primary and secondary schools was taken, all studies were conducted in secondary schools. The findings suggest that pupils felt more safely in large schools (Mooij et al. 2011); that less bullying and fighting takes place in larger schools (Klein and Cornell 2010; O’Moore 1997; De Winter 2003), and that in larger schools pupils were more satisfied with the safety policy and regulations (Van der Vegt et al. 2005). In contrast to the findings of De Winter, Van der Vegt et al. reported a negative effect of size on bullying and fighting. The three Dutch studies (Mooij et al. 2011; Van der Vegt et al. 2005; Winter 2003), and the US study (Klein and Cornell 2010) will be discussed below, the study by O’Moore in the section on curvilinear relationships.

Mooij et al. (2011) used data from almost 80,000 pupils, 6,000 teachers, and other staff and 600 managers from secondary school in the Netherlands to test a two level model of social cohesion influences on a pupil’s feelings of school safety. Personal background, level of attainment in education, school measures against violence (pro-social discipline) were positively associated with feelings of safety at school. Negative directions of effect were associated with not feeling at home in the Netherlands, peers taking drugs and weapons into school, by pupil’s experiencing social violence, severe physical violence, and sexual violence as well as by staff experiencing severe physical violence. Curriculum differentiation based on learning differences (the streaming process of pupils into secondary schools) also had a negative effect on feelings of safety. The effect of school size was positive: pupils felt more safely at larger schools. However, when interaction effects were added to the model (i.e., the interaction of school size with pupil social violence), the main effect for school size on pupil’s feelings of safety became insignificant. The authors conclude that “given the present results national policy should try to increase the safety of pupils and staff in school by enhancing pro-social rules of conduct and the shard control of these rules, taking school measures against truancy and redefining curriculum differentiation procedures” (p. 385/386).



Van der Vegt et al. (2005) investigated the effect of school size on feelings of safety, the availability of a safety policy, and the occurrence of bullying and fighting and vandalism, drugs and theft. About 5,000 secondary school pupils participated in the survey. Regression analysis was applied. The results found were both negative (more bullying and fighting, vandalism, drugs and theft at larger schools) and positive (pupils in large schools more satisfied with the safety policy and safety measures). School size had no effect on the perceptions (feelings) of safety.

De Winter (2003) found opposite effects, in this study being bullied, bullying and fighting occurred significantly more at smaller secondary schools, also after correction for level of attainment (school type, i.e., different streams of secondary education) or urbanicity. According to the author, an explanation might be that, as students at smaller schools do have more intense relationships with their peers, then more frequent bullying and fighting obviously might also be part of these contacts.

The study by Klein and Cornell (2010) is the only one of the 13 US studies that found positive effects. In this study, the data were collected in three different ways, by means of (1) student and teacher perceptions of victimization, (2) student self-reported number of experiences with victimization, and (3) rates of victimization based on school discipline records. Three types of victimization were the dependent variable (i.e., bullying, threats, and physical attacks). Other variables included in the model were poverty, proportion nonwhite students, diversity, and urbanicity. Regression analysis was applied. The results were mixed. When teacher and student perceptions of victimization were the dependent variable, the results indicated a negative effect (with significant higher levels of violence perceived in larger schools). However, nonsignificant effects were found when student self-reports of being a victim of violence were used. And if discipline violence rates were the measure, the results indicated a positive association. These contradictory findings suggest the need for a closer examination of the measures of victimization used: “If large schools truly have a higher rate of student victimization, it will be necessary for these schools to adopt stronger safety policies and prevention issues, but if the problem is one of perception only, then school authorities should focus on educational efforts to reassure students and help them to feel safe” (p. 943).

### ***3.5.13 Negative Relationships***

An inverse relation between school size and safety was reported in 11 studies (Attar-Schwartz 2009; Bowen et al. 2000; Chen 2008; Chen and Vazsonyi 2013; Eccles et al. 1991; Leung and Ferris 2008; Stewart 2003; see also Bowes et al. 2009; Gottfredson and DiPietro 2011; Haller 1992; Van der Vegt et al. 2005). The effect might be small (with an increase of e.g., 500 pupils in a school increasing the risk for being a victim of bullying after controlling for neighborhood and family background variables and children’s internalizing and externalizing behaviors, see

Bowes et al. 2009), or discontinue, i.e., school size only matters for schools of a certain size category (see Leung and Ferris 2008). To explain evidence on the association between school size and safety in some studies it was argued that other school organization conditions than size might be more likely to influence safety (see Stewart 2003).

Leung and Ferris (2008) examined the effect of school size on self-reported teenage incidence of violence of 17-year-old low SES French speaking males in Montreal, Canada, controlling for social and demographic characteristics. School size was measured both continuously and classified into four size categories (1,000 or less, 1,000–1,499, 1,500–1,999, 2,000 or more). Control variables included in the binary logistic model were drop-out status, average family income at school level, family structure, delinquent friends, and parent's education. Depending on the measure of school size used, the results of the logistic regression analysis differed. School size measured continuously was significantly (negatively) associated with teenage violence. The authors also calculated marginal effects. For school size in the continuous model this implied that "an increase in school enrolment of one thousand would lead to about a 10 % increase in the probability of teenage violence" (p. 328). When school size was measured discretely (broken down into four size categories) only for very large schools a negative effect was indicated. "It's marginal effect suggests that teenagers who attended a school with more than 2,000 students were about 22 % more likely to engage in violent behavior than those who attended schools with less than 1,000 students" (p. 328). No significant effects were found for small -and large medium-sized schools.

School delinquency/misbehavior was the dependent variable in the study conducted by Stewart (2003). In this study, data were used from the second wave of the National Education Longitudinal Study (NELS). More than 10,000 10th grade students within 528 schools participated in the study. School misbehavior was measured by means of a scale asking pupils how often during the first half of the current school year they got in trouble for not following school rules, were put on an in-school suspension, suspended, or put on probation from school and got into a physical fight at school. Multilevel modeling was applied to examine the effects six of school level and 14 pupil level covariates on school misbehavior. Two school level variables in the model were significant: school size and school location. Larger schools in urban areas had significantly higher levels of school misbehavior. At individual level 10 of the 14 covariates were found significant, including three of the four school social bond variables distinguished in the study. Higher levels of school attachment, school commitment, and beliefs in school rules were positively associated with lower levels of misbehavior. School involvement, the 4th social bond variable, was (positive but) not significantly related to misbehavior. A further interesting result of this study is that the other school covariates (school composition, school poverty, school social problems, and social cohesion) were not significantly associated with school misbehavior.

### ***3.5.14 Curvilinear Relationships***

The only study that reported curvilinear relationships was the study by O'Moore et al. (1997). This study was conducted in Ireland in both a sample of primary and secondary schools. Three categories of size were distinguished (less than 200 students, 200–499 pupils, and 500 pupils or more). The results were mixed. In primary schools no significant differences were found between school size categories and the incidence of being bullied, while in secondary schools the chance of being bullied was least common in large schools. With regard to bullying others, both in primary and secondary education the highest proportion of pupils who bullied others were found in medium-sized schools.

### ***3.5.15 Moderator Analyses***

For the studies and samples in which school size was measured as a continuous variable moderator analyses were conducted to examine study and sample characteristics that may account for the differences of directions of effect found (see Table 3.12). The statistical technique employed and if a study was conducted in the United States are the most prominent outcomes. More negative effects are found in studies applied in the United States, as well as in studies that did not apply multilevel modeling. More significant effects (both negative and positive) were found if urbanicity was controlled for.

### ***3.5.16 Student Absence and Dropout***

Twelve studies (15 samples) reported on evidence about attendance, truancy, or absenteeism. The effect of school size on dropout was examined in four studies (5 samples). Almost all studies (and samples) were conducted in secondary schools, with one study reporting evidence from primary schools (Durán-Narucki 2008) and two studies employed in samples of both primary and secondary students (Eccles et al. 1991; Heck 1993). With the exception of the study by Bos et al. (1990), conducted in the Netherlands and the study by Foreman-Peck and Foreman-Peck (2006) conducted in Wales (United Kingdom), all studies relate to the context of the United States. Two studies (Gardner et al. 2000; Kahne et al. 2008) investigated the effect of size on both absenteeism and dropout.

The predominant outcome variables included in the studies were attendance, absenteeism, and drop-out rate (see Tables 3.13, 3.14, A.19, A.20, A.21, A.22). Perceptions with regard to truancy and absenteeism were measured in just two studies.

**Table 3.12** Results of moderator analyses examining the number and percentage of negative, nonsignificant, and positive effects of school size on safety

Moderator	Negative effects	Nonsignificant effects	Positive effects	Negative effects	Nonsignificant effects	Positive effects
	N	N	N	%	%	%
<i>Level of schooling</i>						
Primary school	1	2	0	33	66	0
Primary and secondary school	3	0	0	100	0	0
Secondary school	15	14	5	44	41	15
<i>Country</i>						
Canada	1	0	0	100	0	0
Israel	1	4	0	20	80	0
Netherlands	2	1	2	40	20	40
Taiwan	0	2	0	0	100	0
UK	1	2	0	33	67	0
USA	14	8	3	54	33	13
<i>Covariates included</i>						
Included covariate for SES	9	12	4	36	48	16
Included covariate for composite SES	14	14	3	45	45	10
Included covariate for urbanicity	8	3	4	53	20	27
<i>Statistical technique used</i>						
Technique multilevel	3	9	1	23	69	8
Technique not multilevel	16	8	4	57	29	14
<i>Total</i>	19	17	5	46	42	12

Before calculating the vote counts, the results of some studies were rescored, so that in all cases a positive effect denotes a situation of high attendance and less absenteeism, truancy or drop-out.

Table 3.15 shows the summary of the vote counts for studies in which attendance or truancy were the dependent variable. One study (Durán-Narucki (2008) reported a positive relationship between school size and attendance rate. Four studies reported negative effects (less attendance in larger schools) (Eccles et al. 1991; Foreman-Peck and Foreman-Peck 2006; Haller 1992; Jones et al. 2008). Mixed effects were reported in three studies (Kahne et al. 2008; Kuziemko 2006; Lee et al. 2011) and nonsignificant relationships in three studies as well (Bos et al. 1990; Chen and Weikart 2008; Heck 1993). One study (Gardner et al. 2000) reported evidence favoring small schools (see also Tables A.23, A.24).

With regard to drop-out, three of the five studies reported significant differences between size categories. In the fourth study (Kahne et al. 2008), in which a linear effect of size was investigated, no statistically significant relations were found (see also Table 3.16, A.25, A.26).

**Table 3.13** Overview of outcome variables and variable heading used in studies in which attendance/absenteeism and truancy are the dependent variable

Variable	Variable headings	Author(s)
Truancy	Percentage of pupils absent	Bos et al. (1990)
	Perceptions with regard to truancy	Haller (1992)
Attendance	Attendance rate	Chen and Weikart (2008), Durán-Narucki (2008), Foreman-Peck and Foreman-Peck (2006), Heck (1993), Jones et al. (2008), Kuziemko (2006), Lee et al. (2011)
Absenteeism	Absenteeism rate	Gardner et al. (2000), Kahne et al. (2008)
	Perceptions with regard to absenteeism	Eccles et al. (1991)

**Table 3.14** Overview of outcome variables and variable heading used in studies in which dropout is the dependent variable

Variable	Variable headings	Author(s)
Drop-out	Drop-out rate	Gardner et al. (2000), Kahne et al. (2008), Lee and Burkam (2003), Rumberger and Palardy (2005)

**Table 3.15** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, curvilinear, and positive effects of school size on attendance/absenteeism and truancy

	Studies	Samples	Direction of effect			
			–	<i>ns</i>	∩	+
School size measured as a continuous variable	11	15	9	11	0	2
School size measured as discrete variable (categories)	1	1	1	0	0	0
Total	12	16	10	11	0	2

– = negatively related with school size  
*ns* = no significant relation with school size  
 ∩ = optimal school size found  
 + = positively related with school size

**Table 3.16** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, curvilinear, and positive effects of school size on drop-out

	Studies	Samples	Direction of effect			
			–	<i>ns</i>	∩	+
School size measured as a continuous variable	1	2	0	2	0	0
School size measured as discrete variable (categories)	3	3	1	0	2	0
Total	4	5	1	2	2	0

– = negatively related with school size  
*ns* = no significant relation with school size  
 ∩ = optimal school size found  
 + = positively related with school size

### ***3.5.17 Positive Relationships/Mixed Effects***

Durán-Narucki (2008) investigated the relationship between the quality of school building facilities and poor English Language Arts and math achievement (i.e., percentage of students that scored on the lowest level) in 95 elementary schools in New York City. Attendance, measured as the average percentage of days attended school in a school year, was included as a potential mediator variable in the study. Covariates in the model were concentrated ethnicity, SES, teacher quality, and school size. The findings of the regression analysis indicated that school size was significantly and positively related with daily attendance, i.e., the study found significantly higher attendance in larger schools. The effects of school size on the percentage of students having poorer performance in English and math achievement were negative, but did not reach statistical significance. School attendance mediated the relation between school building condition and achievement, fully for poor performance in English Language Arts and partially for math. The author did not provide an explanation for the effect of size found in the study.

Lee et al. (2011) investigated the effectiveness of the Ohio High School Transformation Initiative (OHSTI) on attendance, graduation, dropout rates, and performance index scores. This school improvement initiative focused on transforming large high schools to small learning communities. In the Initiative a large school is defined as above 800 students, a small learning community as 100 students per grade level or 400 students in total. Between 30 and 35 schools participating in the study were small schools, approximately 200 schools were defined as large but being similar to the OHSTI schools. Mann-Whitney tests were performed to analyze attendance rates between small and large schools over 5 school years. In the first four years of the Initiative no significant differences were found between small and large schools, in the most recent school year (2007–2008) the attendance rate was significantly lower in small schools. Regarding drop-out rates (these were compared at grade level instead of school level and therefore not included in the review), the findings of the study indicated no consistent pattern. Although the study “observed some progress in small schools” the authors stated that “small schools programs alone are not the answer to improve education” (p. 25). Creating sense of community, extending the school day or year for students who need it and attracting and retaining effective teachers might be key factors as well.

### ***3.5.18 Negative Relationships***

Four studies reported negative effects (less attendance in larger schools). In two of these studies student and teacher ratings with regard to absenteeism were the outcome measure (Eccles et al. 1991; Haller 1992), while in the other two the effect of size on (attendance) rate was examined (Foreman-Peck and Foreman-Peck 2006; Jones et al. 2008).

Eccles et al. (1991) used data from the National Educational Longitudinal Study (NELS: 88). They found absenteeism, violence, and substance abuse significantly more often being reported as a major problem in larger schools by both teachers and students. Haller (1992) came to the same conclusion. In his study, perceptions of school level student indiscipline (truancy and vandalism/theft) was estimated from three sources (student, teacher, and self-reports) and regressed on school size and ruralness. The results show that ruralness and size together add significantly to the variance explained. Size appeared to be more important than ruralness. Interaction effects were also found: “the larger a rural school ..., the greater its level of indiscipline” (p. 152). In the conclusion the authors hold a plea for other criteria than improving student behavior underlying decisions on consolidating schools (such as equity and efficiency). As far as student behavior is concerned, implementing relatively easy malleable school practices (such as identifying all pupils not attendant each morning) might be even effective as well.

### ***3.5.19 Nonsignificant Relationships***

Chen and Weikart (2008) investigated the relationship between school size, school disorder, student attendance, and achievement. The model builds upon the School Disorder Model (Welsh et al. 2000) and was extended for this study with student achievement. 212 middle schools in New York City participated in the study. Percentage free lunch and percentage white students were the control variables. Structural Equation Modeling was applied. Higher school disorder ( $\beta = -0.10$ ), a lower attendance rate ( $\beta = -0.08$ ), and lower achievement ( $\beta = -0.02$ ) were found in larger schools but the effects were not statistically significant. The hypothesis that “school size has an indirect effect on academic achievement mediated by school disorder and student attendance rate” could also not be confirmed (p. 15). However, the results indicated a strong positive relationship between attendance rate and achievement ( $\beta = 0.54$ ). Like Eccles et al., Chen and Weikart also suggest to focus on measures to improve school climate, including attendance policies, instead of reducing school size.

### ***3.5.20 School Size Measured as Categories***

Three studies reported differences on attendance or dropout rate between various school size categories (Gardner et al. 2000; Lee and Burkam 2003; Rumberger and Palardy 2005). Gardner et al. compared small Californian public schools (between 200 and 600 pupils) and large schools (2,000 pupils or more). Student achievement (four measures), absenteeism, and dropout were the dependent variables. The results indicated a significant positive effect of school size on all student achievement measures. At the same negative effects were found for absenteeism

and dropout. So students at larger schools performed better, but were more absent and dropout in large schools was significantly higher. This was also the conclusion in the study by Rumberger (1995). In this study (see the section on student achievement for a more elaborated description) an “inverted U” relationship was found for achievement and drop-out with large high schools (1,200–1,800 pupils) having significant higher achievement gain but also higher drop-out rates.

Lee and Burkam (2003) study built on the study by Rumberger (1995). Lee and Burkam also used the longitudinal data from the National Educational Longitudinal Study (NELS: 88). The sample consisted of 3,840 students in 190 schools from the High School Effectiveness supplement of NELS: 88. Whether a student dropped out between 10th and 12th grade was the dependent variable. Four categories of school size were compared (<600, 601–1,500, 1,501–2,500, >2,500). Binary logistic multilevel modeling was applied. The results indicated that “compared to medium-sized schools (601–1,500 pupils), large and very large schools have higher drop-out rates. This was particularly true for large schools (nearing a 300 % increase in the odds of dropping out,  $p < 0.001$ ). Small schools also had higher dropout rates than medium-sized schools (more than a 100 % increase in the odds,  $p < 0.10$ )” (p. 22). Interaction effects indicated that in public or catholic schools of small and medium size with positive student–teacher relations, the probability on drop-out is less. The final model explains 12 % of the between school variance of drop-out. Besides the school level factors included in this study (school demographics, schools’ academic organization, and schools’ social organization) other factors might be of influence as well.

### ***3.5.21 Other Student Outcome Variables***

Six studies reported on school size effects on other student outcomes, i.e., student attitudes towards self and learning, and engagement (see Tables 3.17, A.27, A.28). One of these studies collected data from primary schools and middle schools (Holas and Huston 2012), the remaining studies all included evidence from secondary schools. One study (Inspectorate of Education 2003) was conducted in the Netherlands, the other six studies in the United States.

The results were mixed (see Tables 3.18, A.29, A.30). Two studies (Coladarci and Cobb 1996; Holas and Huston 2012) reported nonsignificant relationships between school size and student outcomes, two other studies reported negative effects (Lay 2007; Weiss et al. 2010). For one study (Kirkpatrick Johnson et al. 2001), a nonsignificant effect was found at the primary level, while at the secondary level larger schools were associated with less student engagement. In the study by Lay (2007) the direction of effect found differed depending on how school size was measured. When school size categories were the independent variable (either based on parental responses or on the continuous measure) a curvilinear relationship was found (with students in schools with fewer than 300 students significantly more likely to volunteer in community services). However, when school size was



**Table 3.17** Overview of variables and variable heading used in studies on other student outcome variables

Variable	Variable headings	Author(s)
Attitudes	Pupil attitudes towards self or learning	Self-esteem (Coladarci and Cobb 1996)
		Perceived efficacy and competence in English and math (Holas and Huston 2012)
Behavior	Engagement	Engagement in school (Kirkpatrick Johnson et al. 2001)
		Academic engagement (Lee and Smith 1995)
		Participation in community services (Lay 2007)
		School engagement (Weiss et al. 2010)

**Table 3.18** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, curvilinear, and positive effects of school size on other student outcome variables

	Studies	Samples	Direction of effect			
			-	ns	∩	+
School size measured as a continuous variable	4	5	2	3	0	0
School size measured as discrete variable (categories)	3	3	1	1	2	0
Total	5	7	3	4	2	0

measured continuously, the relationship between size and participation was nonsignificant.

### 3.5.22 Attitudes

Two studies, one in US middle and one in US high schools investigated the relationship between school size and student attitudes. Coladarci and Cobb 1996 examined the indirect effect of school size on 12th grade academic achievement and self-esteem through (total time spent on) extracurricular participation. Using evidence from the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988 database, only students who attended either a small high school (less than 800 pupils) or a large high school (1,600 or more pupils) were considered in the study. Structural equation modeling was applied. Variables included in the model were prior self-esteem and prior achievement, SES, size, total extracurricular participation and total time spent on extracurricular participation. The authors did find a significant negative effect of school size on extracurricular participation ( $\beta = -0.210$ ), with higher extracurricular participation among students attending smaller schools. The indirect effects of school size on achievement ( $\beta = -0.005$ ) and self-esteem ( $\beta = -0.015$ ) through extracurricular participation were negative, but not significant.

Holas and Huston (2012) applied path analysis to compare student achievement, school engagement and perceived efficacy and competence in English and math of students starting middle schools in 5th and 6 grades compared to students of the same

grade in elementary schools. School characteristics (observed classroom quality, teacher-related classroom quality, school percentage of minority and poor students, and school size) were included in the path model as intermediate variables. The authors did not find significant effects of school size on any of the outcome variables of students in 5th grade. In 6th grade, school size was negative and significantly related to school engagement. In 6th grade, the study failed to find significant associations between size and perceived self-competence or achievement.

### **3.5.23 Engagement**

Three studies investigated the impact of school size on student engagement in schools (Kirkpatrick Johnson et al. 2001; Lee and Smith 1995; Weiss et al. 2010). In these studies engagement in school was operationalized in very different ways (see Table A.27). Lee and Smith (1995) used the concept academic engagement, a composite of eight items measuring student behavior related to work in class. Kirkpatrick Johnson et al. (2001) focused on engagement in school (operationalized as attendance, attention for school work and doing homework), while Weiss et al. (2010) used a very broad composite measure of engagement based on seven variables: teacher experience, delinquent behavior, academic friend, educational motivation, teachers' belief about ability, school preparedness, and parental involvement.

Lee and Smith (1995) investigated the effects of school size on achievement gain and academic engagement, using data from the National Educational Longitudinal Study 1988. Their analysis controlled for school restructuring practices, SES, minority status, initial ability, average school SES, minority concentration, sector, academic emphasis, and course-taking differentiation. The authors found both significantly higher and more socially equitable achievement gain and academic engagement in smaller schools. In the discussion of the article the authors wonder whether reducing school size really is the issue. "We would not draw that conclusion from our results. ... Rather the findings indicate that the size of enrolments act as a facilitating or debilitating factor for other desirable practices. For example, collegiality among teachers, personalized relationships, and less differentiation of instruction by ability ... are more common and easier to implement in small schools" (p. 261/262).

Weiss et al. (2010) also investigated the impact of size on achievement and engagement in US high schools. Using data from the Educational Longitudinal Study (ELS 2002) they found that "there are significant differences related to student engagement between schools of different size categories, while school size is not significantly related to mathematics achievement. Compared with students attending schools of the smallest size (the omitted category in the multilevel analysis), those in schools with 1,000–1,599 students or with more than 1,600 students have (significant) lower levels of engagement" (p. 170). Differences related to demographic characteristics were also examined in the study. Students previously held back were significantly less engaged, students from higher

**Table 3.19** Overview of outcome variables and variable heading used in studies on school organisation and teaching and learning

Variable	Variable headings	Author(s)
Teaching and learning	Expectations and support	Expectations for postsecondary education (Kahne et al. 2008)
		Academic press (Kahne et al. 2008)
		Peer support for academic achievement (Kahne et al. 2008)
	Instruction	School-wide future orientation (Kahne et al. 2008)
		Pedagogical and didactical approach (Inspectorate of Education 2003)
		Quality student discussions in classroom (Kahne et al. 2008)
		Quality English instruction (Kahne et al. 2008)
School organization	Teacher attitudes	Quality math instruction (Kahne et al. 2008)
		Teachers’ work (Silins and Mulford 2004)
	Leadership	Teacher efficacy (Eccles et al. 1991)
		Teachers’ collective responsibility (Kahne et al. 2008)
		Commitment to innovation (Kahne et al. 2008)
	Curriculum	Principal instructional leadership (Kahne et al. 2008)
		Teacher Leadership (Silins and Mulford 2004)
		Program coherence (Kahne et al. 2008)
Professional development	Quality professional development (Kahne et al. 2008)	
	Reflective dialogue (Kahne et al. 2008)	
Organizational learning	Organizational learning (Silins and Mulford 2004)	

educated parents, students with higher SES, students with Hispanic background and females have significantly higher engagement. African–American students were not significantly different in engagement than white students.

### 3.5.24 School Organization and Teaching and Learning

Three studies in the review included measures of the impact of school size on school organization and teaching and learning (see Table 3.19). These studies had different aims and scope.

Thirteen of the 17 effects reported are derived from the study by Kahne et al. (2008), three from the study of Silins and Mulford, and each one from the study by Eccles et al. (1991) and the study of the Dutch Inspectorate of Education (see Tables A.31, A.32). The results of the vote counts are mixed: most effect sizes appeared to be not significant, six effects reported were negative (favouring small

**Table 3.20** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, curvilinear, and positive effects of school size on school organization and teaching and learning

	Studies	Samples	Direction of effect			
			–	<i>ns</i>	∩	+
School size measured as a continuous variable	3	3	6	11	0	0
School size measured as discrete variable (categories)	1	1	0	0	1	0
Total	4	4	6	11	1	0

– = negatively related with school size

*ns* = no significant relation with school size

∩ = optimal school size found

+

schools), and for one study a curvilinear relationship was found (see Tables 3.20, A.33, A.34).

### 3.5.25 *Negative and Nonsignificant Relationships*

The study by Kahne et al. (2008) focused on the implementation and impact of the first phase of the Chicago High School Redesign Initiative (CHSRI). A theoretical framework summarizing the theory of change underlies this study and portrays the mechanisms through which the characteristics of small school reform are thought to promote a supportive and personalized context for students as well as a desirable teacher context for reform, which in turn would impact on instruction and different types of student outcomes (absences, drop-out rate, graduation rate, and achievement test scores) (for a more elaborated description see also the section on participation. The results of the three level multilevel analysis yielded four significantly negative effects and nine nonsignificant effects. It was found that teachers in CHSRI schools had a better context for reform (significantly greater level of commitment to innovation and a higher sense of collective responsibility). CHSRI schools also provided a more supportive context for students (with significantly higher expectations for postsecondary education and school-wide future orientation, but no significant difference for peer support for academic achievement). However, after the first phase, the improved contexts for teacher and students in CHSRI schools did not have a statistically significant impact on facilitators for instructional improvement (principal leadership, professional development, program coherence) and improved instructional practices (quality of student discussions, quality of English and math instruction, academic press). So although some significant positive indications of the effects Chicago High School Redesign Initiative were visible, after 5 years it still “might be too soon to make broad claims about the efficacy of small school conversions in Chicago” (p. 299).

Silins and Mulford (2004) employed path modeling to examine the impact of school external (size and SES) and school internal variables on teacher leadership,

organizational learning, teachers' work and ultimately students' outcomes (i.e., participation in and engagement with school). The study was conducted in Australia. School size had a significant negative indirect effect on organizational learning through staff perceptions of the availability of resources. School size was not significantly associated with teacher leadership and teachers' work.

### ***3.5.26 Curvilinear Relationship***

The study of the Dutch Inspectorate of Education (2003) had the aim to investigate the associations between various aspects of the quality of Dutch secondary schools as assessed by the Inspectorate (such as achievement, pedagogical and didactical approach, pupil guidance, and quality care) and elements of school structure (size, school types, and locations). In this study, a curvilinear effect was found between school size and the quality of the pedagogical and didactical approach. The results indicated mid-size schools (500–1,000 pupils) having the lowest score on the quality of the pedagogical and didactical approach.

### ***3.5.27 Costs***

The review on costs was limited to studies that investigated variations in per pupil expenditure between schools of different sizes. Studies in which costs were measured at the above school level (at the district level for example as in Chakraborty et al. (2000)) were excluded.

Five studies investigated variations in economic outcomes at school level (see Tables A.35, A.36). Four studies were from the USA and one from the Netherlands. Two studies were conducted in primary education (Merkies 2000; Stiefel et al. 2000), one in secondary education (Bickel et al. 2001) and two studies related to both primary and secondary education (Bowles and Bosworth 2002; Lewis and Chakraborty 1996).

All studies reported a significant negative effect of school size on costs per pupil (Bickel et al. 2001; Bowles and Bosworth 2002; Lewis and Chakraborty 1996; Merkies, Stiefel et al. 2000) (see Tables 3.21, A.37). A similar pattern was reported in each study. Sharp decreases in per pupil expenditure occur as the school size increases from very low to average, whereas the increase from average onwards is associated with much more modest decreases in costs. All studies take into account the impact of student population characteristics (e.g., income and ethnicity) and educational output (e.g., achievement scores, dropout or graduation rates) when assessing the effect of school size on costs per student. The effect of school size remains intact when controlling for educational output. In the study by Stiefel et al. (2000), however, the effect of school size largely disappears when taking into account student population characteristics (especially limited English proficiency).

**Table 3.21** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, curvilinear, and positive effects of school size on costs

	Studies	Samples	Direction of effect			
			–	<i>ns</i>	∩	+
School size measured as a continuous variable	4	4	4	0	0	0
School size measured as discrete variable (categories)	1	1	0	1	0	0
Total	5	5	4	1	0	0

– = negatively related with school size

*ns* = no significant relation with school size

∩ = optimal school size found

+

### 3.5.28 Negative Relationships

Bickel et al. (2001) examined the association between size, achievement, and costs (expenditure per pupil) in 1,001 Texas high schools. Besides the effect of size on costs for the total group of schools, the authors were also interested in the differential effects for the two types of high schools that could be distinguished in the sample: “conventional high schools,” schools serving a narrow range of secondary school grades, and “single-unit schools,” schools typically the only school in a small rural district spanning all elementary and secondary grades. Other variables included in the study were ethnic, linguistic, and socioeconomic background of pupils, organizational and curriculum characteristics, achievement, and student–teacher ratio. The results of the multiple regression analysis indicated that school size was negatively related to expenditure per pupil, in total and also for conventional and single-unit schools. But compared to conventionally grade-specialized high schools, single unit schools were associated with substantial lower expenditure per pupil. On average, the savings in single unit schools correspond to a reduction of over \$1,000 per pupil. The savings decline as these schools become larger. Bickel et al. attribute the savings to a diminished need for coordination and control due the facts that single unit school in all cases were the only school in the district, and covered the full range of grades.

Bowles and Bosworth (2002) used data that contained rather detailed expenditure data to examine the effect of size on expenditure per student across a 4-year period (1994–1998). Data were collected from 80 primary, middle, and high schools in Wyoming. The authors applied different regression models. The results were consistent, finding a negative effect across all model specifications, suggesting that the expenditure per pupil decreases as school size increases. Across school types, “an increase of 10 % in school size decreases costs per student by approximately 2 %” (p. 299).

Lewis and Chakraborty (1996) investigated the effect of both school size and district size on cost per student using data from Utah (U.S.). Their analyses controlled for educational output (dropout and graduation rates) and several other

relevant factors (e.g., income, teacher salaries). An inverse relation between school size and costs per student was established. The analyses also indicated that the impact of school size on costs per student clearly outweighs the impact of district size.

The fourth study (Merkies 2000) relates to primary school in the Netherlands. Here an optimal size of around 450 pupils is reported. It was found that “from the average school (200 pupils) onwards the average costs remain virtually constant. For schools with more than twice the average number of pupils there are hardly any more economies of scale” (p. 206).

The last study included in the review (Stiefel et al. 2000) estimated the effect of size on the budget per student and on the 4-year budget per graduate (a combined output and cost measure), while controlling for type of school and student background. 121 New York City public high schools participated in the study. Three categories of school size are compared (0–600, 600–2,000, >2,000 pupils), each including different types representing the mission or the program of the school. The authors reported a significant negative effect of school size on both budget per student and 4-year budget per graduate. When taking into account school population characteristics (especially limited English proficiency) differences in budget per graduate turned out to be minimal: “small schools are cost effective but so are also large schools in New York City” (p. 36–37).

### 3.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, the results of a research synthesis of the effects on school size on various outcome variables are presented. The research synthesis sought answers on the following research questions:

- (1) What is the impact of school size on various cognitive and noncognitive outcomes?
- (2) What is the “state of the art” of the empirical research on economies of size?

To answer the first question the impact of school size of variety of student, teacher, parents’, and school organizational outcome variables was investigated. A distinction was made between outcome variables, i.e., cognitive and noncognitive outcome variables, and school organization variables. To answer the second question, costs was included as a dependent variable in the review.

A meta-analysis of the vote-count type was carried out, which means that an overview is given from studies and samples that showed significant positive, significant negative, curvilinear or nonsignificant relationships between school size and various dependent variables. Eighty studies, 127 samples, and 277 estimates were included in the vote counting procedure. The results are presented in Table 3.22.

The overall pattern of the vote counting procedure show that, across all studies that examined the association between school size and any dependent variables,

**Table 3.22** Directions of effect of school size on various dependent variables

Dependent variable	Studies	Samples	Direction of effect							
			– N	<i>ns</i> N	∩ N	+	– %	<i>ns</i> %	∩ %	+
Achievement	46	64	23	78	14	11	18	62	11	9
Students' and teachers' attitudes to school	14	14	17	5	2	0	71	21	8	0
Participation	10	13	10	2	1	0	77	15	8	0
Safety	24	25	21	22	2	9	39	41	4	17
Attendance/absenteeism and truancy	12	16	10	11	0	2	43	48	0	9
Drop-out	4	5	1	2	2	0	20	40	40	0
Other student outcome variables (attitudes towards self and learning, engagement)	5	7	3	4	2	0	33	44	22	0
School organization and teaching and learning	4	4	6	11	1	0	33	61	6	0
Costs	5	5	5	0	0	0	100	0	0	0
Total <sup>a</sup>	84	107	95	136	23	23	35	49	8	8

– = negatively related with school size

*ns* = no significant relation with school size

∩ = optimal school size found

+

<sup>a</sup> Because publications and samples may refer to more than one dependent variable, the total number of publications and samples is lower than the sum of samples and publications

almost half (49 %) of the effect estimates appeared to be nonsignificant, and one-third (34 %) negative. Positive effect relationships were found for less than 10 % of the estimates. Based on these overall results we cannot conclude that smaller schools are generally better for all types of outcomes.

However, when attitudes of students and teachers toward school or participation of students or parents in school (related) activities were the outcome variables, the results tend to indicate a negative association. The operationalization of attitudes in the studies referred to identification and connection with school (both students and teachers), relationships with peers or colleagues and relationships with teachers (students). Participation was operationalized as either participation in school related or extracurricular activities (students), act as a volunteer or being member of a parent association (parents) and involvement in decision making (teachers). For attitudes and participation, 70 % or more of the estimates was negative, none positive, and for studies and samples in which nonsignificant effects were reported the direction appeared to be negative as well.

The relationship between size and academic achievement was investigated in more than half of the number studies included in the review. The results show a mixed pattern with 62 % of the associations between size and achievement reported as statistically nonsignificant, 20 % as negative and 9 % positive.



The pattern for safety and attendance and truancy show results that are comparable to the overall results. For safety and attendance the number of negative and nonsignificant findings do not differ that much from each other. However, on the contrary to what was found for attitudes and participation, where nonpositive effects were reported, for safety one out of five estimates were positive (17 % of the estimates, derived from five studies). In the studies that found positive effects, specific measured of safety were addressed. In these studies safety referred to either more general feelings (pupils felt more safely in large schools, Mooij et al. 2011); bullying and fighting (bullying and fighting occurred less in larger schools, Klein and Cornell 2010; O'Moore 1997; Winter 2003), and more satisfaction with the safety policy and regulations (Van der Vegt et al. 2005). Other operationalizations used in the studies, for which no positive effects were found, referred to (combinations of) disciplinary behavior, bullying, norm violating behavior, and several types of violence.

The association between school size and school organization and teaching and learning was investigated in three studies. The majority of effects reported (13 out of 17) are derived from one study. As for achievement the results found are mixed, with more than half of the estimates being nonsignificant.

For academic achievement and safety moderator analyses were carried out for the studies and samples in which school size was measured as a continuous variable. For academic achievement the most striking outcomes of these analyses concerned the statistical technique employed and the inclusion of a covariate for student's prior achievement in the model. Negative effects were more found in studies that account for prior achievement as well as in studies that employed multilevel modeling. For safety more negative effects were also found in applied multilevel modeling. Next to this, the percentage of negative effects found is somewhat higher for studies conducted in the US context and more significant (both positive and negative) effects were found if urbanicity was controlled for.

The review of costs was limited to studies that investigated variations in per pupil expenditure between schools of different sizes. All five studies included in the review reported a negative effect of school size on costs per pupil. The pattern reported in each study was in the same direction: sharp decreases in per pupil expenditure occur as the school size increases from very low to average, whereas the increase from average onwards is associated with much more modest decreases in costs.

## **Annex**

### ***Student Achievement***

See Tables [A.1](#), [A.2](#), [A.3](#), [A.4](#) and [A.5](#).

**Table A.1** Overview of studies of school size on student achievement

Overview of studies of school size on student achievement								
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Student achievement measure	Mean	SD	Database
Åberg-Bengtsson (2004)		Sweden	P	Small rural schools; Schools with an enrolment of less than 75 students and located in a rural district versus schools with an enrolment of 75 students and more	Reading literacy			IEA reading literacy (1990–1991)
Alspaugh (2004)		USA (Missouri)	P	School size (K-5 enrolment) <200 200–299 300–399 400–499 >=500	Composite (5 Stanford 9 NCE achievement measures: reading, math, language, science, social science)			
Archibald (2006)		USA (Nevada, Washoe county school district in Reno)	P	The number of students enrolled at the school	Student level post-test scores reading and mathematics	548	137	
Barnes et al. (2006)	KS1 KS2	England (deprived areas)	P	Total number of students at the school roll	KS1 English, math KS2 English, math, science			Data collected as part of the National Evaluation of Sure Start (NESS 2004)
Bickel et al. (2001)		USA (Texas)	S	Number of students: expressed in thousand students units Expressed in natural logarithms of single-student units	Texas assessment of academic skills 10th grade Reading Math Writing Composite achievement	877	850	Texas dataset representing 1,001 high schools

(continued)

Table A.1 (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on student achievement						
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Student achievement measure	Mean SD Database
Borland and Howsen (2003)		USA (Kentucky)	P	School size number of students within a school School size squared: square of number of students within a school	The mean total battery normal curve equivalent score for 3rd grade students within a school (combined subject scores for reading, language and mathematics)	490 204
Bowles and Bosworth (2002)		USA (Wyoming)	PS	Average daily membership for school $t$ for period $t$	Arithmetic average of the three scores on standardized test results for reading, writing and math for each public school in Wyoming	Data from 17 Wyoming school districts
Bradley and Taylor (1998)	11–16 Schools 1992 1996	UK	S	Pupils/100 Pupils/100 squared	School exam performance (proportion of 15–16 year-old pupils in each school obtaining five or more GCSEs at grades A to C) (four performance categories)	685 765 Secondary school performance tables and information obtained from the annual schools' census undertaken by the department for education and employment
	11–18 Schools 1992 1996					916 1010
Caldas (1993)	P S	USA (Louisiana)	P S	The number of students enrolled in the school in October 1989	Average school score composite of norm-referenced test and criterion-referenced test (language, math, writing, science and social studies)	507 223 683 384 Data collected and aggregated by the Louisiana State Department of Education

(continued)

**Table A.1** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on student achievement						
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Student achievement measure	Mean SD Database
Carolan (2012)	USA (nationally representative)	USA	S	High school size: Small (<600 students) Moderate (600–999 students) Moderately large (1,000–1,599 students)	12th grade math score: a student score on the ELS math assessment	960 493 Education longitudinal study (ELS) 2002
Chen and Weikart (2008)	USA (New York City)	USA	S	Large (>1,599 students) Number of students enrolled at each school	School mean score on the grade 8 English language arts and the grade 8 mathematics of the New York State Examinations for the 2003–2004 school year	960 493 Data from New York City Department of Education (2002–2003 and 2003–2004 school year data for all middle schools)
Coladarci and Cobb (1996)	USA (nationally representative)	USA	S	School size Compares smaller (<800) and larger (>=1600) schools Students from schools with other sizes eliminated from analyses	NELS: 88 senior year composite of student performance in reading and mathematics	National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS: 88)
Deller and Rudnicki (1993)	USA (Maine)	USA	P	Average daily attendance for the year 1985	Achievement of grade 8 students: three year (1986–1987 through to 1988–1989) cumulative aggregate test score as compiled by the Maine educational assessment program (covering reading, writing, math, science, social studies and humanities)	Databases Maine department of education

(continued)

**Table A.1** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on student achievement							
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Student achievement measure	Mean SD Database	
Driscoll et al. (2003)	Primary	USA (California)	P	School size	1999 California academic performance index (weighted average of Stanford 9 test scores) (aggregated at school level)	526	394 California Department of Education database
	Middle		S	226			
	High school		S	526		394	
Durán-Narucki (2008)		USA (New York City, Manhattan borough)	P	The number of students enrolled at each school	Poor achievement: percentage of students at each school that scored at level 1 in the New York State and New York City tests on English language arts and math	712	328 Building Condition Survey (comprehensive study on the condition of New York City school buildings School report cards for the year 2000 New York City Board of Education)
Eberts et al. (1990)		USA (Nationally representative)	P	<200 (small) 58 schools 400–599 (medium) 94 schools >800 (large) 19 schools Categories 200–399 (86 schools) and 600–799 (30 schools) purposefully omitted	Gains in mathematics achievement		Subset of the sustaining effects study conducted by the system development corporation for the former Office of Education (1987)
Fernandez (2011)		USA (Nevada, Clark county school district)	PS	The number of students enrolled	Iowa test of basic Skills math and reading (2005–2006) school performance score	1082	637 Dataset clark county school district Study explores the relationship between the quality of a school improvement plan and school performance
Foreman-Peck and Foreman-Peck (2006)		UK (Wales)	S	Log (previous year pupil numbers) School size 1996 School size 2002	% of pupils in a school gaining 5 or more A-C GCSEs	871	331 Dataset provided by the school and teacher statistics division of the Welsh assembly government

(continued)

**Table A.1** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on student achievement								
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Student achievement measure	Mean	SD	Database
Fowler and Walberg (1991)		USA (New Jersey)	S	Total enrolment for the 1984–1985 school year for all grades	Minimum basic skills test –Average reading test score –Average Math test score –% passing Reading test score –% passing Math test score –% Passing both reading and math score	1070	519	Data obtained from the New Jersey department of education
Gardner et al. (2000)		USA (California)	S	School size Small schools (200–600 pupils) Large schools (>2,000 pupils)	High school proficiency test –Average reading test score –Average Math test score –Average writing test score –Average writing test mc score –Average writing test essay score –% passing Reading test score –% passing Math test score –% passing Writing test	424	2500	Data were obtained from the 1995/1996 California high school performance report
Heck (1993)		USA (Western state)	PS	Actual size of enrolment	School reading and mathematics scores on the Stanford achievement test (compiled over a 2-year period, 1989–1991)			State department of education's survey on restructuring the curriculum
Holas and Huston (2012)	Grade 5 Grade 6	USA (nationally representative)	PS	Total enrolment	Tested achievement (reading math) Teacher-related achievement Teacher-related achievement	490	210	NICHD study of early child care and youth development

(continued)

**Table A.1** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on student achievement						
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Student achievement measure	Mean SD Database
Kahne et al. (2008)		USA (Chicago)	S	School size	Scores of the 11 grades on the Prairie State Achievement Exam in math and English	418 170 Consortium on Chicago school research's biannual survey. Administrative records of CPS and test data
Kuziemko (2006)		USA (Indiana)	P	Abrupt change in school enrolment	Absolute change in average ISTEP math score change over 1 year, 2 years, 3 years Absolute change in average ISTEP language score change over 1 year, 2 years, 3 years	418 170 Indiana department of education: Indiana statewide test for educational progress Public school universe data form national center for educational statistics
Lamdin (1995)		USA (Baltimore, Maryland)	P	The number of students enrolled in grade kindergarten through five	The percentage of students in each school above the mean reading score on the California achievement test The percentage of students in each school above the mean math score on the California achievement test	469 172 Data from 1990 report by the Baltimore citizens planning and housing association
Lee et al. (2011)	03–04 04–05 05–06 06–07 07–08	USA (Ohio)	S	Small schools in Ohio versus traditional schools that are identified as similar to the small schools Large school at or above 800 students. small learning communities approximately 100 students per grade level or 400 students with the learning community	Graduation rate Performance index score	Data collected from more than 230 Ohio schools

(continued)

**Table A.1** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on student achievement						
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Student achievement measure	Mean SD Database
Lee and Loeb (2000)		USA (Chicago)	P	Number of students in the school Categories: <400 (RF) (5.2 % of students) 400–750 (48.8 %) >750 (46.0 %)	1997 mathematics score: score for 6th and 8th graders combined in a single scale. Each student's grade equivalent score on the math section of the Iowa test of basic skills administered to all Chicago elementary school students each year	Data provided by the consortium on Chicago school research
Lee and Smith (1995)		USA (nationally representative)	S	Total enrolment as of October 1989 (transformed to its natural logarithm and standardized)	IRT estimated gain between 8th and 10th grade test (NELS) Mathematics Reading History Science	National education longitudinal study of 1988 (NELS: 88) 1st and 2nd wave Mean school size: Traditional schools: 1095 Moderate schools: 633 Restructuring schools: 764
Lee and Smith (1997)		USA (nationally representative)	S	Total enrolment as of October 1989 Categories: <300; 301–600; 601–900; 901–1,200; 1,201–1,500; 1,501–1,800; 1,801–2,100; >2,100	Achievement gain math between 8th and 12th grade Achievement gain reading between 8th and 12th grade	National education longitudinal study of 1988 (NELS: 88) 1st three panels
Lubienski et al. (2008)	Grade 4  Grade 8	USA (nationwide)	P	School enrolment Categories: 1–299, 300–499, 500–699, and 700 or more (1–4 scale)	4th grade mathematics achievement NAEP 2003	National assessment of educational progress (NAEP) 2003
			S	Categories: 1–399, 400–599, 600–799, 800–999, and 1,000 or more (1–5 scale)	8th grade mathematics achievement NAEP 2003	

(continued)



**Table A.1** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on student achievement						
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Student achievement measure	Mean SD Database
Luyten (1994)	USA 1st and 2nd sample	USA	S	School size 5 categories: <240, 240–359, 360–499, 500–999, >1,000 (1–5 scale)	75 item math test SIMS	798 331 Second international mathematics study
	Sweden	Sweden			75 item math test SIMS	Second international mathematics study
	Netherlands math	Netherlands			75 item math test SIMS	Second international mathematics study
	Netherlands science	Netherlands science			61 item test physics, chemistry, biology and earth science SISS	Second international mathematics study
Ma and McIntyre (2005)	Canada (Central Alberta)	Canada (Central Alberta)	S	School size: expressed in hundred students units	Mathematics subset of the Canadian achievement test (2nd edition)	613 363 Longitudinal study of mathematics participation (exploring differential effects of mathematics courses in mathematics achievement)
						Interaction effect with course-taking: students taking pure math courses, students taking applied math courses
Maerten-Rivera et al. (2010)		USA (large urban school district southeast USA)	P	School size	5th grade science achievement (high-stakes test)	798 331 Data collected for all 5th grade students in a large urban school district in the southeast United States during the 2006–2007 school year

(continued)

**Table A.1** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on student achievement						
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Student achievement measure	Mean SD Database
McMillen (2004)	Primary school	USA (North Carolina)	P	4 categories: <400; 400–549; 550–699; >700	End of grade 3 test Reading Math	506 Several databases maintained by the North Carolina department of public instruction. data on school size from state student membership database
	Middle school		S	4 categories: <400; 400–549; 550–699; >700	End of grade 6 test Reading Math	570
	High school		S	4 categories: (<700; 700–1,199; 1,200–1,699; >1,700	High school comprehensive test grade 8 Reading Math	859
Moe (2009)	Elementary	USA (California)	P	The log of school enrolment	The growth in academic performance index (API) scores between 1998–1999 and 2002–2003 (API based on the scores of all students across all grades i all subjects tested)	Data drawn from school districts in the state of California
	Secondary		S	The log of school enrolment	The growth in academic performance index (API) scores between 1998–1999 and 2002–2003 (API based on the scores of all students across all grades i all subjects tested)	Data drawn from school districts in the state of California

(continued)

**Table A.1** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on student achievement						
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Student achievement measure	Mean SD Database
Ready and Lee (2006)	USA	USA	P	Categories: <275 (small) 276–400 (medium-small) 601–800 (medium-size)-(RF) 601–800 (medium-large) >800 (large)	ECLS-K Literacy: both basic literacy skills as well as more advanced reading comprehension skills (assessment administered individually)  ECLS-K math: conceptual and procedural knowledge and problem solving, equally divided between number sense and measurement	Early childhood longitudinal study kindergarten Cohort (ECLS-K, first four data waves)
Rumberger and Palardy (2005)	USA (nationwide)	USA (nationwide)	S	Categories: 1–600 (small) (23 %) 601–1,200 (medium) (36 %) RF 1,201–1,800 (large) (28 %) >1,800 (extra large) (13 %)	Achievement growth: mean of math, reading, science and history test scores administered in the spring semesters of 1988, 1990 and 1992 when most students were enrolled in grades 8, 10 and 12	National education longitudinal survey (NELS: 88)
Sandy and Duncan (2010)	Urban	USA (nationally representative)	S	Small schools (<1,000) Large schools (>1,000)	Composite of arithmetic reasoning, math, word knowledge, paragraph comprehension, general science, numerical operations, coding speed, mechanical comprehension, electronics information, auto and shop information (armed services vocational aptitude battery)	National longitudinal survey of labour market experience for youth (1997)
	Suburban					

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**Table A.1** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on student achievement						
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Student achievement measure	Mean SD Database
Sawkins (2002)	1993–1994	UK (Scotland)	S	Total number of pupils/100 (Total number of pupils/100) squared	Examination performance: % of pupils in S4 gaining 5 or more standard grade passes at levels 1 or 2 (credit level)	796 356 Examination results in Scottish schools/annual statistical returns made to the Scottish executive
Schneider et al. (2006)	1998–1999	USA (nationally representative)	S	Total school enrolment Categories: 1–399 400–799 800–1199 (reference category) 1200–1999 2000 or more	12th grade mathematics achievement	806 356 Educational longitudinal study of 2002 (ELS: 2002)
Stewart (2008)		USA (nationally representative)	S	Total student enrolment of the school	Grade point average (based on current grades in math, English, history and science)	1540 686 National education longitudinal study (NELS): second wave 1990
Stiefel et al. (2006)	Grade 5	USA (New York City)	P	Enrolment Subgroups: Asian (11 %) Black (36.1 %) Hispanic (37.4 %) White (15.5 %)	Citywide test in reading (CTB/McGraw Hill test of basic skills or New York State English language assessment)	958 Data set provided by the New York City department of education (2000–2001 school year)
	Grade 8		S	Subgroups: Asian (11.4 %) Black (36.3 %) Hispanic (34.6 %) White (17.7 %)		1221
Sun et al. (2012)		Hong Kong	S	Total school enrolment (number of students) on 1 February 2006	Student science achievement (PISA 2006 science literacy test scores)	1039 174 PISA 2006 Hong Kong sample

(continued)

**Table A.1** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on student achievement						
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Student achievement measure	Mean SD Database
Tanner and West (2011)	USA (Georgia)	USA (Georgia)	S	Net enrolment in the high school	Student achievement measured by 7 variables: Scholastic aptitude test (SAT) Graduation rate per school Averages scores on the Georgia high school graduation test (GHSCT): English Mathematics Science Social studies Writing	1370 682 Georgia department of education
Weiss et al. (2010)	USA (nationally representative)	USA (nationally representative)	S	Total number of students in school Categories: Small: 1–599 students (RF) Moderately small 600–999 Moderately large 1,000–1,599 Large 1,600–2,499	Mathematics achievement: standardized score derived from students' performance on the ELS:02 mathematics assessment	Educational longitudinal study of 2002 (ELS:2002) 10th grade
Wyse et al. (2010)	USA (nationally representative)	USA (nationally representative)	S	Total school enrolment Categories: 1–399 400–799 800–1,199 1,200–1,999 2,000 or more	Mathematics achievement: standardized score derived from students' performance on the ELS:2002 12th grade mathematics assessment	Educational longitudinal study of 2002 (ELS:2002) 10th and 12th grade

**Table A.2** Methodological information available from studies of school size on student achievement

Authors	Sample	Achievement measure	Number of schools	Number of classes/ teachers	Number of students	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported in publication	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Åberg-Bengtsson (2004)		IEA reading literacy	124		3432	Multilevel SEM (standardized)	Yes	-0.02		n.s.	
Alspaugh (2004)		Composite (reading, math, language, science, social science)				ANCOVA	Yes	ES = 0.471 ES = -0.016 ES = -0.391	0.169 0.105 0.182	Schools <200 highest mean composite score, category 300-399 lowest score	Three smallest enrollment groups of schools older inner-city schools, low largest groups more newer suburban schools
Archibald (2006)		Reading Math				Multilevel (HLM) (standardized)	Yes	b = -0.03 b = -0.07	0.02 0.02	-	s at 0.05 s at 0.05
Barnes et al. (2006)	KS1 KS2	KS1 English KS1 Math KS2 English KS2 Math KS2 Science	53	421	7,601	Regression	Yes			n.s. n.s. n.s. n.s. n.s.	
Bickel et al. (2001)		Reading Math Writing Size expressed in 1,000 student units	1,001			Regression (unstandardized and standardized)	Yes	b = 0.065 b = 0.040 b = 0.025 b = 0.079		n.s. n.s. n.s. n.s.	*Significant negative effect from size-by-SES
Borland and Howsen (2003)		Composite (ln) (size expressed in ln of single unit student) Combined subject scores for reading, language and mathematics	654	1,360	3,1440	2SLS Regression (unstandardized) School size School size <sup>b</sup>	Yes	b = 0.40 b = -0.000	0.165 0.000	+ ∩ 760	
Bowles and Bosworth (2002)		Average school score for reading, writing and math	80			Regression (simultaneous equation modelling) unstandardized	Yes	b = -1.090		n.s.	

(continued)

**Table A.2 (continued)**

Methodological information available from studies of school size on student achievement											
Authors	Sample	Achievement measure	Number of schools	Number of classes/teachers	Number of students	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported in publication	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Bradley and Taylor (1998)	11-16 schools	%>= 5 GCSEs at grades A* to C	1,307			Ordered logistic regression (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = 0.55$ $b = 0.38$	0.0013 0.0011	+	
	1992	School size (pupils/100)		1377				$b = -0.0024$		+	∩ 1130
	1996	School size (pupils/100) squared						$b = -0.0015$		∩	1230
	1992										
	1996										
Caldas (1993)	11-18 schools	%>= 5 GCSEs at grades A* to C	1580					$b = 0.0055$	0.0096	+	
	1992	School size		1514				$b = 0.0056$	0.0098	+	∩ 1350
	1996	School size (pupils/100) squared						$b = -0.0021$		∩	1440
	1992							$b = -0.0019$		∩	
Carolan (2012)	P	Average school score composite	737			Regression (standardized)	Yes	$\beta = -0.06$		+	
	S	12th grade Math score	468			Multilevel (unstandardized)	Yes	$\beta = 0.043$	0.40	n.s.	Indicator for moderately sized schools has a marginally significant relationship to 12th grade math scores. Students in these schools are predicted 0.04 sd less than students in large schools
Chen and Weikart (2008)		Small school	579		9,647		Yes	$b = -0.24$	0.36	n.s.	
		Moderate Moderately large Large (RF)						$b = -0.68$ $b = -0.04$	0.31		
		Mean school score English and math	212			Structural equation modelling (school level)	Yes	$\beta = -0.002$		n.s.	The study presumed a direct effect from school disorder to achievement. An equally plausible relationship could be made that lower academic performance may lead to school disorder

(continued)

**Table A.2 (continued)**

Methodological information available from studies of school size on student achievement											
Authors	Sample	Achievement measure	Number of schools	Number of classes/teachers	Number of students	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported in publication	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Coladara and Cobb (1996)		Composite of English and math			4,567	Structural equation modelling (individual level)	Yes	$b = 0.005$		n.s.	Compares smaller (<800) and larger (>= 1,600) schools
Deller and Rudnicki (1993)		Composite aggregated test score (reading, writing, math, science, social studies and humanities)	139			Regression (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -0.040$		-	
Driscoll et al. (2003)	Primary Middle High school	California academic performance index (composite)	4025 753 747			Regression (standardized)	Yes	$b = -0.073$ $b = -0.0073$ $b = 0.015$		- n.s. n.s.	
Durañ-Narucki (2008)		% poor achievement English math	95			Regression (standardized)	Yes	$b = -0.017$ $b = -0.088$		n.s. n.s.	Mediation model (attendance is mediator).
Eberts et al. (1990)		Gain in math achievement Small schools versus medium schools Medium schools versus large schools	287		1,4000	Regression	Yes			-	The overall impact of size between medium and small schools is about 8 % of the typical gain in student achievement. The schools is 28 % lower than in medium schools
Fernandez (2011)		Aggregated growth in math reading math in reading	252			Regression (unstandardized) (standardized)	Yes	$b = 0.000$ $b = 0.000$ $b = 0.000$ $b = 0.000$	0.001 0.000 0.118 0.000	n.s. n.s.	
Foreman-Peck and Foreman-Peck (2006)		% of pupils in a school gaining 5 or more A-C GCSEs Ln school size Ln school size squared	1119			Logistic regression (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = 1.636$ $b = -0.129$		+ ∩ 560	s at 0.05 s at 0.05

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**Table A.2 (continued)**

Methodological information available from studies of school size on student achievement											
Authors	Sample	Achievement measure	Number of schools	Number of classes/teachers	Number of students	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported in publication	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Fowler and Walberg (1991)		Minimum basic skills Test Average reading test score Average math test score % passing reading test score % passing math test score % passing both reading and math score	293			Backward stepwise regression (unstandardized)	Yes	n.r. n.r. $b = -0.001$ n.r. n.r. $b = -0.002$	n.s. n.s. - n.s. n.s. -	n.s. n.s. - n.s. n.s. -	In the belief that some of the relationships may be curvilinear rather than linear explorations with quadratic terms were undertaken and no improvement was observed
Gardner et al. (2000)		High school proficiency test Average reading test score Average math test score Average writing test score Average writing test me score Average writing test essay score % passing reading test score % passing Math test score % passing writing test (small schools vs. large schools) Verbal SAT	127			An(c)ova	Yes	n.r. $F(1,123) = 3.46$ $F(1,123) = 18.79$	n.s. +	n.s. +	
Heck (1993)		Math SAT School math	235			Regression (standardized)	Yes	$\beta = -0.12$ $\beta = -0.16$	- -	- -	
Holas and Huston (2012)	Grade 5 Grade 6	Tested achievement Teacher-related achievement Teacher-related achievement	10		855	Structural equation modelling	Yes	n.r. n.r.	n.s. n.s.	n.s. n.s.	
Kahne et al. (2008)		Scores of the 11 grades on the Prairie state achievement exam reading scores 2002–2003 2003–2004 2004–2005 2005–2006	80			Multilevel (unstandardized)	Yes	Difference 1.0 -0.5 -0.7	n.s. n.s. n.s. n.s.	n.s. n.s. n.s. n.s.	

(continued)

**Table A.2 (continued)**

Methodological information available from studies of school size on student achievement											
Authors	Sample	Achievement measure	Number of schools	Number of classes/teachers	Number of students	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported in publication	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Kuziemko (2006)		Absolute change in average ISTEP math score change over	>100			Two SLS regression (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -1.20$	2.09	n.s.	
								$b = -3.841$	1.427	—	
								$b = -4.123$	2.250	n.s.	
								$b = -0.2734$	1.115	n.s.	
								$b = -1.187$	1.029	n.s.	
Lamdin (1995)		Absolute change in average ISTEP language score change over				Regression (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -0.006$		n.s.	
								$b = -0.001$		n.s.	
								$b = -0.007$		n.s.	
								$b = -0.002$		n.s.	
								$b = -0.009$		n.s.	
Lee and Loeb (2000)		Expenditure per pupil as input	264	4,495	2,2599	Multilevel (unstandardized)	Yes	Direct effects		—	Direct and indirect effects:
								$b = -0.073$		n.s.	ES = -0.64
								$b = -0.041$			ES = -0.45
Lee and Smith (1995)		Gain in Mathematics Reading History Science	820		1,1794	Multilevel (standardized)	Yes	ES = -0.39		—	
								ES = -0.32		—	
								ES = -0.15		—	
								ES = -0.37		—	

(continued)

**Table A.2 (continued)**

Methodological information available from studies of school size on student achievement											
Authors	Sample	Achievement measure	Number of schools	Number of classes/teachers	Number of students	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported in publication	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Lee and Smith (1997)		Achievement gain math	789	9,812	9,812	Multilevel (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -0.931$		$\cap$ 601-900 $\cap$ 601-900	
		<300;						$b = -0.089$			
		301-600;						$b = 1.512$			
		601-900;						$b = 0.589$			
		901-1,200;						$b = -0.152$			
		1,201-1,500;						$b = -0.415$			
		1,501-1,800;						$b = 1.842$			
		1,801-2,100;						$b = -0.532$			
		>2100						$b = 0.149$			
		achievement gain reading						$b = 0.539$			
Lubienski et al. (2008)		<300;						$b = 0.290$			
		301-600;						$b = -0.254$			
		601-900;						$b = -0.455$			
		901-1,200;						$b = -0.911$			
		1,201-1,500									
		1,501-1,800;									
		1,801-2,100;									
	>2,100										
Lubienski et al. (2008)	Grade 4	Math	6,288		157,161	Multilevel (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = 0.4$		n.s.	
	Grade 8	Math	4,870		119,364			$b = 0.6$		+	“School size slightly positively associated with achievement” (p. 129)
Layten (1994)	USA 1st and 2nd sample	Math	58	104	2,212	Multilevel (unstandardized)	Yes	n.r.		n.s.	
	Sweden	Math	95	182	3,500			n.r.		n.s.	
	Netherlands math	Math	228	228	5,313			n.r.		n.s.	
	Netherlands science	Science	194	194	4,286			n.r.		n.s.	
Ma and McIntyre (2005)		Math Students/100	34		1,518	Multilevel		n.r.		n.s.	

(continued)

**Table A.2 (continued)**

Methodological information available from studies of school size on student achievement

Authors	Sample	Achievement measure	Number of schools	Number of classes/teachers	Number of students	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported in publication	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Maaßen-Rivera et al. (2010)		Science	198		23854	Multilevel (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -0.01$	0.01	n.s.	
McMillen (2004)	Primary school	Reading <400 400-549 550-699 >700 (ref category)	1,053		54,615	Multilevel (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = 0.05$ $b = 0.12$ $b = -0.05$ $b = -0.26$ $b = -0.09$ $b = 0.18$	0.17 0.16 0.16 0.27 0.25 0.26	n.s. n.s.	No significant main effect size reading or math achievement, but significant effect through interactions with students' prior level of achievement
	Middle school	Reading <400 400-549 550-699 >700 (ref category)	508		53,306	Multilevel (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -0.45$ $b = -0.35$ $b = -0.46$ $b = -0.91$ $b = -0.69$ $b = -0.89$	0.21 0.20 0.20 0.39 0.37 0.38	n.s. n.s.	No significant main effect size reading or math achievement, but significant effect through interactions with students' prior level of achievement
	High school	Reading <700 700-1,199 1,200-1,699 >1,700 (ref category)	333		58,786	Multilevel (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -2.58$ $b = -1.90$ $b = -0.91$ $b = -5.14$ $b = -3.93$ $b = -2.64$	0.37 0.33 0.36 0.63 0.57 0.62	+ +	In reading and math significant and positive main effect for size, along with statistically significant interactions involving size and ethnicity and size and parent education level (reading and math) and size and ethnicity (math)

(continued)

**Table A.2 (continued)**

Methodological information available from studies of school size on student achievement												
Authors	Sample	Achievement measure	Number of schools	Number of classes/teachers	Number of students	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported in publication	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information	
Moe (2009)	Primary		1,947			Regression (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -11.05$ $ES = -0.16$	3.40	–		
	Secondary		829					$b = -6.16$ $ES = -0.20$	3.89	n.s.		
Ready and Lee (2006)		ECLS-K Literacy Kindergarten	527		7,740	Multilevel analysis (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -0.04$ $b = 0.02$ $b = -0.03$ $b = -0.03$ $b = 0.07$ $b = 0.04$ $b = -0.17$ $b = -0.03$ $b = 0.02$ $b = 0.00$ $b = -0.01$ $b = -0.13$ $b = 0.08$ $b = 0.02$ $b = -0.03$	n.s. n.s.		School size effects on learning in the lower elementary grades are distinctively nonlinear	
		<275										
		276–400										
		401–600 (RF)										
		601–800										
		>800										
		1st grade										
		<275										
		276–400										
		401–600 (RF)										
601–800												
>800												
ECLS-K Math Kindergarten											Learning in literacy (1st grade) is significantly disadvantaged in large schools	
<275											Learning in mathematics (1st grade) is significantly advantaged in small schools	
276–400												
401–600 (RF)												
601–800												
>800												
1st grade												
<275												
276–400												
401–800 (RF)												
601–800												
>800												

(continued)

**Table A.2 (continued)**

Methodological information available from studies of school size on student achievement												
Authors	Sample	Achievement measure	Number of schools	Number of classes/teachers	Number of students	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported in publication	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information	
Rumberger and Palardy (2005)		Achievement growth: test composite 1-600 (small) 601-1,200 RF 1,201-1,800 (large) >1,800 (extra large)	912		14,199	Multilevel analysis (standardized)	Yes	School effect sizes -0.000 0.124 0.105		∩ 1200-1,800	School effect size computed by first converting HLM coefficients to standard units and then dividing by the school-level standard deviation of the dependent variable estimated from the HLM null model	
Sandy and Duncan (2010)	Urban Suburban	Composite Small schools (<1,000) (RF) Large schools (>1,000) Composite Small schools (<1,000) (RF) Large schools (>1,000)			1,955	Regression (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = 1.667$ $b = 1.339$		n.s. n.s.		
Sawkins (2002)	1993-1994	Examination performance (Total number of pupils/100) squared	398			Ordered logistic regression (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -1.004$ $b = 0.042$		- U 1190	Only 4 % of schools were larger than the calculated minimum for 1993-1994	
Rumberger and Palardy (2005)	1998-1999	Examination performance (Total number of pupils/100) squared					Yes	$b = -0.565$ $b = 0.023$		- U 1230	Only 3.3 % of schools were larger than the calculated minimum for 1998-1999	
Schneider et al. (2006)		Math 1-399 400-799 800-1,199 (RF) 1,200-1,999 2,000 or more			660	Multilevel analysis (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -0.120$ $b = -0.287$ $b = -0.732$ $b = 0.288$		0.684 0.585 0.556 0.629	n.s.	

(continued)

**Table A.2 (continued)**

Methodological information available from studies of school size on student achievement											
Authors	Sample	Achievement measure	Number of schools	Number of classes/teachers	Number of students	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported in publication	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Stewart, E.B. (2008)		Grade point average	715		11,999	Multilevel analysis (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -0.05$	0.04	n.s.	
Siefel et al. (2006)	Grade 5	Reading Subgroups: White (15.5 %) Black (36.1 %) Hispanic (37.4 %) Asian (11 %)	667		70,638	Multilevel analysis (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -0.057$ $b = -0.037$ $b = -0.073$ $b = -0.052$	0.033 0.026 0.021 0.028	n.s. (all students)	Coefficients for white and Asian students at 0.10, coefficient for blank students n.s. Coefficient for Hispanics s at 0.01
	Grade 8	Reading Subgroups: White (17.7 %) Black (36.3 %) Hispanic (34.6 %) Asian (11.4 %)	278		55,921			$b = -0.064$ $b = -0.058$ $b = -0.034$ $b = -0.046$	0.045 0.030 0.028 0.046	n.s. (all students)	Coefficients for white, black, Hispanic and Asian students n.s.
Sun et al. (2012)		Science achievement	145		4,645	Multilevel analysis (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = 0.13$	0.02	+	
Tanner and West (2011)		SAT Graduation rate GHSGT: English Mathematics Science Social studies Writing	303			Regression	Yes	Change in R 0.001 0.000 0.003 0.001 0.002 0.001 0.035		n.s. n.s. n.s. n.s. n.s. n.s. s.	Direction of effect not reported
Weiss et al. (2010)		Math achievement Small 1–599 (RF) Moderately small 600–999 Moderately large 1,000–1,599 Large 1,600–2,499			10,946	Multilevel analysis (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -0.821$ $b = -0.031$ $b = -0.020$	0.784 0.764 0.520	n.s.	

(continued)

Table A.2 (continued)

Methodological information available from studies of school size on student achievement											
Authors	Sample	Achievement measure	Number of schools	Number of classes/teachers	Number of students	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported in publication	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Wyse et al. (2008)		Math achievement 1–399 matched with 2,000 or more 400–799 matched with 2,000 or more 800–1,199 matched with 2,000 or more 1,200–1,999 matched with 2,000 or more	745		12,853	WLS propensity score regression	Yes	Effect –0.565 –0.226 –0.031 –0.235		n.s.	Additional multivariate sensitivity analysis confirmed that there was not an optimal school size that would result in optimal mathematics achievement

## Notes

RF = reference category

n.s. = not significant at  $p = 0.05$ ; s = significant

n.r. = not reported (not in table)



**Table A.3** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, and positive effects of school size on academic achievement for each sample (school size measured as a continuous variable)

Study	Sample	School level	Negative	Not significant	Positive	Total
Archibald (2006)		P	2	0	0	2
Barnes et al. (2006)	KS1 7 years	P	0	2	0	2
	KS2 11 years	P	0	3	0	2
Bickel et al. (2001)		S	0	4	0	4
Borland and Howsen (2003)		P	0	0	1	1
Bowles and Bosworth (2006)		PS	0	1	0	1
Bradley and Taylor (1998)	11–16 1992	S	0	0	1	1
	11–16 1996	S	0	0	1	1
	11–18 1992	S	0	0	1	1
	11–18 1996	S	0	0	1	1
Caldas (1993)	Primary school	P	1	0	0	1
	Secondary school	S	0	1	0	1
Chen and Weikart (2008)		S	0	1	0	1
Coladarsi and Cobb (1996)		S	0	1	0	1
Deller and Rudnicki (1993)		P	1	0	0	1
Driscoll et al. (2003)	Primary school	P	1	0	0	1
	Middle school	S	0	1	0	1
	High school	S	0	1	0	1
Durán-Narucki (2008)		P	0	2	0	2
Fernandez (2011)		PS	0	2	0	2
Foreman and Foreman-Peck (2006)		S	0	0	1	1
Fowler and Walberg (1991)		S	5	8	0	13
Heck (1993)		PS	2	0	0	2
Holas and Huston (2012)	Grade 5	P	0	2	0	2
	Grade 6	P	0	1	0	1

(continued)

Table A.3 (continued)

Study	Sample	School level	Negative	Not significant	Positive	Total
Maerten-Rivera et al. (2010)		P	0	1	0	1
Kahne et al. (2008)		S	0	4	0	4
Kuziemko (2006)		P	0	6	0	6
Lamdin (1995)		P	0	6	0	6
Lee and Smith (1995)		S	4	0	0	4
Lubienski et al. (2008)	Grade 4	P	0	1	0	1
	Grade 8	S	0	0	1	1
Luyten (1994)	USA	S	0	1	0	1
	Sweden	S	0	1	0	1
	Netherlands math	S	0	1	0	1
	Netherlands Science	S	0	1	0	1
Ma and McIntyre (2005)		S	0	1	0	1
Moe (2009)	Primary school	P	1	0	0	1
	Secondary school	S	0	1	0	1
Sawkins (2002)	1993–1994	S	1	0	0	1
	1998–1999	S	1	0	0	1
Stewart (2008)		S	0	1	0	1
Stiefel et al. (2006)	Grade 5	P	1	0	0	1
	Grade 8	S	0	1	0	1
Sun et al. (2012)		S	0	0	1	1
Tanner and West (2011)		S	0	6	0	6
Total			20	62	8	90

**Table A.4** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, positive, and curvilinear effects of school size on academic achievement for each sample (school size effect modelled as quadratic function)

Study	Sample	School level	Direction of effect			Remarks
			-	n.s.	+ Curvilinear	
Borland and Howsen (2003)	11-16 1992	P			∩ 760	Linear (+)
	11-16 1996	S			∩ 1130	Linear (+)
Bradley and Taylor (1998)	11-16 1996	S			∩ 1230	Linear (+)
	11-18 1992	S			∩ 1350	Linear (+)
	11-18 1996	S			∩ 1440	Linear (+)
Foreman-Peck and Foreman-Peck (2006)	1993-1994	S			∩ 560	Linear (+)
	1998-1999	S			U 1190	Linear (-) Only 4 % of schools were larger than the calculated minimum for 1993-1994
Sawkins (2002)	1998-1999	S			U 1230	Linear (-) Only 3.3 % of schools were larger than the calculated minimum for 1998-1999

**Table A.5** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, positive, and curvilinear effects of school size on academic achievement for each sample (school size measured as categories)

Study	Sample	School level	Direction of effect		Remarks
			—	n.s. + Curvilinear	
Åberg-Bengtsson (2004)		P	I		Schools with an enrolment of less than 75 students and located in a rural district versus schools with an enrolment of 75 students and more
Alspaugh (2004)		P		<200 highest, 300–399 lowest	Categories: <200, 200–299, 300–399, 400–499, >= 500
Carolan (2012)		S	I		Categories: <600, 600–999, 1,000–1599, >1599 (RF)
Eberts et al. (1990)		P	I		<200 versus 400–599
Gardner et al. (2000)		S	I	I	400–599 versus >800
Inspectorate of Education (2003)		S	I	I	200–600 versus >2,000
Lee and Loeb (2000)		P	I	I	Categories: <500, 500–1000, >1000
Lee and Smith (1997)		S		∩ 601–900 (2)	<400 versus 400–750 400–750 versus >750 Categories: <300; 301–600; 601–900; 901–1,200; 1,201–1,500 (RF); 1,501–1,800; 1801–2,100; >2,100
McMillen (2004)	Primary school	P	2		Categories: <400, 400–549, 550–699, >700 (RF)
	Middle school	S	2		Categories: <400, 400–549, 550–699, >700 (RF)
	High school	S	2		Categories: <400, 400–549, 550–699, >700 (RF)

(continued)

**Table A.5** (continued)

Study	Sample	School level	Direction of effect		Remarks
			-	n.s. + Curvilinear	
Ready and Lee (2006)		P	2	Significantly disadvantaged in large schools (2)	Categories: <275, 276-400, 401-600 (RF), 601-800, >800 Kindergarten, 1st grade
Rumberger and Palardy (2005)		S	∩	1200-1800	Categories: 1-600, 601-1,200 (RF), 1,201-1,800, >1,800
Sandy and Duncan (2010)	Urban	S	1		Categories: <1,000 (RF), >1,000
Schneider et al. (2007)	Suburban	S	1		Categories: 1-399, 400-799, 800-1,199 (RF), 1,200-1,999, 2,000 or more
		S	1		
Weiss et al. (2010)		S	1		Categories: 1-599 (RF), 600-999, 1000-1599, 1600-2499
Wyse et al. (2008)		S	1		1-399 matched with 2,000 or more 400-799 matched with 2,000 or more 800-1,199 matched with 2,000 or more 1,200-1,999 matched with 2,000 or more
			3	16	3
Total					

### ***Students' and Teachers' Attitudes to School***

See Tables [A.6](#), [A.7](#), [A.8](#), [A.9](#) and [A.10](#).

### ***Participation***

See Tables [A.11](#), [A.12](#), [A.13](#) and [A.14](#).

### ***Safety***

See Tables [A.15](#), [A.16](#), [A.17](#) and [A.18](#).

### ***Student Absence and Drop-Out***

See Tables [A.19](#), [A.20](#), [A.21](#), [A.22](#), [A.23](#), [A.24](#), [A.25](#) and [A.26](#).

### ***Other Student Outcomes***

See Tables [A.27](#), [A.28](#), [A.29](#) and [A.30](#).

### ***School Organization and Teaching and Learning***

See Tables [A.31](#), [A.32](#), [A.33](#) and [A.34](#).

### ***Costs***

See Tables [A.35](#), [A.36](#) and [A.37](#).

**Table A.6** Overview of studies of school size on students' and teachers' attitudes to school

Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Identification wit and connectedness to school measure	Mean	SD	Database
Bowen et al. (2000)		USA (nationally representative)	S	Total number of students enrolled in each school (middle school) Five categories: 0–399 400–599 600–799 800–999 1,000–1,399	School satisfaction (summary variable based on five items, e.g., I enjoy going to this school. I am getting a good education at this school) Teacher support (summary variable based on eight items, e.g., My teachers really care about e. I receive a lot of encouragement from my teachers)	689		Data collected by Louis Harris and Associates, Inc. (sample of 2,099 public schools in grades 6–12)
Crosnoe et al. (2004)		USA (nationally representative)	S	School size: enrollment divided by 100 (School size) <sup>b</sup> ; enrollment <sup>b</sup> divided by 100	Student school attachment: Adolescents reported the extent to which they agreed that in the past school year, they felt close to people at their schools, felt a part of their schools, and were happy to be at their schools.	1381	838	National longitudinal study of adolescent health (in home sample 1995)
Holas and Houston (2012)	Grade 5	USA (nationally)	P	Total enrolment	Student–teacher bonding (three items): the extent to which adolescents had trouble getting along with teachers, believed that teachers treated students fairly and, felt that teachers cared about them. School attachment: youth reported on the degree to which they felt competent in school, motivated and socially competent	490	210	NICHD study of early child care and youth development

(continued)

**Table A.6** (continued)

Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Identification wit and connectedness to school measure	Mean	SD	Database
Kahne et al. (2008)	USA (Chicago)	S	School size	Teacher-teacher trust: the extent to which teachers believe that they have mutual respect for one another, for those who lead school improvement efforts and, for those who are experts at their craft.  Academic personalism: students' views of their teachers' efforts to push students to higher levels of academic performance. Students also report on the degree to which they find their classes to be challenging.  Classroom personalism: the degree to which students perceive that their teachers give individual attention to and are concerned about students' academic performance  Sense of belonging: student reports of how personally connected students feel to the school  Student-teacher trust: students' perceptions about the quality of their relationships with teachers  Teacher support: students' reports of teachers' being there to help with personal matters	477	234	Consortium on Chicago school research's biannual survey. Administrative records of CPS and test data	
Kirkpatrick Johnson et al. (2001)	Middle schools High schools	USA (nationally representative)	S	Total enrolment in schools in hundreds of students	School attachment: the extent to which adolescents agreed that. In the past school year, they felt close to people at their schools, felt a part of their schools, and were happy to be at their schools	1147	716	National longitudinal study of adolescent health
Koth et al. (2008)	USA (Maryland)	P	School enrolment	Achievement motivation (scale six items, e.g., My teachers believe I can do well in my school. I enjoy learning at this school)				Large scale study of a school-wide behavior support program called positive behavioral interventions and support

(continued)



**Table A.6** (continued)

Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Identification wit and connectedness to school measure	Mean	SD	Database
Lee and Loeb (2000)		USA (Chicago)	P	Number of students in the school <400 (RF) (5.2 % of students) 400–750 (48.8 %) >750 (46.0 %)	Teachers' collective responsibility: the extent of a shared commitment among the faculty to improve the school so that all students learn. Teachers were asked how many of their colleagues feel responsible for student's academic and social development, set high standards of professional practice and take responsibility for school improvement			Data provided by the consortium on Chicago school research
McNeely (2002)		USA (nationwide)	S	Ln school size (in 100 s)	School connectedness (based on responses to five items: I feel close to people at this school, I feel like I am part of this school, I am happy to be at this school, the teachers at this school treat students fairly, I feel safe at my school)	642	765	National longitudinal study of adolescent health
Payne (2012)		USA (nationally representative)	S	Ln student enrolment	Communal school organization: composite of supportive and collaborative relations (between and among faculty and administration, support felt by teachers and members) and common goals and norms (commonality of direction and expected behavior in the school)	792	479	Sample from national study of delinquency prevention
Rosenblatt (2001)		Israel (Northern part)	S	Number of students divided by 1,000	Organizational commitment (scale, 9 items), e.g., I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this school be successful, I talk up this school to my friends as a great school to work in, I feel very little loyalty to this school	1020	650	Sample from secondary school teachers in the northern part of Israel

(continued)

**Table A.6** (continued)

Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Identification wit and connectedness to school measure	Mean	SD	Database
Silins and Mulford (2004)		Australia	S	Size in 1997	Extent of students' engagement with school including students' perception of the way teachers relate to them, perceptions of their relationship with their peers, their perceptions of the usefulness of their schoolwork in later life, and the extent of identification with their school	632	283	Leadership for organizational learning and student outcomes (LOLSO)
Van der Vegt et al. (2005)		Netherlands	S	Number of pupils at school site	School connectedness (scale, eight items) Relationships with peers (scale, nine items) Relationship with teachers (scale, seven items)			National pupil monitor (secondary education) 2005
Vieno et al. (2005)		Italy (Veneto)	S	Size of the student body	Students' sense of community in the school: (scale, six items) I feel I belong at this school, Our students accept me as I am, Our school is a nice place to be, The students in my class enjoy being together, most of the students in my class are kind and helpful, when I need extra help I can get it from my teacher.	480	304	Health Behavior in School-aged Children (HBSC) project (Veneto regional data)
De Winter (2003)		Netherlands	S	School size <500 (32 %) 500–100 (28 %) >1,000 (40 %)	Classroom Climate			Health behavior of school children

**Table A.7** Methodological information available from studies of school size on students' and teachers' attitudes to school

Authors	Sample	Identification with and connectedness to school measure	Number of schools included	Number of classes/teachers included	Number of students included	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported in publication	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Bowen et al. (2000)	School satisfaction Teacher support	School satisfaction Teacher support	39		945	ANCOVA Least significant different pairwise comparisons	Yes			(>800) (>800)	Schools with enrolments of 800 or more may be too large to ensure a satisfactory educational environment
Crosnoe et al. (2004)	Student school attachment	Student school attachment	84		13,162	Multilevel (unstandardized) <sup>b</sup> School size (100) School size (100) squared Multilevel (standardized) School size (100) School size (100) squared	Yes	$b = -0.02$ $b = 0.001$ $b = -0.0095$ $b = 0.0190$ $b = 0.011$	0.01 0.00 0.0095 0.00	— U 1900–2000	"... students' positive views of their schools declined at a slowing rate as school size increased, with the lowest level occurring at schools with between 1,900–2,000 students." (p. 1268)
Holas and Huston (2012)	Grade 5	Student-teacher bonding				Multilevel (unstandardized) <sup>b</sup> School size (100) School size (100) squared Multilevel (standardized) School size (100) School size (100) squared	Yes	$b = -0.02$ $b = 0.001$ $b = -0.226$ $b = 0.011$	0.01 0.00 0.113 0.00	n.s. n.s.	"The results for student-teacher bonding were similar to those for school attachment. .... with a steady decline bottoming out at about 1,700–1,800 students" (p. 1270) (significant at 0.10 level)
Kahne et al. (2008)	Grade 5	Teacher-teacher trust (teacher) Academic personalism (student)	80		827	Structural equation modelling Multilevel (unstandardized)	Yes	n.r. $b = 0.209$ $b = -0.523$	n.s. n.s.	n.s. n.s.	

(continued)

**Table A.7 (continued)**

Methodological information available from studies of school size on students' and teachers' attitudes to school											
Authors	Sample	Identification wit and connectedness to school measure	Number of schools included	Number of classes/ teachers included	Number of students included	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported in publication	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
		Classroom (academic) personalism						$b = -0.523$		-	
		Sense of belonging (student)						$b = -0.175$		-	
		Student-teacher trust (student)						$b = -0.304$		-	
		Teacher support (student)						$b = -0.805$		-	
Kirkpatrick Johnson et al. (2001)	Middle schools	School attachment	45		2,482	Multilevel (standardized)	Yes	n.r.		n.s.	
	High schools		64		8,104			n.r.		n.s.	
Koth et al. (2008)		Achievement motivation	37	120	2,468	Multilevel (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -0.02$	0.01	-	
Lee and Loeb (2000)		Teachers' collective responsibility	264	4,495	22,599	Multilevel (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -0.406$		-	Teachers view's about the prevalence of collective responsibility, appeared to be more negative in medium sized schools (ES = -0.50) and even more in large schools (ES = -0.73) compared to small schools
		Medium versus small						$b = -0.589$		-	
McNeely (2002)		Large versus small								-	
		School connectedness	127		75,515	Multilevel (unstandardized)		$b = -0.089$		-	
Payne (2012)		Communal school organization	253			OLS regression (standardized)	Yes	$\beta = -1.00$		n.s.	
Rosenblatt (2001)		Organizational commitment	12	200		Structural equation modelling	No	$\beta = 0.22$		-	
Silins and Mulford (2004)		Engagement	96	2,503	3,500	Structural equation modelling	Yes	$B = -0.16$		-	

(continued)

Table A.7 (continued)

Methodological information available from studies of school size on students' and teachers' attitudes to school											
Authors	Sample	Identification with and connectedness to school measure	Number of schools included	Number of classes/teachers included	Number of students included	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported in publication	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Van der Vegt et al. (2005)	School connectedness	School connectedness and connectedness with peers	51		5,300	Regression (standardized)	No	n.r. B = -0.06 B = -0.06		n.s. - -	
Vieno et al. (2005)	Relationship with students	Relationship with students	134	248	4,733	Multilevel (unstandardized)	Yes	b = 0.001	0.001	n.s.	
Winter (2003)	School climate	Students' sense of community in the school			5,726	One way ANCOVA	Yes	Mean score 3.81 3.91 3.88		∩ 500-1000	Differences also significant after correction for school type or urbanisation

Notes <sup>a</sup> n.s. = not significant at  $p = 0.05$

<sup>b</sup> standardized with  $s_x$  and  $s_y$ ,  $\beta = bs_x/s_y$

<sup>c</sup> n.r. = not reported (= not in table)

**Table A.8** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, and positive effects of school size on students’ and teachers’ attitudes for each sample (school size measured as a continuous variable)

Study	Sample	Education level	Negative	Not significant	Positive	Total
Crosnoe et al. (2004)		S	1	1	0	2
Kahne et al. (2008)		S	4	1	0	5
Koth et al. (2008)		P	1	0	0	1
McNeely et al. (2002)		S	1	0	0	1
Payne (2012)		S	1	0	0	1
Rosenblatt (2001)		S	1	0	0	1
Silins and Mulford (2004)		S	1	0	0	1
Van der Vegt et al. (2005)		S	2	1	0	3
Vieno et al. (2005)		S	0	1	0	1
Total			12	4	0	16

**Table A.9** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, positive, and curvilinear effects of school size on students’ and teachers’ attitudes for each sample (school size effect modelled as quadratic function)

Study	Sample	Education level	Direction of effect		Remarks
			–	n.s. + Curvilinear	
Crosnoe et al. (2004)		S		U 1900–2000	
				n.s.	

**Table A.10** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, positive, and curvilinear effects of school size on students’ and teachers’ attitudes for each sample (school size measured as categories)

Study	Sample	Education level	Direction of effect		Remarks
			–	n.s. + Curvilinear	
Bowen et al. (2000)		S	–		Categories: 0–399, 400–599, 600–799, 800–999, 1,000–1,399 Schools with enrolments of 800 or more may be too large to ensure a satisfactory educational environment
Lee and Loeb (2000)		P	–		Categories: <400 versus 400–750 400–750 versus >750
Weiss et al. (2010)		S	–		Categories: 1–599 (RF), 600–999, 1,000–1,599, 1,600–2,499
Winter (2003)		S		1	Categories: <500, 500–1,000, >1,000

**Table A.11** Overview of studies of school size on participation (students, teachers and parents)

Overview of studies of school size on participation (students, teachers and parents)		Mean		SD		Database		
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Involvement measure	Mean	SD	Database
Coladareci and Cobb (1996)	USA (nationally representative)		S	Total high school enrolment Compares smaller (<800) and larger (≥1,600) schools Students from schools with other sizes eliminated from analyses	Extracurricular participation: self-reported participation for specific activities related to academics (e.g., clubs, student government, sport and the performing arts). Total EP composite across all activities and both grades (TEP)			National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS: 88)
Crosnoe et al. (2004)	USA (nationally representative)		S	School size: enrolment divided by 100 (School size) <sup>b</sup> : (Enrolment divided by 100) squared	Student extracurricular participation Students reported whether they had engaged in 33 extracurricular activities. Activities are grouped into five categories (athletic, academic, performing arts, leadership, and other) and then summed	1381	838	National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health (in home sample 1995)
Dee et al. (2007)	USA (nationally representative)		S	School size Five categories: <400 (4.3 %) (RF) 400–799 (12.5 %) 800–1,199 (17.6 %) 1,200–2,199 (42.0 %) >2,200 (23.6 %)	Parent(s) act as a volunteer at the school (individual level)			Educational longitudinal study of 2002 (ELS: 2002)

(continued)

**Table A.11** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on participation (students, teachers and parents)						
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Involvement measure	Mean SD Database
Feldman and Matjasko (2006)		USA (nationally representative)	S	School size Three categories: 1–400 (18.7 %) (RF) 401–1,000 (47.1 %) >1,000 (34.2 %)	Adolescent school-based extracurricular activity participation (multiple activities)	424 National longitudinal study of adolescent health (Wave 1)
Gardner et al. (2000)		USA (California)	S	School size Small schools (200–600 pupils) Large schools (>2,000 pupils)	Average of total number of California parent teacher association members for each affiliated school for the years 1995–1996 and 1996–1997	2500 424 Data obtained through the California parent teacher association, or from questionnaires mailed to principals and/or by telephone contact
Holas and Huston (2012)	Grade 6	USA (nationally)	PS	Total enrolment	School involvement	690 300 NICHD study of early child care and youth development
Kahne et al. (2008)		USA (Chicago)	S	School size	Teacher influence: measures the extent of teachers' involvement in school decision making	Consortium on Chicago School Research's biannual survey. Administrative records of CPS and test data
Lay (2007)		USA (nationwide)	S	School size Continuous measure Categories based on continuous measure <300, 301–600, 601–900, 901–1200, 1201–1500, 1501–1800, >1800 Categories based on parental responses <300, 300–599, 600–999, >1000	Participation in school activities such as sports teams, safety patrol or school clubs	National household education survey

(continued)



**Table A.11** (continued)

Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Involvement measure	Mean	SD	Database
MacNeal (2008)	USA (nationwide, public schools)		S	Number of students (natural logarithm)	Number of school related activities in which a student participated (subject matter clubs, band and orchestra, chorus and dance, athletic teams, cheerleading, pep clubs and majorettes, vocational education clubs and hobby clubs) (scale 0–8)	1053		High school and beyond database (NCES 1983)
Silins and Mulford (2004)	Australia		S	School size in 1997	Participation—representing the extent of students' participation in school including absences, participation in extracurricular activities, preparedness to do extra schoolwork, involvement in classroom/school decisions and setting own learning goals, and voicing opinion in class	632	283	Leadership for organizational learning and student outcomes (LOLSO)

**Table A.12** Methodological information available from studies of school size on participation (students, teachers and parents)

Methodological information available from studies of school size on participation (students, teachers and parents)											
Authors	Sample	Involvement measure	Number of schools included	Number of classes/teachers included	Number of students included	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Coladarsi and Cobb (1996)	Total extracurricular participation (individual level)	Student	84		4,567	Structural equation modelling	Yes	$\beta = -0.210$		-	Compares smaller (<800) and larger ( $\geq 1,600$ ) schools
						Multilevel (unstandardized) <sup>b</sup>	Yes	$b = -0.02$ n.r. $b = -0.0075$	0.00 0.00	-	Extracurricular participation ... school size had a negative linear effect (p. 1270)
Crosnoe et al. (2004)	Student	Extracurricular participation			1,3420	School size (100)					
						School size (100) squared					
Dee et al. (2006)	Parent(s) act as a volunteer		390		8,197	Multilevel (unstandardized) <sup>b</sup>	Yes	$b = -0.086$ $b = -0.080$ $b = -0.108$ $b = -0.123$ $b = -0.066$ $b = -0.070$ $b = -0.123$ $b = -0.120$	0.028 0.027 0.027 0.030 0.021 0.024 0.031 0.030	-(n.s.)	"... it should be noted the estimates for most categorical school size indicators above 400 students are not statistically distinguishable from each other" (p. 15)
						School size					
Feldman and Matjasko (2006)	Extracurricular activity participation (multiple activities)		132		13,810	Multilevel (standardized)					
						School size					
						<400					
						400-799					
						800-1199					
						1200-2199					
						>2200					
						Multinomial logistic regression	Yes	Relative risk ratio	0.13 0.09	-	Adolescents from medium and large schools (compared with small) were more likely to be nonparticipants than to participate in multiple activities. Difference between small and medium schools n.s.
						1-400(RF)		0.63			
						401-1,000		0.39			
						>1,000					

(continued)

Table A.12 (continued)

Methodological information available from studies of school size on participation (students, teachers and parents)											
Authors	Sample	Involvement measure	Number of schools included	Number of classes/teachers included	Number of students included	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Gardner et al. (2000)		Parental participation (small vs. large schools)	127			An(c)ova	Yes	$F(1,118) = 13$		–	
Holas and Huston (2012)	Grade 6	School involvement			825	Structural equation modelling	Yes	$\beta = -0.13$		–	
Kahne et al. (2008)		Teacher influence (teacher)	80			Multilevel (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -0.871$		–	
Lay (2007)		Participation in school activities			3,010	Logistic regression	Yes	$b = -0$	0.0001	–	Participation in schools with 1,501–1,800 students significantly less likely
		School size as continuous measure						$b = 0.322$	0.186	n.s.	No relationship between school size and participation
		Categories based on continuous measure						$b = 0.119$	0.153		
		<300						$b = 0.198$	0.151		
		301–600						$b = -0.073$	0.144		
		601–900						$b = -0.287$	0.125		
		901–1200						$b = -0.189$	0.168		
		1501–1800						$b = -0.253$	0.117		
		>1800						$b = -0.110$	0.100		
		Categories based on parental responses						$b = -0.100$			
		<300									
		600–999									
		>1,000									

(continued)

**Table A.12** (continued)

Methodological information available from studies of school size on participation (students, teachers and parents)											
Authors	Sample	Involvement measure	Number of schools included	Number of classes/teachers included	Number of students included	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
McNeal (2002)	Participation in: school related activities		281		5,772	Multilevel (unstandardized) Hierarchical logistic regression	Yes	$b = -0.309$ $b = -0.445$		–	–
Silins and Mulford (2004)	Athletics Participation		96	2,503	3,500	Structural equation modelling	Yes	$\beta = -0.39$		–	–

\* = included in vote count

Notes <sup>a</sup>  $n.s.$  = not significant at  $p = 0.05$ , <sup>b</sup> standardized with  $s_x$  and  $s_y$ ,  $\beta = bs_x/s_y$ , <sup>c</sup>  $n.r.$  = not reported (= not in table)

**Table A.13** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, and positive effects of school size on participation for each sample (school size measured as a continuous variable)

Study	Sample	Education level	Negative	Not significant	Positive	Total
Coladarci and Cobb (1996)		S	1	0	0	1
Crosnoe et al. (2004)		S	1	0	0	1
Kahne et al. (2008)		S	1	0	0	1
Kirkpatrick Johnson et al. (2001)	Grade 7–11	S	0	1	0	1
	Middle school					
	Grade 7–11	S	0	1	0	1
	High school					
Lay (2007)		S	1	0	0	1
MacNeal (2008)		S	2	0	0	2
Silins and Mulford (2004)		S	1	0	0	1
Total			7	2	0	9

**Table A.14** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, positive, and curvilinear effects of school size on participation for each sample (school size measured as categories)

Study	Sample	Education level	Direction of effect			Remarks
			–	n.s.	+	
Dee et al. (2007)	S			n.s.		Categories: <400 (RF), 400–799, 800–1199, 1200–2199, >2200 “...; it should be noted the estimates for most categorical school size indicators above 400 students are not statistically distinguishable from each other” (p. 15)
Feldman and Matjasko (2006)	S		–			Categories: 1–400, 401–1000, >1000 Adolescents from medium and large schools (compared with small) were more likely to be nonparticipants than to participate in multiple activities. Difference between small and medium schools n.s. Small schools (200–600) versus large schools (>2000)
Gardner et al. (2000)	S		–			Categories based on continuous measure <300, 301–600, 601–900, 901–1200, 1201–1500, 1501–1800, >1800
Lay (2007)	S				Participation in schools with 1,501–1,800 students significantly less likely	Categories based on parental responses <300, 300–599, 600–999, >1000
	S			n.s.		

**Table A.15** Overview of studies of school size on safety

Overview of studies of school size on safety		Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Safety measure	Mean	SD	Database
Altar-Schwartz (2009)		Israel		S	Number of students at school	Sexual harassment victimization (0 = never sexually harassed in the past month ... 7 = victimized by seven different sexual harassment behaviors) (school average)	557	332	National survey of school violence among students in grade 4 through 11 in Israel during spring 2005
Bonnet et al. (2009)		Netherlands (Flevoland and North Holland provinces)		P	Number of children attending the school Small schools (<300 pupils) (7 schools) Medium schools (301–500 pupils) (13 schools) Large schools (>500 pupils) (3 schools)	Victimization score of individual child (16 items: teacher questionnaire)			2003 children in the 1st two grades of elementary schools
Bowen et al. (2000)		USA (nationally representative)		S	Total number of students enrolled in each school (middle school) Five categories: 0–399 (6 schools) 400–599 (11 schools) 600–799 (8 schools) 800–999 (10 schools) 1000–1399 (4 schools)	School safety: summary variable ranging from 10 to 30. Scale (10 items) assessing whether various student behaviors were a big problem, a slight problem or no problem at the school with regard to fights among students, students use of alcohol, student physical and verbal abuse of teachers	689		Data collected by Louis Harris and Associates, Inc. (sample of 2099 public schools in grades 6–12)
Bowes et al. (2009)		England (twins register)		P	Total number of children in school based on data for schools attended by study participants	Involvement in bullying between ages 5 and 7 Groups: Noninvolved (RF) Victims (victimized by bullies but have not bullied others) Bullies have bullied others but have not themselves been victimized) Bully-victims (have been victimized by bullies and have bullied others as well)	291	136	Environmental risk longitudinal twin study

(continued)

**Table A.15** (continued)

Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Safety measure	Mean	SD	Database
Chen (2008)	USA (nationally representative)	USA (nationally representative)	S	Enrollment Less than 300 (7.2 %) 300–499 (12.1 %) 500–999 (26.1 %) 1,000 or more (54.6 %)	Number of crime incidents that occurred in a school in the past 12 months  Misbehavior (frequency of student bullying and frequency classroom disorder)			2,000 school survey on crime and safety
Chen and Weikart (2008)	USA (New York City)	USA (New York City)	S	Number of students enrolled at each school	School disorder: major crime, minor crime and noncrime incidents reported by New York police department on a per 1,000-student population basis  (NYPD reside on campus and are responsible for school safety)	960	493	Data From New York City department of education (2002–2003 and 2003–2004 school year data for all middle schools)
Chen and Vazsonyi (2013)	USA (nationally representative)	USA (nationally representative)	S	Small schools (<400 students) (14 %) Medium size schools (400–1,000 students) (38 %) Large schools (>1,000 students) (48 %)	Problem Behavior Health survey (Participant scale): 17 items range of norm-violating behaviors in the past 12 months; alcohol use and marijuana			First two waves of the national longitudinal study of adolescent health (add health)
Eccles et al. (1991)	USA (nationally representative)	USA (nationally representative)	P and S	Total school enrollment P/K/1–8 th grade schools versus middle and junior high schools (grades 6–8, grades 7–8, grades 7–9) P/K/1–8 th grade schools smaller on the average than other three types	Violence (student and teacher questionnaire, e.g., physical conflicts between students is not a problem, student possession of weapons is not a problem)  Substance abuse while at school (student and teacher questionnaire, e.g., student use of alcohol is not a problem, student use of illegal drugs is not a problem)			National education longitudinal study (NELS: 88)

(continued)



**Table A.15** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on safety						
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Safety measure	Mean SD Database
Gottfredson and DiPietro (2011)	USA (nationally representative)	USA (nationally representative)	S	Number of students enrolled in the school (natural log)	Personal victimization: five items students' in school personal victimization experiences (e.g., been physically attacked, been threatened with a knife)  Property victimization: two items students' in school personal victimization experiences (e.g., whether the respondent has something stolen from his or her desk.)	792 478 Sample drawn from most comprehensive list of schools available
Haller (1992)	USA (nationally representative)	USA (nationally representative)	PS	Enrollment in 1980	Disorder (reported by principals): a score on the seriousness of five types of disciplinary problems in their school (theft, vandalism, drugs, weapons and verbal abuse of teachers)  Disorder (reported by students): % of students who perceived four types of disorder to be a problem in their school  Disorder (self-reported: % of students that had personally been a discipline problem, or had been suspended)	963 1219 High School and Beyond surveys (1980 en 1982)
Heck (1993)	USA (Western state)	USA (Western state)	PS	Actual size of enrollment	Substance abuse: the number of student suspensions for significant offences (i.e. felonies and misdemeanours)	State department of education's survey on restructuring the curriculum

(continued)

**Table A.15** (continued)

Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Safety measure	Mean	SD	Database
Inspectorate of Education (2003)		Netherlands	S	School size Categories: <500 501-1,000 >1,000	Pupil guidance/support School climate			Data form regular school supervision (years 1999-2000, 2000-2001)
Kahne et al. (2008)		USA (Chicago)	S	School size	Respectful classroom behavior: students' assessment of their peers' classroom behavior with regard to how they treat one another, how often they disrupt class, if they have respect for one another and, if they help one another learn			Consortium on Chicago School Research's biannual survey. Administrative records of CPS and test data
Khoury-Kassabri et al. (2004)		Israel (nationally representative)	S	Number of students attending the school	Physical victimization, including being cut with a knife and getting a beating that resulted in medical treatment. Verbal-social victimization: being threatened verbally or with a knife	505	298	National school violence survey carried out across Israel during the spring of 1999

(continued)

**Table A.15** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on safety						
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Safety measure	Mean SD Database
Klein and Cornell (2010)	USA (Virginia)	S	School enrolment size	Self-report bully victimization Student perceptions of bullying Teacher perceptions of bullying Total bullying violations Bullying violations rate Self-report threat victimization Total threat violations Threat violations rate Self-report physical attack victimization Total attack violations Attack violations rate	1210	690 Virginia high school safety study
Koth et al. (2008)	USA (Maryland)	P	School enrolment	Order and discipline (scale 11 items) e.g., my school is a safe place. Children in my school fight a lot	Large scale study of a school-wide behavior support program called positive behavioral interventions and support	
Leung and Ferris (2008)	Canada (Montreal, Quebec)	S	The actual number of students (in thousands) in the school that the subject attended	If the subject self-reported that at least one violent event took place when 17 years old. Violent events are defined as participation in a gang fight, fighting with fists, using a weapon in a fight, carrying weapons, beating up someone without reason, beating up someone to force that person to do something, destroying something that belongs to a family member	Data collected from a young group of males, their families and peers form an ongoing longitudinal youth study. Data on school sizes and other school characteristics collected from studies in education policy	
			Categories <999 (RF) 1,000–1,499 1,500–1,999 >2,000			

(continued)

**Table A.15** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on safety						
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Safety measure	Mean SD Database
Mooij et al. (2011)		Netherlands	S	Number of pupils/100	Pupil's feelings of safety at school	926 514 National survey about school safety in secondary education (initiated by Dutch ministry of education, culture and science) (2nd date wave, 2008)
O'Moore et al. (1997)	P	Ireland	P	Number of pupils 0–199 (small) 200–499 (medium) 500 or more (large)	Incidence of being bullied Incidence of bullying others	
	S		S	0–199 (small) 200–499 (medium) 500 or more (large)		
Stewart (2003)		USA (nationally representative)	S	School enrolment	School misbehavior (scale, four items); got in trouble for not following school rules, put on in-school suspension, Suspended or put on probation from school, Got into a physical fight at school)	1540 686 National education longitudinal study (NELS): second wave 1990
Van der Vegt et al. (2005)		Netherlands	S	Number of pupils at school site	Safety (feelings) Safety policy Bullying and fighting Vandalism, drugs and theft	National pupil monitor (secondary education) 2005
Watt (2003)	Males Females	USA (nationally representative)	S	Three categories: Small (400 or less students) (19.2 %) Medium (401–1000) (46.7 %) Large (1001–4000) (34.2 %)	Violence: weapon use/threat How often in the 12 past months did you use or threaten to use a weapon to get something from someone? Dichotomy to differentiate those who had used or threaten to use a weapon in the past year from those who had not	National longitudinal survey of adolescent health (add feath) Panel study conducted in 1994–1996 Wave 1 and 2 Data analyzed separately for males and females

(continued)

**Table A.15** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on safety						
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Safety measure	Mean SD Database
Wei et al. (2010)		Taiwan (Taichung City)	S	Total number of students in school	Physical bullying (3 items): you hit other students, You kick other students, you hurt other students with dangerous objects or tools. Verbal bullying (two items): you verbally insult other students, You threaten other students.	1568 989 Public middle school subsample of the Taichung City youth life conditions survey
Winter (2003)		Netherlands	S	School size <500 (32 %) 500–1002 (28 %) >1000 (40 %)	Being bullied Bullying Frequent fighting	Health behavior of school children

**Table A.16** Methodological information available from studies of school size on safety

Authors	Sample	Safety measure	Number of schools	Number of classes	Number of students	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported	SE reported	Direction effect	Further information
Altar-Schwartz (2009)	Sexual harassment		327		16,604	Multilevel (HLM) (unstandardized) <sup>b</sup>	Yes	$\beta = 0.032$	0.015	—	$s$ at 0.05
Bonnet et al. (2009)	Victimization score		23	98	2,003	Multilevel analysis (unstandardized)	Yes	Small size $b = -0.17$ Medium size $b = -0.16$ Large size (RF) $b = 0.165$	0.09 0.07 0.08	(-) n.s.	
Bowen et al. (2000)	School safety		39		945	ANCOVA Least significant different pairwise comparisons	Yes	Schools with enrollments of 800 or more may be too large to ensure a satisfactory educational environment		(>800)	
Bowes et al. (2009)	Noninvolved (RF) Victims Bullies Bully-Victims Misbehavior (student bullying and classroom disorder)				Sample of 2,232 children	Multivariate multinomial logistic regression Structural equation modelling	Yes	Odds ratio 1.2 0.9 0.8 $\beta = 0.12$		— n.s. n.s. —	School size is associated with an increased risk for being a victim of bullying
Chen and Weikart (2008)	Number of crime incidents School disorder: Major crime, minor crime and noncrime incidents		213			Structural equation modelling (school level)	Yes	$\beta = -0.10$		—	
Chen and Vazsonyi (2013)	Problem behavior Small school (RF) Medium-size school Large school		85		9,163	Multilevel analysis (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = 0.118$ $b = 0.172$	0.073 0.076	—	

(continued)

**Table A.16 (continued)**

Methodological information available from studies of school size on safety											
Authors	Sample	Safety measure	Number of schools	Number of classes	Number of students	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported	SE reported	Direction effect	Further information
Eccles et al. (1991)	Violence		729			Regression	No	$\beta = -0.047$		-	"the larger the school size, ... the more violence were reported as being a major problem at the school by both teachers and students" (p. 351)
Eccles et al. (1991)	Substance abuse		759					$\beta = -0.059$		-	"the larger the school size, ... substance abuse were reported as being a major problem at the school by both teachers and students" (p. 351)
Gottfredson and DiPietro (2011)	Personal victimization Property victimization		253		13,597	Multilevel analysis (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -0.005$ $b = -0.036$	0.003 0.011	n.s. -	
Haller (1992)	Disorder Principals Students		558			Regression (standardized)	Yes	$\beta = 0.263$ $\beta = 0.079$ $\beta = 0.128$		- n.s. -	
Heck (1993)	Self-reported Suspensions		235			Regression (standardized)	Yes	$\beta = -0.03$		n.s.	
Inspectorate of Education (2003)	Pupil guidance and school climate		378			ANOVA	No			n.s.	
Kahne et al. (2008)	Respectful classroom behavior		80			Multilevel analysis (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -0.115$		n.s.	

(continued)

**Table A.16 (continued)**

Methodological information available from studies of school size on safety											
Authors	Sample	Safety measure	Number of schools	Number of classes	Number of students	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported	SE reported	Direction effect	Further information
Khoury-Kassabri et al. (2004)		Serious physical victimization	162		10,400	Multilevel analysis (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = 0.005$	n.s.	n.s.	
		Threats					$b = 0.007$				
		Moderate physical victimization					$b = 0.002$				
		Verbal-social victimization					$b = 0.007$				
Klein and Cornell (2010)		Self-report bully victimization	290		7,431	Regression (standardized)	Yes	$\beta = -0.01$	n.s.	n.s.	
		Student perceptions of bullying					$\beta = 0.41$				
		Teacher perceptions of bullying					$\beta = 0.20$				
		Total bullying violations					$\beta = 0.49$				
		Bullying violations rate					$\beta = -0.33$				
		Self-report threat victimization					$\beta = 0.06$				
		Total threat violations					$\beta = -0.39$				
		Threat violations rate					$\beta = -0.02$				
		Self-report physical attack					$\beta = 0.67$				
		Self-report physical attack victimization					$\beta = -0.46$				
		Total attack violations									
		Attack violations rate									

(continued)



**Table A.16** (continued)

Methodological information available from studies of school size on safety											
Authors	Sample	Safety measure	Number of schools	Number of classes	Number of students	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported	SE reported	Direction effect	Further information
Koth et al. (2008)		Order and discipline	37	120	2468	Multilevel analysis (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = 0.0$	0.01	n.s.	
Leung and Ferris (2008)		Youth violence (Actual number of students in 1000)	110		616	Logistic regression (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = 0.3475$ 0.0860		–	“In terms of its marginal effect, an increase in school enrolment would lead to about a 10 % increase in the probability of teenage violence” (p. 328)
		Size as continuous measure				Coefficient					
		Four categories:				Marginal effect					
		<999 (RF)						$b = 0.2749$		n.s.	Discontinuity in the effect of school size: “... teenagers who
		1,000–1,499						$b = 0.2196$		n.s.	attended a school with more than 2,000
		1,500–1,999						$b = 0.8838$		–	students were about 22 per cent more likely to engage in violent behavior than those who attended schools with less than 1,000 students” (p. 328)
		>2,000						0.0680			
		<999 (RF)						0.0543			
		1,000–1,499						0.2186			
		1,500–1,999									
		>2,000									
Moosij et al. (2011)		Pupil’s feelings of safety at school	104		26,162	Multilevel analysis (unstandardized) <sup>b</sup>	Yes	$B = 0.035$	0.016	+	
O’Moore et al. (1997)	P	Incidence of being bullied	320		9,559	ANOVA	No			n.s.	No significant differences
		Incidence of bullying others								U	Highest proportion of pupils bullying others in medium-sized schools, least in large schools

(continued)

Table A.16 (continued)

Methodological information available from studies of school size on safety											
Authors	Sample	Safety measure	Number of schools	Number of classes	Number of students	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported	SE reported	Direction effect	Further information
S		Incidence of being bullied Incidence of bullying others	211		10,843	ANOVA	No			U	Incidence of pupils being bullied least common in large schools Being bullied least common in large-sized schools. Small schools highest incidence of bullying
Stewart (2003)	School	School misbehavior <sup>+</sup>	528		10,578	Nonlinear hierarchical generalized linear model (HGLM)	Yes	$b = 0.173$	0.042	-	After a wide range of individual and school level covariates is controlled for, school misbehavior continued to vary significantly between schools
Van der Vegt et al. (2005)	Safety (feelings) Safety policy <sup>+</sup> Bullying and fighting <sup>+</sup> Vandalism, drugs and theft <sup>+</sup>		51		5,300	Regression (standardized)	No	n.r. $\beta = -0.08$ $\beta = 0.07$ $\beta = 0.16$		n.s. + - -	
Watt (2003)	Males Females	Weapon use/ threat Males Small school Medium school Females Small school Medium school			12,150	Logistic regression (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = 0.236$ $b = -0.146$ $b = 0.623$ $b = 0.183$	0.311 0.210 0.355 0.307	Total n.s.	Odds ratio 1.266 0.864 1.865 1.201 Combined vote count for males and females n.s.

(continued)

**Table A.16** (continued)

Methodological information available from studies of school size on safety											
Authors	Sample	Safety measure	Number of schools	Number of classes	Number of students	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported	SE reported	Direction effect	Further information
Wei et al. (2010)		Physical bullying	12	36	1,172	Multilevel analysis (unstandardized) <sup>b</sup>	No	$b = -0.000$	0.000	n.s.	Intra-Class Correlation
		Verbal bullying					Yes	$b = -0.000$	0.000	n.s.	Physical bullying 0.03
Winter (2003)		Physical bullying			5,726	One way ANCOVA	Yes	$\beta = -0.073$	0.116		Verbal bullying 0.02
		Verbal bullying					Yes	$\beta = -0.148$	0.093		
		Being bullied <sup>+</sup>					Yes	<500	500–1000	>1000	
	Bullying <sup>+</sup>						1.57	1.42	1.37	+	orection for school
	Frequent fighting <sup>+</sup>						1.73	1.57	1.51	+	type or urbanisation
							1.87	1.64	1.67	+	

\* = included in vote-count

Notes <sup>a</sup> n.s. = not significant at  $p = 0.05$ , <sup>b</sup> standardized with  $s_x$  and  $s_y$ ,  $\beta = bs_x/s_y$ , <sup>c</sup> n.r. = not reported (= not in table)

**Table A.17** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, and positive effects of school size on safety for each sample (school size measured as a continuous variable)

Study	Sample	Education level	Negative	Not significant	Positive	Total
Attar-Schwartz (2009)		S	1	0	0	1
Bowes et al. (2009)		P	1	2	0	3
Chen (2008)		S	2	0	0	2
Chen and Weikart (2008)		S	0	1	0	1
Eccles et al. (1991)		PS	2	0	0	2
Gottfredson and DiPietro (2011)		S	1	1	0	2
Haller (1992)		S	2	1	0	3
Heck (1993)		PS	0	1	0	1
Kahne et al. (2008)		S	0	1	0	1
Khoury-Kassabri et al. (2004)		S	0	4	0	4
Klein and Cornell (2010)		S	5	3	3	11
Koth et al. (2008)		P	1	1	0	0
Leung and Ferris (2008)		S	1	0	0	1
Mooij et al. (2011)		S	0	0	1	1
Stewart (2003)		S	1	0	0	1
Van der Vegt et al. (2005)		S	2	1	1	4
Wei et al. (2010)		S	0	2	0	2
Total			19	17	5	40

**Table A.18** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, positive, and curvilinear effects of school size on safety for each sample (school size measured as categories)

Study	Sample	Education level	Direction of effect		Remarks
			-	n.s. +	
Bonnet et al. (2009)		P		n.s.	Categories: <300, 301–500, >500
Bowen et al. (2000)		S	-		Categories: 0–399, 400–599, 600–799, 800–999, 1000–1399 Schools with enrollments of 800 or more may be too large to ensure a satisfactory educational environment
Chen and Vazsonyi (2013)		S	-		Categories: <400, 400–1000, >1000
Inspectorate of Education (2003)		S		n.s.	Categories: 0–500, 500–1000, >1000
Leung and Ferris (2008)		S		n.s.	Categories: <999 (RF), 1000–1499, 1500–1999, >2000 Discontinuity in the effect of school size: "... teenagers who attended a school with more than 2,000 students were about 22 % more likely to engage in violent behavior than those who attended schools with less than 1,000 students" (p. 328)
O'Moore et al. (1997)	Primary school	P		n.s.	Categories: 0–199, 200–499, >500
	Secondary school	S		+	Categories: 0–199, 200–499, >500
Watt (2003)				n.s.	Categories: <400, 400–1000, >1000
Winter (2003)		S		+	Categories: <500, 500–1000, >1000
				+	
				+	

**Table A.19** Overview of studies of school size on attendance/absenteeism and truancy

Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Dependent variable	Mean	SD	Database
Bos et al. (1990)	Netherlands		S	School size	Truancy: the percentage of pupils absent without permission from the total number of potential absentees, during the three days of data collection			Data from 36 schools that participated in the absence registration project
Chen and Weikart (2008)	USA (New York City)		S	Number of students enrolled at each school	Attendance rate: the average percentage of days students come to school for the 2003–2004 school year	960	493	Data from New York City Department of Education (2002–2003 and 2003–2004 school year data for all middle schools)
Durán-Narucki (2008)	USA (New York City, Manhattan borough)		P	The number of students enrolled at each school	Attendance: the average percentage of days that students at a given school attended during the year	712	328	Building Condition Survey (comprehensive study on the condition of New York City school buildings School Report Cards for the year 2000 New York City Board of education National Education Longitudinal Study (NELS: 88)
Eccles et al. (1991)	USA (nationally representative)		P and S	Total school enrolment P/K/1–8 th grade schools versus middle and junior high schools (grades 6–8, grades 7–8, grades 7–9) P/K/1–8 th grade schools smaller on the average than other three types	Absenteeism (student and teacher questionnaire): e.g., Student absenteeism is not a problem			

(continued)

**Table A.19** (continued)

Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Dependent variable	Mean	SD	Database
Foreman-Peck and Foreman-Peck (2006)	UK (Wales)		S	Log (previous year pupil numbers) School size 1996 School size 2002	% of nonattendance	871 936	331 328	Dataset provided by the school and teacher statistics division of the Welsh assembly government
Gardner et al. (2000)	USA (California)		S	School size Small schools (200–600 pupils) Large schools (>2,000 pupils)	Absenteeism rate for each school	424 2500		Data procured from the education finance division of the California department of education Data were obtained from the 1995/1996 California high school Performance Report
Haller (1992)	USA (nationally representative)		PS	School size: enrolment in 1980	Truancy (reported by principals): a score on the seriousness of two types of attendance problems in their school (unexcused absences class cutting) Truancy (reported by students): % of students who perceived two types of truancy to be a problem in their school Truancy self-reported: % of students that had personally taken unexcused absences)	963	1219	High School and Beyond surveys (1980 en 1982)

(continued)

**Table A.19** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on attendance/absenteeism and truancy						
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Dependent variable	Mean SD Database
Heck (1993)		USA (Western state)	PS	Actual size of enrolment	Attendance: percentage of daily attendance	State department of education's survey on restructuring the curriculum
Jones et al. (2008)		USA (Texas)	S	School enrolment	Average daily attendance rate	1012 849 Texas education agency's academic excellence indicator systems
Kahne et al. (2008)		USA (Chicago)	S	School size	Absences: average number of days students were absent from their classes during one academic year	Consortium on Chicago school research's biannual survey. administrative records of CPS and test data
Kuziemko (2006)		USA (Indiana)	P	Abrupt change in school enrolment	Absolute change in average daily attendance rate change over 1 year, 2 years, 3 years	170 Indiana department of education: attendance data Public school universe data from national center for educational statistics
Lee et al. (2011)	03–04 04–05 05–06 06–07 07–08	USA (Ohio)	S	Small schools in Ohio versus traditional schools that are identified as similar to the small schools Large school at or above 800 students. Small learning communities approximately 100 students per grade level or 400 students with the learning community	Attendance rate	Data collected from more than 230 Ohio schools



**Table A.20** Methodological information available from studies of school size on attendance/absenteeism and truancy

Methodological information available from studies of school size on attendance/absenteeism and truancy										
Authors	Sample variable	Number of schools included	Number of classes included	Number of students included	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Bos et al. (1990)	Truancy				Regression	Yes	n.r.		n.s.	
Chen and Weikart (2008)	Attendance rate	213			Structural Equation Modelling (school level)	Yes	$\beta = -0.08$		-	
Durán-Narucki (2008)	Attendance	95			Regression (standardized)	Yes	$\beta = 0.370$		+	Mediation model (attendance is mediator)
Eccles et al. (1991)	Absenteeism	759			Regression	No	$\beta = -0.086$		-	"the larger the school size, the more absenteeism ... were reported as being a major problem at the school by both teachers and students" (p. 351)
Foreman-Peck and Foreman-Peck (2006)	% of nonattendance Ln school size	1119			Logistic regression (Unstandardized)	Yes	$b = 0.075$		-	No optimum size for attendance
Gardner et al. (2000)	Absenteeism (small vs. large schools)	127			An(c)ova	Yes	$F(1,117) = 8.51$		-	
Haller (1992)	Truancy Principals Students Self-reported	558			Regression (standardized)	Yes	$\beta = 0.370$ $\beta = 0.354$ $\beta = 0.335$		- - -	

(continued)

**Table A.20** (continued)

Methodological information available from studies of school size on attendance/absenteeism and truancy											
Authors	Sample	Dependent variable	Number of schools included	Number of classes included	Number of students included	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Heck (1993)		Attendance	235			Regression (standardized)	Yes	$\beta = -0.28$		–	
Jones (2008)		Attendance rate	1039			Regression (unstandardized) <sup>b</sup>	Yes	$b = -0.0002$		–	
Kahne et al. (2008)		Absences	80			Standardized	Yes	Difference		–	
		2002-2003				Multilevel (unstandardized)		–7.4		n.s.	
		2003-2004						0.9		n.s.	
		2004-2005						1.9		–	
Kuziemko (2006)		2005-2006						–4.8		–	
		Absolute change in average daily attendance rate change over	>100			2 SLS regression (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = 0.003$	0.0015	n.s.	
		1 year						$b = -0.003$	0.0019	n.s.	
		2 years						$b = -0.004$	0.0018	–	
Lee et al. (2011)		3 years									
	03–04	Attendance rate (small schools vs. similar schools)	230			Mann-Whitney test	No	–		n.s.	“2007–2008 is the only year showing a statistically significant difference in attendance rates between small and similar schools, with similar schools having higher attendance rates” (p. 17)
	04–05							–		n.s.	
	05–06							–		n.s.	
	06–07							–		n.s.	
	07–08							–		+	

**Table A.21** Overview of studies of school size on drop-out

Overview of studies of school size on drop-out		Overview of studies of school size on drop-out					
Authors	Sample Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Dependent variable	Mean	SD	Database
Gardner et al. (2000)	USA (California)	S	School size Small schools (200–600 pupils) Large schools (>2000 pupils)	Dropout rate	424 2500		Data procured from the education finance division of the California department of education Data were obtained from the 1995/1996 California high school performance report
Kahne et al. (2008)	USA (Chicago)	S	School size	Drop-out rate: the proportion of students who began as first-time ninth graders at a Chicago Public School, who did not transfer out of the district, who did not graduate, and who were listed as inactive.			Consortium on Chicago school research's biannual survey. Administrative records of CPS and test data

(continued)

Table A.21 (continued)

Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Dependent variable	Mean	SD	Database
Lee and Burkam (2003)	USA (nationally representative)		S	Enrollment size Small 0–600 students Medium 601–1,500 students Large 1,501–2,500 students Very large >2,500 students	Dropped out between 10th and 12th grade (based on school reports and confirmation form the student or the student's parents)			High school effectiveness study (supplementary data collection to NELS: 88)
Rumberger and Palardy (2005)	USA (nationwide)		S	1–600 (small) 601–1,200 (medium) RF 1201–1800 (large) >1,800 (extra large)	Proportion of 10th grade students who dropped out between grades 10–12			National education longitudinal survey (NELS: 88)

**Table A.22** Methodological information available from studies of school size on drop-out

Methodological information available from studies of school size on drop-out											
Authors	Sample	Dependent variable	Number of schools included	Number of classes included	Number of students included	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Gardner et al. (2000)	Dropout rate (small vs. large schools)	127			Ant(C)ova	Yes	F(1,117) = 7.25			–	
Kahne et al. (2008)	Dropout rate 2002–2003 2003–2004	80			Multilevel (unstandardized)	Yes				n.s. n.s.	
Lee and Burkam (2003)	Dropped out between 10th and 12th grade 0–600 (small) 601–1,500 (medium) RF 1,501–2,500 (large) >2,500 (very large) 0–600 (small) 601–1,500 (medium) RF 1,501–2,500 (large) >2,500 (very large)	190	2,480		Multilevel (logistic) (unstandardized)	Yes	Change in log odds <sup>b</sup> 0.75 1.32 0.76 Change in odds 2.12 3.74 2.14				Positive odds associated with greater likelihood of dropping out. Compared to medium sized schools, large and very large schools had significantly higher drop-out rates. The highest drop-out rate was found in large schools. Small school also had higher drop-out rates (significant at 10 % level)

(continued)

**Table A.22** (continued)

Methodological information available from studies of school size on drop-out											
Authors	Sample	Dependent variable	Number of schools included	Number of classes included	Number of students included	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Rumberger and Palardy (2005)	Drop-out 1-600 (small) 601-1,200 RF 1,201-1,800 (large) >1,800 (extra large)		912		14,199	Two level multinomial logistic regression	Yes	School effect size -0.54 0.227 0.145		∩ 1200-1800	School effect size computed by first converting HLM coefficients to standard units and then dividing by the school-level standard deviation of the dependent variable estimated from the HLM null model

The results are presented in the log odds metric. Since this metric is not easily interpretable, the results were interpreted into an odds ratio (the ratio between  $p$ , the probability of dropping out, and  $1 - p$ , the probability of remaining in school). The odds ratio permits an estimate of the percentage increase or decrease in the odds of dropping out. For example, a change in the odds ratio of 1.75 represents a 75 % increase in the likelihood (or odds) of dropping out. A change in the odds ratio of 0.40 represents a 60 % decrease in the likelihood of dropping out (p. 373)

**Table A.23** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, and positive effects of school size on attendance/absenteeism and truancy for each sample (school size measured as a continuous variable)

Study	Sample	Education level	Negative	Not significant	Positive	Total
Bos et al. (1990)		S	0	1	0	1
Chen and Weikart (2008)		S	0	1	0	1
Durán-Narucki (2008)		P	0	0	1	1
Eccles et al. (1991)		PS	1	0	0	1
Foreman-Peck and Foreman-Peck (2006)		S	1	0	0	1
Haller (1992)		S	3	0	0	3
Heck (1993)		PS	0	1	0	1
Jones et al. (2008)		S	1	0	0	1
Kahne et al. (2008)		S	2	2	0	4
Kuziemko (2006)		S	0	2	1	3
Lee et al. (2011)	2003–2004	S	0	1	0	1
	2004–2005	S	0	1	0	1
	2005–2006	S	0	1	0	1
	2006–2007	S	0	1	0	1
	2007–2008	S	1	0	0	1
Total			9	11	2	22

**Table A.24** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, positive, and curvilinear effects of school size on attendance/absenteeism and truancy for each sample (school size measured as categories)

Study	Sample	Education level	Direction of effect		Remarks
			–	n.s. + Curvilinear	
Gardner et al. (2000)	S	S	–		Small schools (200–600) versus large schools (>2,000)

**Table A.25** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, and positive effects of school size on drop out for each sample sample (school size measured as a continuous variable)

Study	Sample	Education level	Negative	Not significant	Positive	Total
Kahne et al. (2008)	2002–2003	S	0	1	0	1
	2003–2004		0	1	0	1
Total			0	2	0	2

**Table A.26** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, positive, and curvilinear effects of school size on drop-out for each sample (school size measured as categories)

Study	Sample	Education level	Direction of effect			Remarks
			-	n.s.	+	
Gardner et al. (2000)		S	-			Small schools (200–600) versus large schools (>2,000)
Lee and Burkam (2003)		S		U	601–1500	Categories: 0–600, 601–1500 (RF), 1501–2500, >2500 Compared to medium sized schools, large and very large schools had significantly higher drop-out rates. The highest drop-out rate was found in large schools. Small school also had higher drop-out rates (significant at 10 % level)
Rumberger and Palardy (2005)		S		∩	1200–1800	Categories: 0–600, 601–1200 (RF), 1201–1800, >1800



**Table A.27** Overview of studies of school size on other student outcomes

Overview of studies of school size on other student outcomes						
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Dependent variable	Mean SD Database
Coladareci and Cobb (1996)		USA (nationally representative)	S	School size Compares smaller (<800) and larger (>= 1,600) schools Students from schools with other sizes eliminated from analyses	Self-esteem (mean across seven items administered in senior year (e.g., I feel I am a person of worth)	National education longitudinal study of 1988 (NELS: 88)
Holas and Huston (2012)	Grade 6	USA (nationally)	P	Total enrolment	Perceived self-competence: scale 12 items focussing on perception of efficacy and competence in English and math	300 NICHD study of early child care and youth development
Kirkpatrick Johnson et al. (2001)	Middle schools High schools	USA (nationally representative)	S	Total enrolment in schools in hundreds of students	Engagement in school: three items (reversed) coded: the past school year how many times the adolescents had skipped school, had trouble paying attention in school and had trouble getting homework done	477 234 National longitudinal study of adolescent health 716

(continued)

**Table A.27** (continued)

Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Dependent variable	Mean	SD	Database
Lay (2007)		USA (nationwide)	S	School size Continuous measure Categories based on continuous measure <300, 301–600, 601–900, 901–1200, 1201–1500, 1501–1800, >1800 Categories based on parental responses <300, 300–599, 600–999, >1000	Participation in community services			National household education survey
Lee and Smith (1995)		USA (nationally representative)	S	Total enrolment of as October 1989 (transformed to its natural logarithm and standardized)	10th grade academic Engagement: standardized factor of eight items measuring students' behaviors (e.g., often work hard in math class, often feel challenged in math class)			National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS: 88) 1st and 2nd wave Mean school size: Traditional schools: 1095 Moderate schools: 633 Restructuring schools: 764

(continued)

**Table A.27** (continued)

Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Dependent variable	Mean	SD	Database
Weiss et al. (2010)		USA (nationally representative)	S	Total number of students in school Categories: Small: 1–599 students (RF) Moderately small 600–999 Moderately large 1,000–1,599 Large 1,600–2,499	School engagement: composite of students' psychological and behavioral connections with the values and aims of school (seven variables included: teacher experience, delinquent behavior, academic friend, educational motivation, teachers' belief about ability, school preparedness, parental involvement)			Educational longitudinal study of 2002 (ELS:2002) 10th grade

**Table A.28** Methodological information available from studies of school size on other student outcomes

Methodological information available from studies of school size on other student outcomes											
Authors	Sample	Dependent variable	Number of schools included	Number of classes included	Number of students included	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Coladareci and Cobb (1996)		Self-esteem			4567	Structural equation modelling (individual level)	Yes	$\beta = -0.015$	0.0015	n.s.	Compares students from smaller (<800) and larger (>= 1,600) schools
Holas and Huston (2012)	Grade 6	Perceived self-competence			828	Structural equation modelling	Yes	n.r.		n.s.	
Kirkpatrick Johnson et al. (2001)	Middle schools	Engagement in school	45		2,482	Multilevel	Yes	n.r.		n.s.	
Lay (2007)	High schools	Participation in community services	64		8,104	Multilevel (standardized)		$\beta = -0.07$		—	
		School size as continuous measure			3,010	Logistic regression	Yes	$b = 0.00001$	0.00004	n.s.	Students in schools with fewer than 300 students
		Categories based on continuous measure						$b = 0.427$	0.165		
		<300						$b = 0.001$	0.140		
		301–600						$b = 0.265$	0.138		significantly more likely volunteering in community service
		601–900						$b = -0.031$	0.135		
		901–1,200						$b = -0.033$	0.134		
		1,501–1,800						$b = 0.114$	0.115		
		>1,800						$b = 0.357$	0.163		Students in schools with fewer than 300 students
		parental responses						$b = 0.032$	0.107		significantly more likely volunteering in community service
		<300						$b = 0.070$	0.091		
		600–999									
		>1,000									

(continued)



**Table A.29** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, and positive effects of school size on other student outcome variables for each sample (school size measured as a continuous variable)

Study	Dependent variable	Sample	Education level	Negative	Not significant	Positive	Total
Holas and Huston (2012)	Perceived self-competence		P	0	1	0	1
Kirkpatrick Johnson et al. (2001)	Engagement in schools	Middle schools	S	0	1	0	1
		High schools		1	0	0	1
Lay (2007)	Participation in community services		S	0	1	0	1
Lee and Smith (1995)	Academic engagement		S	1	0	0	1
Total				2	3	0	5

**Table A.30** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, positive, and curvilinear effects of school size on other student outcomes for each sample (school size measured as categories)

Study	Dependent variable	Education level	Direction of effect		Remarks
			-	+ Curvilinear	
Coladareci and Cobb (1996)	Self-esteem	S	n.s.	n.s.	Categories: <800, >1599
Lay (2007)	Participation in community services	S		Students in schools with fewer than 300 students significantly more likely volunteering in community service	Categories based on continuous measure: <300, 301–600, 601–900, 901–1200, 1501–1800, >1800
				Students in schools with fewer than 300 students significantly more likely volunteering in community service	Categories based on parental responses: <300, 600–999, >1000
Weiss et al. (2010)	School engagement	S	-		Categories: 1–599, 600–999, 1000–1599, 1600–2499

**Table A.31** Overview of studies of school size on school organisation and teaching and learning

Overview of studies of school size on school organisation and teaching and learning								
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Dependent variable	Mean	SD	Database
Eccles et al. (1991)	USA (nationally representative)		P and S	Total school enrolment P/K/1–8th grade schools versus middle and junior High schools (grades 6–8, grades 7–8, grades 7–9) P/K/1–8th grade schools smaller on the average than other three types	Teacher efficacy			National education longitudinal study (NELS: 88)
Inspectorate of Education (2003)	Netherlands		S	School size <500 501–1,000 >1,000	Teaching-learning process: pedagogic and didactic approach			Data from regular supervision of schools (years 1999–2000, 2000–2001)
Kahne et al. (2008)	USA (Chicago)		S	School size	Collective responsibility: teachers' assessment of the strength of their shared commitment to improve the school so that all students learn.			Consortium on Chicago School Research's biannual survey. Administrative records of CPS and test data
					Commitment to innovation Expectations for postsecondary education: teachers' reports of the degree to which they expect that most students at their school will go to college			

(continued)



**Table A.31** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on school organisation and teaching and learning

Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Dependent variable	Mean	SD	Database
					Principal instructional leadership: teachers' perception of their principals as instructional leaders			
					Program coherence: the degree to which teachers believe that the programs at their schools are coordinated with one another and with the school's mission			
					Quality professional development			
					Quality student discussions in classroom			
					Reflective dialogue: teachers' assessment of how often teachers talk with one another			
					about instruction and student learning			
					Academic press: students' views of their teachers' efforts to push students to higher levels of academic performance			

(continued)

**Table A.31** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on school organisation and teaching and learning

Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Dependent variable	Mean	SD	Database
					Quality English instruction: student reports of the frequency with which students are made to practice higher order english activities			
					Quality math instruction: student reports of the frequency with which students are made to practice higher-order math activities			
					Peer support for academic achievement: the norms among students with regard to their peers' support of academic work			
					School-wide future orientation: student reports of the degree to which (a) teachers work hard to make sure that all students are learning, are staying in school, are planning for their futures and (b) all students are encouraged to go to college			

(continued)

**Table A.31** (continued)

Overview of studies of school size on school organisation and teaching and learning

Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Dependent variable	Mean	SD	Database
Silins and Mulford (2004)	Australia		S	School size in 1997	Organisational Learning—the extent to which the school is perceived to be functioning as a learning organisation according to measures on the four factors that define organisational learning: collaborative climate, Taking initiatives and risks, Improving school practices, Professional development Teacher Leadership—the extent to which individual teachers, teacher teams or committees and whole staff working together are a source of leadership in the school Teachers' work—the construct representing students' perceptions of teachers' work in the classroom including their liking of the way teachers instruct, the variety of instructional activities employed, the extent teachers discuss students' work with them, the organization of their classes, the expectations that they will do their best work, and the extent students are challenged in class	632	283	Leadership for organizational learning and student outcomes (LOLSO)

**Table A.32** Methodological information available from studies of school size on school organisation and teaching and learning

Methodological information available from studies of school size on school organisation and teaching and learning											
Authors	Sample	Dependent variable	Number of schools included	Number of classes included	Number of students included	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Eccles et al. (1991)	Teacher efficacy		759			Regression	No	$\beta = -0.032$		-	"the larger the school size, the less efficacious ... and ... were reported as being a major problem at the school by both teachers and students" (p. 351)
Inspectorate of Education (2003)	Pedagogic and didactic approach		378			ANOVA	No			500-1,000 students lowest score	
Kahne et al. (2008)	Collective responsibility (teacher)		80			Multilevel		(unstandardized)	Yes	$b = 0.486$	
	Commitment to innovation (teacher)										
	Expectations for postsecondary education (teacher)										
	Principal instructional leadership (teacher)									n.s.	
	Program coherence (teacher)									n.s.	

(continued)

**Table A.32** (continued)

Methodological information available from studies of school size on school organisation and teaching and learning											
Authors	Sample	Dependent variable	Number of schools included	Number of classes included	Number of students included	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effects reported	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
		Quality professional development (teacher)					$b = 0.038$			n.s.	–
		Quality student discussion (teacher)					$b = -0.108$			n.s.	–
		Reflective dialogue (teacher)					$b = -0.081$			n.s.	–
		Academic press (student)					$b = -0.187$			n.s.	–
		Quality English instruction (student)					$b = -0.036$			n.s.	–
		Quality math instruction (student)					$b = -0.009$			n.s.	–
		Peer support for academic achievement (student)					$b = -0.559$			–	–
		School-wide future orientation (student)					$b = -0.326$			n.s.	–
		Teacher leadership	96	2503	3500	Structural Equation Modelling	Yes	$\beta = -0.15$		n.s.	–
Stilins and Mulford (2004)		Organisational learning						$\beta = -0.23$		–	–
		Teachers' work						$\beta = -0.06$		n.s.	–

**Table A.33** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, and positive effects of school size on school organization and teaching and learning for each sample (school size measured as a continuous variable)

Study	Dependent variable	Sample	Education level	Negative	Not significant	Positive	Total
Eccles et al. (1991)	Teacher efficacy		PS	1	0	0	1
Kahne et al. (2008)	Collective responsibility		S	1	0	0	1
	Commitment to innovation			1	0	0	1
	Expectations for postsecondary education			1	0	0	1
	Principal instructional leadership			0	1	0	1
	Program coherence			0	1	0	1
	Quality professional development			0	1	0	1
	Quality student discussions in classroom			0	1	0	1
	Reflective dialogue			0	1	0	1
	Academic press			0	1	0	1
	Quality English instruction			0	1	0	1
	Quality Math instruction			0	1	0	1
	Peer support for academic achievement			1	0	0	1
	School-wide future orientation			0	1	0	1
	Organisational learning		S	1	0	0	1
	Teacher leadership			0	1	0	1
Teachers' work in the classroom			0	1	0	1	
<b>Total</b>				6	11	0	17

Silins and Mulford (2004)

**Table A.34** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, positive, and curvilinear effects of school size on teaching and learning for each sample (school size measured as categories)

Study	Dependent variable	Education level	Direction of effect		Remarks
			-	n.s. + Curvilinear	
Inspectorate of Education (2003) Lay (2007)	Teaching-learning process	S	500-1000 students lowest score		Categories: <500, 501-1,000 >1,000
	Participation in community services	S	Students in schools with fewer than 300 students significantly more likely volunteering in community service		Categories based on continuous measure: <300, 301-600, 601-900, 901-1200 1501-1800, >1800
Rumberger and Palardy (2005)	Transfer	S	Students in schools with fewer than 300 students significantly more likely volunteering in community service	U 1200-1800	Categories based on parental responses: <300, 600-999 >1,000 Categories: 0-600, 601-1200 (RF), 1201-1800, >180

**Table A.35** Overview of studies of school size costs

Overview of studies of school size costs								
Authors	Sample	Country	School type <sup>a</sup>	School size measure	Costs or cost-efficiency measure	Mean	SD	Database
Bickel et al. (2001)	USA	USA	S	Number of students: natural logarithms of single-student units	Expenditure per pupil	877	850	Texas dataset of 1,001 high schools
Bowles and Bosworth (2002)	USA	USA	PS	Average daily membership for school $i$ for period $t$ (Natural logarithm)	Operating expenditures per student in school $i$ for period $t$ (Natural logarithm)			Data from 17 Wyoming school districts
Lewis and Chakraborty (1996)	USA	USA	PS	Number of students per school, average 1982–1993 (Natural logarithm)	Operating expenditure per student 1982–1993 (Natural logarithm)	511 (median)		Data from 40 Utah school districts
Merkies (2000)	Netherlands	Netherlands	P	Number of pupils (Natural logarithm)	Total costs of a school/costs per pupil (Natural logarithm)	200		Dataset comprising 1784 primary schools in the Netherlands in the year 1986/1987
Stiefel et al. (2000)	USA	USA	P	School size: natural logarithm of number of 1995–1996 registered general education students	Natural logarithm of budget per graduate: 1995–1996 total budget per student, multiplied by 4, adjusted. Graduate: from cohort of 9th graders, number who graduated from school in 4 years (transfers in attributed to last school attended, transfers out of New York system removed form cohort)	2030	1192	Data from board of education from the city of New York



**Table A.36** Methodological information available from studies of school size on costs

Methodological information available from studies of school size on costs											
Authors	Sample	Costs measure	Number of schools included	Number of classes included	Number of students included	Statistical technique used	Value added	Effect(s) reported	SE reported	Direction of the effect	Further information
Bickel et al. (2001)	Expenditure per student	Size expressed in of single unit student	1,001			Regression (standardized)	Yes	$b = -0.199$		–	Grade span configuration included in the analysis: K-12 “unit schools” covering all grade levels more cost effective than traditional high schools
Bowles and Bosworth (2002)	Operating expenditures per student		80			Regression (simultaneous equation modelling) unstandardized	Yes	$b = -0.2052$		–	
Lewis and Chakraborty (1996)	Operating expenditure per student					Regression	Yes	$b = -0.15508$			Both school size and district size (together with covariates) included in the analysis. Only the school size effect is found to be significant
Merkies (2000)	Average school costs		1,784			Regression	Yes				“... considerable economies of scale can be acquired by small schools. These benefits dissipate as schools get larger. From the average school (200 pupils) onwards the average costs remain virtually constant. For schools with more than twice the average number of pupils there are no more economies of scale. The optimal size is around 450 pupils” (p. 206)
Stiefel et al. (2000)	Budget per graduate		121			Regression (unstandardized)	Yes	$b = -0.140$	0.048	–	

**Table A.37** Results of vote counts examining the number of negative, nonsignificant, and positive effects of school size on costs for each sample (school size measured as a continuous variable)

Study	Sample	Education level	Negative	Not significant	Positive	Total
Bickel et al. (2001)	S		1	0	0	1
Bowles and Bosworth (2002)	PS		1	0	0	1
Lewis and Chakraborty (1996)	PS		1	0	0	1
Merkies (2000)	P		1	0	0	1
Stiefel et al. (2000)	P		0	1	0	1
Total			4	1	0	5

Note all relations relations are modeled as log-linear functions. An adequate interpretation of this is given by Merkies (2000, p. 206): "... considerable economies of scale can be acquired by small schools. These benefits dissipate as schools get larger"

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