



School resources, peer inputs, and student outcomes in adult education

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ABSTRACT

This paper studies a large-scale educational expansion to assess whether shocks to educational inputs affect the academic achievement of adult education students. I analyze the effects of a Swedish program that rapidly doubled enrollment in adult education, thus straining school resources. The program targeted low-educated, unemployed adults aged 25 and older. Therefore, my analysis focuses on students under age 25 to reduce the risk that changes in the characteristics of the study sample drive my findings. First, I show that students in regions subject to stronger enrollment expansions experienced stronger negative shocks to educational inputs, including teacher credentials, per-pupil expenditure, and peer quality. Second, I show that the stronger negative shocks to these inputs coincided with larger increases in course dropout. Taken together, the two sets of results suggest a causal link between educational inputs and students' academic progress in adult education.

1. Introduction

Policymakers consider increased access to education a crucial tool for improving people's skills, productivity, and well-being. However, an important question is whether access to education can expand without lowering the quality of schooling. The answer depends in part on the relationship between educational inputs and student achievement. Large increases in student enrollment put a strain on inputs such as class size, per-pupil spending, peer quality, and teacher quality. For instance, to meet the increased demand for teachers, schools may be forced to hire candidates with poor qualifications, thereby lowering the average quality of the teaching staff. If negative shocks to the quality or quantity of inputs matter for student outcomes, policies that increase access to education may be limited in their effectiveness and could even have adverse consequences, particularly for students who would have enrolled in the absence of the intervention.

In this paper, I evaluate how expansion-induced shocks to educational inputs affect student performance by analyzing the effects of a Swedish program that rapidly doubled enrollment in adult education. The program, known as the Adult Education Initiative (AEI), was part of a strategy to reduce high unemployment after a severe economic crisis in the early 1990s. Between 1997 and 2002, the government created an additional 100,000 spots in adult education and used generous study allowances to encourage low-educated, unemployed people to enroll. A key feature of the study allowances is that they were available only to

people aged 25–55. I exploit this institutional detail by restricting my main analysis to people under age 25, thus mitigating concerns that changes in the composition of the study sample confound my findings. However, I also provide evidence that my results generalize to the older, targeted population of students as well.

With administrative data covering all students in adult education and their teachers, I perform two complementary analyses. First, I study how the AEI affected students' exposure to a broad range of educational inputs that have been shown to influence academic achievement in other settings, including class size (Fredriksson et al., 2013; Krueger & Whitmore, 2001), peer quality (Carrell et al., 2009), teacher experience (Papay & Kraft, 2015), teacher certification (Andersson et al., 2011), and per-pupil expenditure (Jackson et al., 2021). Next, I evaluate whether the changes in these inputs coincided with changes in students' likelihood to complete their courses or achieve good grades. Taken together, the two sets of results provide reduced-form evidence on the relationship between educational inputs and student outcomes in adult education.

To estimate the effects of the program, I rely on the fact that the expansion of adult education was not geographically uniform. For each municipality, I measure the degree of expansion induced by the AEI as the per-capita increase in enrollment among 25–55-year-olds. Then, I classify municipalities as a higher- or lower-expansion region according to whether the municipality experienced above- or

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¹ For example, regions that experience larger increases in enrollment have a greater need for teachers. If qualified teachers are in short supply, schools in these regions may have to crowd more students into the same classroom or hire a larger share of unqualified, inexperienced teachers from outside the profession.

below-median enrollment shocks. Intuitively, my approach compares the evolution of educational inputs and student outcomes in municipalities where enrollment in adult education expanded substantially and municipalities where enrollment in adult education expanded relatively little. This difference-in-differences strategy is built on the idea that the extent to which the AEI strained educational inputs should vary with the intensity of enrollment expansion.¹ Under the premise that larger increases in enrollment coincide with stronger negative shocks to educational inputs, it is possible to deduce the relationship between educational inputs and student outcomes by studying how academic performance evolves over time in the higher- and lower-expansion regions. If negative shocks to educational inputs have a negative effect on students, academic performance should decline in the higher-expansion regions relative to the lower-expansion regions after the introduction of the AEI.

My first set of results confirms the premise that regions subject to larger per-capita enrollment shocks experienced greater strains on educational inputs. Although the central government provided subsidies to help municipalities finance the expansion, the additional funding was stretched thin in regions where enrollment increased the most. I find that average per-pupil spending on instruction and learning materials declined in the higher-expansion regions relative to the lower-expansion regions as a result of the policy. The higher-expansion regions also had a harder time recruiting qualified teachers. While there were large declines in the average quality of the teaching staff across both groups, my estimates show that students in the higher-expansion regions experienced a significantly larger drop – approximately five percentage points – in the share of teachers with a formal pedagogical background or prior teaching experience. There is also some evidence that peer quality changed as a result of the initiative, with declines in the average cognitive ability of classmates. There were no differential changes in class size, however.

My second set of results shows that, as a consequence of the AEI, students in the higher-expansion regions became approximately three to four percentage points more likely to drop out of their courses compared to students in the lower-expansion regions. This is a sizable effect – an increase of over 10% in relation to the baseline probability of dropout. However, conditional on course completion, I find no impact on students' probability to fail their courses or pass with honors. Together with the first set of results, these findings suggest that there is a causal link between educational inputs and course dropout. To support this interpretation, I study the dynamics of the effects over time, showing that the changes in educational inputs and student outcomes both coincide with the introduction of the AEI.

While my findings are highly suggestive that educational inputs affect the academic outcomes of adult learners, I consider several alternative explanations. Of particular concern is the fact that the composition of the student body is bound to change as a result of the policy, and the composition changes may be larger in higher-expansion regions. For example, if the AEI created more opportunities for younger students to participate in adult education in the higher-expansion regions, they may be more negatively selected than students in the lower-expansion regions, which could in turn explain the observed increase in course dropout. Consistent with this, I find that the higher-expansion regions experienced slightly larger enrollment increases among all age groups – not just the target population – particularly towards the end of the study period. However, I perform a set of balance tests showing that the expansion did not have a differential effect on the overall composition of younger students in the higher- versus lower-expansion regions. Although I cannot rule out that unobserved characteristics changed in a way that would negatively impact student achievement, the majority of my balance tests lend credibility to that assumption and alleviate concerns about negative selection. Furthermore, I show that my main estimates are not sensitive to the inclusion or exclusion of any of the observed background characteristics. Additionally, the results are robust to interacting potential

confounding variables, such as compulsory school GPA, with time fixed effects in order to account for important changes from the pre- to post-reform period.

In addition to negative selection problems at the individual level, another potential identification issue arises from the non-random expansion of adult education across municipalities. For instance, higher-expansion regions may have increased capacity in adult education to help counteract negative trends in academic achievement and educational attainment. Moreover, given that the expansion occurred in the wake of an economic crisis, it is plausible that higher-expansion regions had different labor market trends than lower-expansion regions, which may in turn affect student outcomes for reasons unrelated to educational input shocks. My findings confirm that higher-expansion regions are more negatively selected than lower-expansion regions in terms of labor market outcomes and educational attainment. However, I show that despite baseline level differences, municipality characteristics follow similar time trends, particularly in the years leading up to the AEI. Furthermore, I provide a battery of robustness checks to assess the sensitivity of the estimates when allowing for different underlying trends in student outcomes depending on the baseline characteristics of the municipality. Allowing for different trends related to baseline educational attainment reduces the magnitude of the effects by approximately one quarter. Once these trends are controlled for, the estimates remain relatively stable with the inclusion of time trends related to other baseline characteristics.

The findings of this paper contribute to a broad literature on educational inputs and student outcomes. Most existing studies analyze the effect of inputs in primary and secondary school. There are relatively few studies at the college level (see, e.g., [Ehrenberg & Zhang, 2005](#); [Hoffmann & Oreopoulos, 2009](#)), and to the best of my knowledge, there has been no prior research on adult learners outside the higher education system. This is an important omission, given that between 5 and 15% of the adult population in OECD countries participates in formal adult education ([OECD, 2017](#)). Many of these adult learners are vulnerable members of society, for example, refugees and high school dropouts, who may be unable to compensate for poor school environments. It is unclear that the results of prior studies apply to settings in which there tends to be a less traditional study structure and an over-representation of students who have previously struggled to succeed in the formal education system ([Skolverket, 2000](#)).

Another key difference between my study and the existing research is that other studies typically attempt to isolate the effect of one particular educational input on student outcomes, holding other educational inputs constant. Although this approach allows for cleaner causal identification, it does not reflect the reality of most educational interventions – i.e., that many educational inputs may change simultaneously. One notable exception in the literature is [Jepsen and Rivkin \(2009\)](#). They study a large-scale class-size reduction in California and show that the benefits of smaller classes are dampened when schools must hire inexperienced, uncertified teachers in order to meet class-size targets. My findings echo their results, suggesting that the positive effects of educational expansions may be diminished by resulting shocks to school resources.

As such, my study also contributes to the literature on educational expansions. I provide some of the first quasi-experimental evidence that policies expanding access to education can have indirect effects beyond the target population encouraged to enroll. In a closely related study, [Bianchi \(2020\)](#) evaluates an expansion of undergraduate STEM education in Italy and finds negative effects on the academic performance of students who were not the target of the program. Similar results have been found in the literature on cohort size and resource crowding (see, e.g., [Babcock et al., 2012](#); [Bound & Turner, 2007](#)). As far as I know, however, none of the existing studies evaluate broad expansions of the adult education sector. This is a topical issue, considering that enrollment in adult education is rising in many countries,

and policymakers have acknowledged that lifelong learning is a key policy tool to cope with technological changes on the labor market.

The rest of the paper proceeds as follows. The next section provides an overview of the Swedish education system and the AEI, along with a discussion of the data and the key variables used in my analysis. Section 3 describes the empirical strategy, sample selection, and descriptive statistics. Section 4 reports the results of the difference-in-differences analysis for school and peer inputs, followed by the corresponding results for students' academic outcomes. Section 5 includes several robustness checks and a discussion on the credibility and generalizability of the results. Finally, Section 6 concludes the study.

2. Context and data

All facts presented in this section apply specifically to my period of study (1993–2002). I begin with an overview of the education system in Sweden, in particular municipal adult education (*Komvux* in Swedish). Then, I proceed with a discussion of the AEI, the initiative that I exploit to assess the relationship between educational inputs and student outcomes. Finally, I present the data sources and key variables that I use for my empirical analysis.

2.1. The Swedish education system

Following nine years of compulsory education, the vast majority of students in Sweden choose to enroll in high school. High school education is divided into specialized tracks that are either academic or vocational in nature. Until the mid-1990s, vocational tracks lasted two years and did not grant eligibility for university admission, whereas academic tracks lasted three years and prepared students for higher education. By 1996, the vocational tracks had been converted to three-year programs, and all high school graduates met the general admission requirements for university. Some students, however, had to complete additional courses in order to become eligible for university programs with special entry criteria.²

After completing high school or reaching age 20, people are eligible to enroll in municipal adult education in their municipality of residence. They can request to enroll in other municipalities under special circumstances, for example, if their home municipality does not offer certain courses. At the primary and lower-secondary level, admittance is guaranteed to any student who has not finished compulsory school. At the upper-secondary level, admittance is guaranteed only when there is sufficient capacity in a course. If demand for a course exceeds the number of available spots, the school chooses which applicants to admit according to national guidelines. Priority is given to applicants who lack a three-year high school degree and to those in greatest need of studying the course.³ If a student is admitted, municipalities must provide the education free of charge. Moreover, the central government offers various forms of financial aid to help students cover their living expenses and foregone earnings while enrolled.

Enrollment in adult education is quite common in Sweden, with over a third of a birth cohort enrolling during young adulthood (see Figure B.1 in the supplementary appendix). There are several common reasons for participating. Compulsory or high school dropouts may enroll to complete their degree, and graduates of two-year vocational tracks may register for the additional courses required to top up to a three-year degree. People with ambitions to attend a particular university program may enroll to complete courses that were not part of their high school track but are required for admission to their desired

field of study. During the period I study, it was also possible for high school graduates to enroll in courses they had already completed in high school in an attempt to improve their final grade and boost their chances of college admission. Finally, students who want additional occupational training may enroll in specialized vocational courses to supplement their previous training.⁴

The vast majority of enrollment in adult education – approximately 85% – occurs in upper-secondary courses, with only 10% in the compulsory-school level and just 5% in supplementary vocational training. Almost all courses follow a syllabus that is similar to – or, in the case of upper-secondary courses, identical to – the syllabus in the regular school system. The National Agency for Education (*Skolverket*) determines both the syllabus and the grading criteria. The grading scale varies somewhat by level of instruction and has also changed over time. During the 1993/94 school year, the first year of my study period, some courses were simply graded on a pass/fail basis, and others were graded on a numerical scale of 1–5. Since the 1994/95 school year, teachers instructing at the compulsory level and in supplementary vocational training can instead assign three grades – fail (*I*), pass (*G*), and pass with distinction (*VG*) – while teachers instructing at the upper-secondary level also have the possibility to pass a student with high distinction (*MVG*). If teachers lack a sufficient basis to judge a student's mastery of the subject (e.g., due to insufficient course participation), the teacher is not supposed to set a formal grade and should instead enter a mark of *Z* into the grading catalogue.

2.2. The Adult Education Initiative

Between 1997 and 2002, the adult education sector underwent a massive expansion as a result of a program called the Adult Education Initiative (AEI), or *Kunskapslyftet* in Swedish. The government implemented the program in response to a severe financial crisis during which unemployment rose from about 2% in 1990 to over 8% by the mid-1990s. The AEI's primary aim was to reduce unemployment among low-educated people by giving them a chance to obtain stronger academic credentials and raise their appeal to potential employers. In addition, the program was intended to revitalize the provision of adult education.

To achieve its goals, the central government financed the creation of 100,000 spots in municipal adult education, primarily at the upper-secondary level. Within just two years of the program's start in July 1997, enrollment in adult education nearly doubled. Fig. 1 shows that much of the increase resulted from a sharp spike in enrollment among adults aged 25–55. The government specifically targeted this age group with generous study allowances: for up to one year, 25–55-year-olds who were eligible for unemployment benefits could instead receive the same amount in study aid.⁵

Although the central government was in charge of financing the AEI, the municipal government held the ultimate responsibility for implementing the program. Municipalities had the autonomy to choose the organizational committee overseeing the program,⁶ the number and

⁴ The supplementary courses are called *påbyggnadsutbildningar* in Swedish. If the course is a continuation of specific training received in high school or another course in adult education, national guidelines stipulate that grades should be used for admission.

⁵ The special study allowances were called UBS (*Särskilt utbildningsbidrag* in Swedish). In order to receive UBS, people had to be between 25 and 55 years old, study at the compulsory- or upper-secondary level, and meet the eligibility criteria for unemployment benefits.

⁶ Some municipalities created special committees to carry out the administrative oversight, while others relied on the principals already in charge of organizing *Komvux*.

² For example, medical programs require specific courses in science and mathematics.

³ The Ordinance on Municipal Adult Education (*Förordning om kommunal vuxenutbildning*, SFS nr. 1992:403) outlines the admission guidelines in more detail.

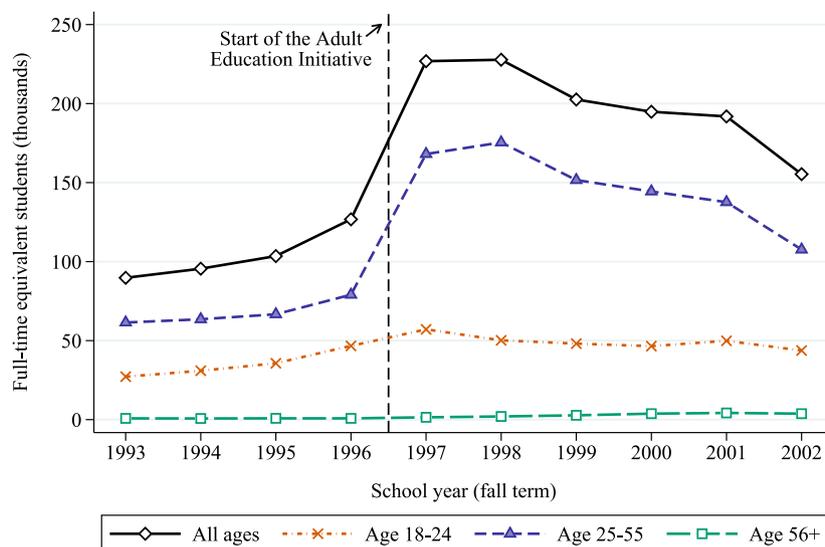


Fig. 1. Level of enrollment in municipal adult education over time by age group. *Notes:* Enrollment levels in municipal adult education (Komvux) are measured in thousands of full-time equivalent (FTE) students. I follow Statistics Sweden's definition and calculate FTEs as the total number of registered lecture hours divided by 540, where the denominator stands for 36 weeks times 15 lecture hours. Age is measured on December 31st of the reported school year. I denote school years according to the fall term, e.g., school year 1997 stands for fall term 1997 and spring term 1998.

types of courses offered,⁷ and the extent of external providers' involvement with course instruction. However, in order to receive financing from the central government, all municipalities had to fulfill certain requirements. First, they had to maintain the same "base organization" (i.e., enrollment level of non-AEI students) as in the years leading up to the expansion, and also meet other enrollment targets set by a centralized committee. Additionally, they had to follow separate ordinances for admitting AEI students and regular Komvux students, at least in principle.⁸

In practice, there was some arbitrariness in whether students were officially counted as AEI participants or part of the base organization.⁹ Consequently, it is not possible to determine the exact extent to which younger students and AEI participants enrolled in the same classes. To provide some idea, Figure B.2 in the supplementary appendix shows the age composition of classes attended by younger students prior to and during the AEI. Additionally, Figure B.3 shows the share of students in these classes who received special study grants that were introduced for AEI participants.¹⁰ While I cannot rule out the possibility that some AEI-specific classes existed alongside other Komvux classes, the figures suggest that younger students often studied together with older students who belonged to the AEI's target population.

The fact that younger and older students were enrolled in the same classes during the AEI has several implications for my analysis. First, it suggests that the AEI may have affected the characteristics of younger

students' classmates, thus highlighting the importance of checking for changes in peer composition. Additionally, it suggests that the average shocks I estimate for municipal- and school-level inputs are more likely to capture the actual input shocks faced by younger students.¹¹ If classes had not been integrated, it would have been easier for schools to target their resources (e.g., better-qualified teachers and additional funding) at specific groups of students.

2.3. Data sources and definition of key variables

My analysis uses administrative data from Sweden covering all participants in municipal adult education between 1993 and 2002. Several key variables come from the Komvux registry (*Komvuxregistret*), which contains detailed enrollment history and course transcripts for the entire student population. For each course that a student enrolls in, I observe the total number of lecture hours, an indicator of whether the student de-registered from the course, and the student's final course grade. The variable for lecture hours enables me to calculate the number of full-time student equivalents and capture variation in enrollment over time and across regions. This regional and temporal variation in enrollment is key for my identification strategy.

The variables for course grades and de-registration provide measures of academic performance that serve as the main student outcomes in my analysis. All student outcomes are defined at the course level and are binary variables equal to one if a condition is met and zero otherwise. For example, course dropout equals one if the student does not earn a grade in the course¹² and zero if they obtain any grade. I also create an indicator for earning credits in the course (i.e., receiving any passing grade). Finally, for the subsample of course completers from 1994–2002, I analyze the probability of failing, passing, or passing with honors.¹³ I cannot study these grade outcomes in 1993 because a

⁷ The initiative aimed to promote the accumulation of general skills rather than vocation-specific skills. Nevertheless, the government encouraged municipalities to adjust course offerings based on the needs and preferences of their residents.

⁸ Similar to the rules described earlier, there was a specific order for admitting AEI students to oversubscribed courses. The key difference was that, in the case of AEI students, preference was given to *unemployed* people who lacked a three-year high school degree.

⁹ An explanation is provided on pages 38–39 of the National Agency for Education's first annual evaluation of the AEI (*Skolverket, 1998*). For further detail and a specific example from Gotland municipality, see sections 4.1 and 6.3 of *Gotlands kommun (2001)*.

¹⁰ Not all AEI participants receive these special study grants (UBS), but this type of funding was available only for the target population. Thus, receipt of UBS can serve as a proxy to measure AEI participation. Note this is a lower bound on the share of AEI participants in the class.

¹¹ Due to data limitations, I cannot link teachers directly to their students, nor can I see how much money each school spent per student in municipalities with more than one provider of adult education.

¹² Specifically, course dropout equals one if the student formally de-registers or if they do not complete a sufficient amount of coursework for the teacher to assign them a final grade.

¹³ Upper-secondary courses have two honors grades – distinction and high distinction – whereas the others have only one honors grade. Thus, for upper-secondary courses, I consider both pass with distinction and pass with high distinction as receiving honors.

different grading scale was in place that year. Moreover, I do not have data on the number of credits earned per course prior to 1997, so I am unable to study credit accumulation.

The Komvux registry includes a school code that allows me to link students to the adult education teachers employed at their school at the start of the academic year. From the National Teacher Registry (*Lärarregistret*), I obtain annual information on teachers' certification status and accumulated years of teaching experience since 1985. I also extract information on teachers' completed years of education from the Integrated Database for Labor Market Research (*LOUISE*). I use the data on these three characteristics to measure the average teacher credentials that students are exposed to. I do not observe the exact courses taught by each teacher, so I construct school-by-instruction-level averages of the characteristics. When calculating the averages, I weigh each teacher's characteristic by their percent of employment such that more weight is given to the qualifications of full-time teachers than part-time teachers.¹⁴

In addition to the school code, the Komvux registry includes course codes and detailed course information that enable me to approximate classes of students who study a course together (see the data appendix for details). I use this information to measure class-level peer characteristics and class size, which I define as the number of registrants at the start of the course. I measure peer quality using several variables, including students' own education level and parents' education level. Furthermore, I construct a proxy of cognitive ability using compulsory school GPA for younger students and military enlistment test data for older male students.¹⁵ Finally, I study the average age of peers and the share of female peers in a class.

As a complement to the non-financial school inputs that I study, I collect data on each municipality's expenditure on adult education. The data for years 1993–1998 came in paper form from Statistics Sweden's archive and had to be digitized, whereas the National Agency for Education delivered the data in digital form for years 1999–2002. All variables are reported at the municipal level and are measured as costs per full-time-equivalent students. My analysis studies the log of per-pupil expenditure on instruction, learning materials, and school facilities.

3. Empirical strategy

My empirical strategy exploits enrollment shocks induced by the AEI to generate plausibly exogenous variation in educational inputs. The crux of the strategy is that regions subject to larger increases in enrollment as a result of the AEI experience stronger negative shocks to educational inputs. Under this premise, it is possible to assess the impact of educational inputs on student outcomes by studying how student performance evolves over time in regions subject to higher versus lower enrollment shocks. If educational inputs matter, student performance should decline in higher-expansion regions relative to lower-expansion regions after the introduction of the AEI.

A potential issue with my empirical strategy is that the educational expansion I exploit is likely to change the composition of students enrolled in adult education. It is reasonable to expect that the average ability level declines with the influx of new students, and the

¹⁴ The teacher registry contains all employees with valid contracts in October. Thus, if schools hire new teachers during the spring term, these teachers are excluded from the averages. Additionally, for a small share of the students (ca. 4%), I can only match to teacher characteristics at the municipal level. My main estimates are not sensitive to the exclusion of these students (results available upon request).

¹⁵ While I do have data on prior academic achievement for the younger students in my main analysis sample, I do not have these measures for older students because IFAU's compulsory school and high school registries only date back to the late 1980s. However, for older men, I have information on cognitive ability from mandatory military enlistment tests.

declines are likely to be stronger in areas where enrollment expands the most. Thus, any observed changes in student performance could reflect changes in students' underlying academic ability.

One crucial feature of the AEI allows me to address concerns related to negative selection. Specifically, the initiative targeted low-educated, unemployed people aged 25 to 55 by incentivizing their enrollment with generous study allowances. By contrast, there were no significant changes in the financial incentives or admission rules for younger students. This means that selection issues and composition bias are likely a considerable concern among the older population but less so for younger students.¹⁶ I therefore restrict my main analysis to people under age 25 and provide a formal test in Section 3.3 to show that – at least on observed characteristics – there are relatively minor compositional changes in the higher- versus lower-expansion regions among this subsample. Additionally, in Section 5.1, I show that my estimates are not sensitive to the inclusion or exclusion of student characteristics as controls, including potential confounding variables, such as compulsory school GPA.

3.1. Identifying variation

In order to implement my identification strategy, I must define a measure that captures regional variation in the intensity of enrollment shock induced by the AEI. Because the AEI targeted people aged 25–55, I focus on enrollment for this age group in order to isolate policy-driven variation. I measure the intensity of expansion in each municipality as the difference between average per-capita enrollment amongst 25–55-year-olds during the school years that the AEI was in place (1997–2002) and the four school years prior to the AEI (1993–1996). Specifically, the enrollment shock for a given municipality is defined as:

$$Expansion_m = \sum_{y=1997}^{2002} \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{Enrollment_{m,y}}{Population_{m,y}} - \sum_{y=1993}^{1996} \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{Enrollment_{m,y}}{Population_{m,y}} \quad (1)$$

where the subscript y indexes the school year and m indexes the municipality. The variable $Enrollment_{m,y}$ denotes the number of full-time-equivalent students aged 25–55 in municipality m during school year y , and $Population_{m,y}$ denotes the number of residents aged 25–55 in municipality m during the year (measured in hundreds). The higher the value of $Expansion_m$, the larger the enrollment shock.

Panel (a) of Fig. A.1 shows the variation in enrollment shocks across different municipalities. For ease of exposition, I divide the municipalities into two groups for the remainder of my empirical analysis. The higher-expansion group consists of the 143 municipalities that experienced above-median enrollment shocks, and the lower-expansion group consists of the 143 municipalities that experienced below-median enrollment shocks. Panel (b) of the figure shows the municipalities according to this binary classification.

An essential question is whether the higher-expansion municipalities experienced sufficiently large enrollment shocks relative to the lower-expansion municipalities, such that we should expect the strain on educational inputs to be larger in the higher-expansion regions. I provide a formal analysis in the results section, but to preview the results, Fig. 2 provides an illustrative example that larger enrollment expansions coincide with stronger negative shocks to educational inputs. In panel (a), we see that prior to the start of the AEI, enrollment per capita in the higher- and lower-expansion regions was essentially equal. When the AEI began in 1997, enrollment increased sharply in both regions, but the shock was much larger in magnitude in the higher-expansion regions. The differential shock persisted through the end of

¹⁶ See Blundell and Dias (2009) for further discussion of the difference-in-differences assumptions when using repeated cross-sections. A key assumption is that there are no systematic composition changes in the treated group (higher-expansion regions) and control group (lower-expansion regions) from the pre- to post-reform period.

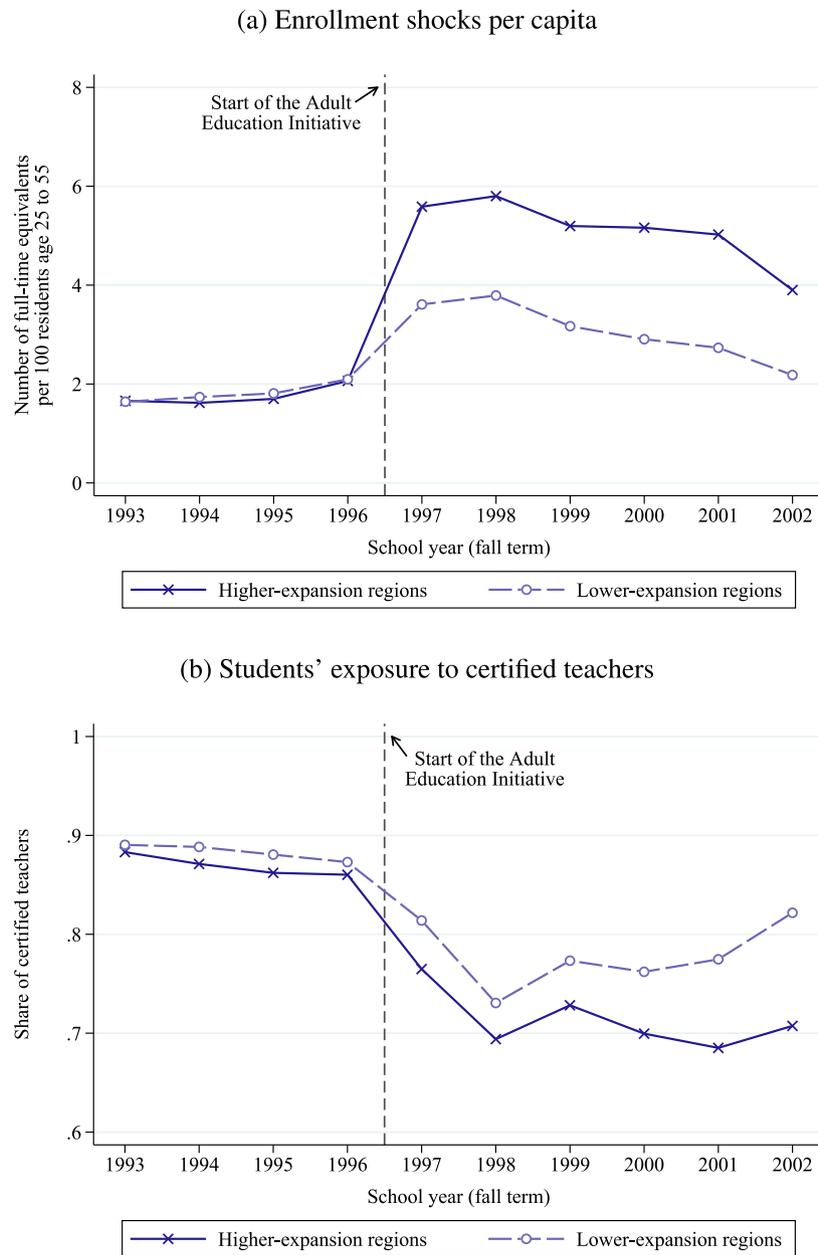


Fig. 2. Illustration of the identification strategy. Notes: Higher-expansion regions experienced above-median enrollment shocks, and lower-expansion regions experienced below-median enrollment shocks. In panel (b), certified teachers are those with a college degree in pedagogy.

the AEI and even widened slightly after 1998 as enrollment tapered off more quickly in the lower-expansion regions. In panel (b), we see a similar pattern in students' exposure to qualified teachers. Prior to the AEI, students in the higher- and lower-expansion regions were taught by teachers with similar credentials: on average, just under 90% of teachers in their school were certified. After the introduction of the AEI, this percentage dropped sharply in both regions, as the increased demand for teachers meant that municipalities had to hire teachers without a pedagogical background (see Fig. A.2). However, the declines in teacher qualifications were steeper in the higher-expansion regions than the lower-expansion regions, particularly after 1998.

3.2. Difference-in-differences specification

The illustrative example in Fig. 2 suggests that classifying municipalities by above- and below-median enrollment expansion adequately captures differential shocks to educational inputs during the AEI. I use

the following difference-in-differences model to formally estimate the change in educational inputs in higher- versus lower-expansion regions, as well as to check for corresponding changes in student outcomes, from the pre- to post-reform period:

$$Outcome_{i,c,s,m,y} = \gamma(HighExpansion_m \times PostAEI_y) + \alpha_m + \beta_y + \epsilon_{i,c,s,m,y} \quad (2)$$

The subscript i indexes a student, c indexes a course, s indexes a subject, m indexes the municipality of enrollment, and y indexes the school year. In the first part of my analysis, the dependent variable $Outcome_{i,c,s,m,y}$ measures student i 's exposure to various school inputs, and in the second part, it measures student i 's achievement in course c . The indicator $PostAEI_y$ equals one for all school years after the introduction of the AEI (1997–2002), and $HighExpansion_m$ equals one for municipalities that experienced an above-median intensity enrollment shock as a result of the AEI. For all outcomes, the specification includes municipality fixed effects (α_m) and school-year fixed effects (β_y).

When studying student outcomes, I enrich the model specification in several ways. First, because I pool observations for all courses, I include

subject fixed effects (ω_s).¹⁷ These fixed effects account for unobserved heterogeneity due to the fact that some courses may be inherently harder to pass than others, for example, if some subjects are graded more harshly than others. I also include subject-by-year fixed effects ($\theta_{s,y}$) in order to capture any time-varying subject-specific shocks, for example, changes in the difficulty of tests or course material. Finally, I include a vector of individual-level control variables that may be related to student performance ($X'_{i,y,\psi}$): age, sex, civil status, presence of young children in the household, foreign background, parents' highest level of education, and own level of education. I do not include prior academic achievement in the main specification because compulsory school GPA is missing for approximately 10% of the sample; however, I perform robustness checks to show that the results are not sensitive to its inclusion.

The parameter of interest, γ , measures how outcomes evolved in the higher-expansion regions relative to the lower-expansion regions after the introduction of the AEI. It captures the average effect of the AEI on various educational inputs and student outcomes under the assumption that the outcomes would have followed parallel paths in the absence of the initiative. To explore the pattern of effects over time, I also estimate the following dynamic difference-in-differences specification in which I replace *PostAEI* in Eq. (2) with a set of school-year dummies:

$$Outcome_{i,c,s,m,y} = \sum_{y=1993}^{1995} \lambda_y HighExpansion_m + \sum_{y=1997}^{2002} \lambda_y HighExpansion_m + \alpha_m + \beta_y + \epsilon_{i,c,s,m,y} \tag{3}$$

The coefficients of interest, λ_y , are normalized with respect to the year prior to the AEI. In addition to shedding light on the dynamics of the effects, this specification allows me to evaluate whether the parallel trends assumption is credible; if so, the pre-AEI coefficients λ_{1993} , λ_{1994} , and λ_{1995} should be statistically indistinguishable from zero.

3.3. Sample selection and description of the sample

To construct my sample, I start with the full population of students enrolled in municipal adult education between fall term 1993 and fall term 2002. As discussed earlier, I restrict my analysis to students aged 18–24 in order to mitigate concerns that compositional changes in the study population confound my findings.¹⁸ Additionally, I drop (i) a small share of students who cannot be matched to background characteristics from the national population registries; (ii) courses that, by law, do not assign grades or follow a traditional course plan (e.g., introductory or individualized courses); (iii) classes that cannot be linked to subject codes or have missing information on course duration or other characteristics; (iv) classes with fewer than four

¹⁷ I define subjects using a combination of the prefix in the course code (e.g., MA for mathematics) and the level of study (e.g., lower secondary or upper secondary). The results are robust to using course fixed effects instead of subject fixed effects, but I prefer to use subject fixed effects in the main specification because some course codes have changed over time, particularly between 1993 and 1994 and between 1999 and 2000.

¹⁸ An alternative approach would be to restrict the sample to people who have completed high school or reached age 20–24, as per the standard eligibility requirements to enroll in Komvux. This approach captures roughly the same sample as restricting to Komvux enrollees aged 18–24. However, it misses a small share (<5%) of 18–19-year-olds who are eligible for Komvux even though they do not appear in the registry of high school graduates. Note that age 18 is the earliest age that people are expected to complete high school and become eligible for Komvux, given that compulsory school ends at age 16 and high school programs last for 2–3 years.

Table 1
Checks for covariate balance over the study period.

	Estimate (1)	Std. Err. (2)	P-value (3)
Age	0.045	0.036	0.211
Female	0.007	0.005	0.215
Married	−0.001	0.003	0.715
Any young children in household	0.003	0.004	0.462
Born in Sweden	−0.003	0.007	0.707
Swedish-born mother	0.005	0.008	0.560
Swedish-born father	0.004	0.008	0.602
Mother's years of education	0.008	0.029	0.794
Father's years of education	0.014	0.035	0.698
Not a high school graduate	0.002	0.009	0.811
Graduate of academic track	−0.007	0.009	0.453
Graduate of vocational track	0.005	0.007	0.526
High school GPA (std.)	−0.009	0.015	0.537
Compulsory school GPA (std.)	−0.035	0.017	0.043
Test of joint significance			0.401

Notes: Each entry of column (1) reports the estimate of the interaction term γ in Eq. (2) from separate regressions in which the listed characteristic is the outcome variable. Compulsory school and high school GPA are standardized. Standard errors in column (2) are clustered at the municipal level.

students; and (v) classes with unreported grades.¹⁹ Table C.1 in the data appendix documents the number of observations lost at each step of the sample selection. The resulting sample consists of 430,669 students and 3,240,448 observations at the course level. If people register for the same course multiple times, I include all course attempts in the estimation sample. As a robustness check, I show that the results are unchanged if I instead restrict the sample to students' first registered attempt.

Table A.1 shows the descriptive statistics for the sample of students in higher- and lower-expansion regions. The two groups are relatively similar, though students in the higher-expansion regions are slightly less likely to have a foreign background and have slightly weaker performance in both compulsory school and high school. While it is not essential that students' average characteristics are identical in the two groups, an underlying assumption of my identification strategy is that group composition does not change differently across higher- and lower-expansion regions in a way that is correlated with student outcomes. Of particular concern is the fact that higher-expansion regions experienced slightly larger enrollment increases among 18–24-year-olds, especially towards the end of the expansion period (see Fig. A.3). Before proceeding to the main analysis, I provide evidence that despite these different enrollment patterns, there were no major differential changes in the composition of students in the higher- and lower-expansion regions. To this end, I estimate the main difference-in-differences specification in Eq. (2) and the dynamic specification in Eq. (3) using students' background characteristics as the dependent variable.

Table 1 reports the results of the balance tests for student characteristics, and Fig. A.4 plots the dynamics over time. The test for the joint significance of all characteristics has a p-value of 0.401, indicating no significant overall changes between the two groups. This is confirmed

¹⁹ When a student is still registered for a course but does not attend enough lectures or turn in the assignments required for a final grade, teachers are supposed to record a grade of Z rather than a missing value. However, grades are missing for approximately 10%–15% of the observations each year. Some of these are for valid reasons, e.g., introductory courses in which students are never assigned grades. However, for most courses, it is impossible to know whether teachers neglected to report students' grades or whether students did not submit the required assignments. To be conservative, I drop all classes with unreported grades, but the main findings are unchanged when I relax this restriction. See the robustness section and the data appendix for additional details.

by the separate regressions for each coefficient. The point estimates are rather small in magnitude, and every estimate is statistically indistinguishable from zero at conventional significance levels, with the exception of the estimate for compulsory school GPA. Given the number of variables that I test, this could be due to random chance. Indeed, more recent achievement measures like high school completion and high school GPA suggest no differential changes in academic ability between the two groups over time. Nevertheless, the time trends in panel (I) of Fig. A.4 indicate that the negative changes in compulsory school achievement coincide with the start of the AEI and thus may be an important confounding factor. In light of this, I perform sensitivity analyses in Section 5.1 to show that my main estimates are virtually unchanged when I add compulsory school GPA as a control variable in the model, either on its own or interacted with school-year fixed effects.

3.4. Description of higher- and lower-expansion regions

My empirical strategy uses a geographically-based treatment definition capturing per-capita enrollment increases in adult education at the municipal level over my study period. As seen in Fig. A.1, there is some geographical clustering in the intensity of educational expansion, with fairly large low- and high-expansion areas. This spatial pattern highlights the lack of random variation in my treatment definition and motivates an analysis of the extent to which systematic differences between higher- and lower-expansion regions pose a threat to causal identification. Note that my main model specification includes municipality fixed effects to control for time-invariant differences across municipalities that might be related to the level of adult education expansion, educational inputs, and student outcomes. Thus, it is not necessary for the enrollment shocks that I exploit for identification to be unrelated to municipality characteristics. Nonetheless, systematic differences in municipality characteristics could suggest that the time trends in educational inputs and student outcomes would have diverged even in the absence of the AEI, which would violate the parallel trends assumption. For instance, given that the AEI took place in the wake of a severe economic crisis, it is plausible that higher- and lower-expansion regions had differential labor market trends, which might affect student outcomes for reasons unrelated to educational input shocks.

I perform several descriptive analyses to shed light on the extent to which non-random variation in treatment intensity seems to be a concern. First, I report the average baseline characteristics of higher- and lower-expansion regions in Table A.2. Second, I show the correlation between baseline municipality characteristics and the continuous measure of enrollment expansion in Table A.3. Finally, I depict time trends in municipality characteristics over the study period in Figs. A.5 and A.6. The results indicate that higher-expansion regions are more negatively selected than lower-expansion regions. The intensity of educational expansion has a strong negative correlation with labor market outcomes, in particular the employment rate and average annual labor earnings among 25–55-year-olds. Moreover, the expansion measure has a strong positive correlation with the percent of low-educated residents in a region, defined as those who have completed less than three years of high school education. These descriptive patterns are unsurprising and in line with the fact that the program targeted low-educated, unemployed people between the ages of 25 and 55.

Despite the significant baseline differences, it is reassuring that the average municipality characteristics follow similar time trends, particularly in the years leading up to the AEI. Importantly, the employment rate and average labor earnings evolve in a rather parallel fashion, both in the overall working-age population and within age groups. This is true not only before the AEI but also in subsequent years, particularly among 18–24-year-olds. Although there is no evidence of diverging

employment trends, it would be problematic for my identification strategy if students dropped their courses to take advantage of changing labor market prospects – for example, if it became easier to find a job due to decreased competition from unemployed people aged 25–55 who now enroll in adult education rather than search for a job. In that case, any observed effects could be driven by changes on the labor market rather than shocks to educational inputs. In Section 5, I check whether this seems to be the case by studying labor market outcomes shortly after initial course enrollment. Additionally, in light of the significant differences in important baseline characteristics, I perform a battery of robustness checks to show how the estimated effects change when allowing for different underlying trends in the outcome variables depending on baseline municipality characteristics.

4. Results

4.1. Effects on educational inputs

My empirical strategy rests on the premise that regions experiencing larger enrollment shocks during the AEI also experienced stronger negative shocks to educational inputs. The descriptive plot in Fig. 2 suggests that this is the case, at least for teacher certification status. To provide formal evidence, I estimate the difference-in-differences model in Eq. (2) using various school and class inputs as the dependent variable. I analyze several types of inputs: teacher credentials, log per-pupil expenditure, and class characteristics such as class size and peer quality.

Table 2 presents the results of the difference-in-differences analysis. The reported estimates capture how students' exposure to educational inputs changed in higher- versus lower-expansion regions from the pre- to post-reform period. The results confirm the premise that larger enrollment shocks coincided with stronger negative shocks to educational inputs. Relative to students in lower-expansion regions, students in higher-expansion regions became much more exposed to inexperienced, uncertified, and less-educated teachers (panel [A], columns [1,2,3]). Additionally, the subsidies that municipalities received to finance the expansion were stretched thin in higher-expansion regions, leading to declines in per-pupil expenditure on instruction and learning materials (panel [A], columns [4,5]). Finally, although class size was affected similarly across regions (panel [B], column [1]), there were some differential changes in peer composition. Students in higher-expansion regions experienced slightly larger increases in the average age of their classmates, along with larger declines in classmates' socioeconomic status and cognitive ability (panel [B], columns [2,5,6]).

The dynamic difference-in-differences plots in Figs. 3 and 4 confirm these findings and shed light on how educational inputs evolve pre- and post-reform. The figures report the annual coefficients from the estimation of Eq. (3) for each input. All of the pre-AEI coefficients for school resources, as well as the majority of pre-AEI coefficients for classroom characteristics, are statistically indistinguishable from zero, suggesting that the inputs would have evolved similarly in the absence of the enrollment shock caused by the AEI. The higher-expansion regions immediately experience a stronger strain on school resources and peer quality after the implementation of the AEI, with some shocks growing slightly stronger over time. If these educational inputs matter for student achievement, we should expect similar patterns for student outcomes.

4.2. Effects on course outcomes

As a result of the AEI, students in higher-expansion regions were exposed to less qualified teachers, lower per-pupil expenditure, and more negatively selected peers than students in lower-expansion regions. Supposing that these educational inputs have a positive impact on academic achievement, student outcomes should decrease in the higher, relative to lower, expansion regions after the start of the AEI. To

Table 2
Difference-in-differences estimates for educational inputs.

	Panel A. School resources					
	Teacher credentials			Log per-pupil expenditure		
	Years of education (1)	Share certified (2)	Share experienced (3)	Learning materials (4)	Cost of instruction (5)	School facilities (6)
Diff-in-Diff estimate	-0.150 (0.055)***	-0.052 (0.015)***	-0.047 (0.020)**	-0.189 (0.107)*	-0.117 (0.048)**	-0.231 (0.153)
<i>Pre-reform averages:</i>						
Higher-expansion regions	15.454	0.860	0.851	7.284	9.702	8.431
Lower-expansion regions	15.524	0.870	0.848	7.131	9.657	8.391
<i>Post-reform averages:</i>						
Higher-expansion regions	15.013	0.739	0.751	7.204	9.665	8.282
Lower-expansion regions	15.245	0.796	0.787	7.286	9.719	8.427
Number of observations	3,230,825	3,230,825	3,230,825	3,157,089	3,169,521	3,160,466
	Panel B. Characteristics of classroom peers					
	Class size (1)	Average age (2)	Share female (3)	Years of education (4)	Parents' years of education (5)	Cognitive ability (6)
Diff-in-Diff estimate	0.196 (1.602)	0.332 (0.184)*	0.003 (0.007)	-0.018 (0.018)	-0.057 (0.032)*	-0.034 (0.017)**
<i>Pre-reform averages:</i>						
Higher-expansion regions	39.386	27.528	0.621	11.066	11.049	-0.205
Lower-expansion regions	41.866	27.577	0.624	11.166	11.484	-0.138
<i>Post-reform averages:</i>						
Higher-expansion regions	34.234	29.071	0.635	11.197	11.074	-0.307
Lower-expansion regions	37.776	28.612	0.627	11.332	11.604	-0.190
Number of observations	3,240,448	3,240,448	3,240,448	3,240,286	3,230,990	3,205,804

Notes: Students appear in the estimation sample once per registered course attempt. Teacher characteristics are calculated at the school-by-instruction level. Certified teachers are teachers with a college-level degree in pedagogy, and experienced teachers are teachers with 3+ years of teaching experience. Log per-pupil expenditure is calculated at the municipal level and measured in terms of full-time equivalents. Peer characteristics are leave-one-out means measured at the class level (see the data appendix for details on how classes are approximated). Cognitive ability is proxied by standardized compulsory-school GPA (if available) or military enlistment test score (if available and GPA is missing). Standard errors are shown in parentheses and clustered at the municipal level. Stars denote significance levels: *** for $p < 0.01$, ** for $p < 0.05$, and * for $p < 0.10$.

investigate this, I repeat the difference-in-differences analysis specified in Eq. (2) using various course outcomes as the dependent variable. Specifically, I study effects on the probability of dropping out of a course and the probability of earning course credit (i.e., receiving any passing grade). For the subsample of course completers, I also examine whether there is any effect on students' grades, including the probability to receive a grade of fail, pass, or pass with honors.

Table 3 reports the results of the difference-in-differences analysis for student outcomes. Column (1) shows that after the introduction of the AEI, students in higher-expansion regions became almost four percentage points more likely to drop out of a course relative to students in lower-expansion regions. This is a sizable effect – an increase of approximately 12% over the baseline probability of dropout. Column (2) shows that students in higher-expansion regions also became less likely to earn credit in the course, although this decrease is driven by the increased dropout rate rather than an increase in the probability of failing the course. Columns (3)–(5) show that, conditional on course completion, students' grades are unaffected.

The estimates reveal that, on average, students in higher-expansion regions had higher course dropout rates than students in lower-expansion regions as a result of the AEI. Taken together with the earlier results for educational inputs, this suggests that negative shocks to educational inputs have an adverse impact on students' academic progress. To investigate this more closely, I study whether the dynamics of the effects for course outcomes line up with the patterns for educational inputs observed in Figs. 3 and 4. To this end, I estimate the dynamic difference-in-differences specification in Eq. (3) for each of the course outcomes and plot the coefficients year by year in Fig. 5. The coefficients in the pre-AEI years are statistically indistinguishable from zero, which lends credibility to the identifying assumption that students'

course outcomes would have evolved similarly in the higher- and lower-expansion regions if they had not been subjected to enrollment and input shocks. After the introduction of the AEI, we see immediate declines in student performance, with the effects remaining fairly stable over time. The fact that these effects coincide with declines in school resources and peer composition is highly suggestive of a causal link between educational inputs and course dropout.

4.3. Heterogeneity analysis

A policy-relevant question is whether shocks to educational inputs have a stronger effect on students who come from disadvantaged backgrounds or who have had low achievement levels in the past. If such students have a harder time compensating for poor resources at school, they may be particularly susceptible to changes in educational inputs. Indeed, previous research at the primary and secondary level has shown that students from disadvantaged backgrounds can be more sensitive to changes in educational inputs and school quality than students from more advantaged backgrounds (see, e.g., Bloom & Unterman, 2014; Jackson et al., 2016; Krueger & Whitmore, 2001). I investigate whether this also applies to adult learners by performing two different heterogeneity analyses. First, I check whether the results differ by the education level of students' parents – specifically, whether one of their parents has some post-secondary education or not. Second, I check whether the results differ for high school graduates and dropouts.

The heterogeneity analyses by parental education and high school graduation status are shown in panels (A) and (B) of Fig. A.7. Panel (A) reveals that the AEI had a similar effect on the course outcomes of students with higher- and lower-educated parents. There are no significant differences at any point in time. Similarly, panel (B) does not reveal significant differences between high school graduates and

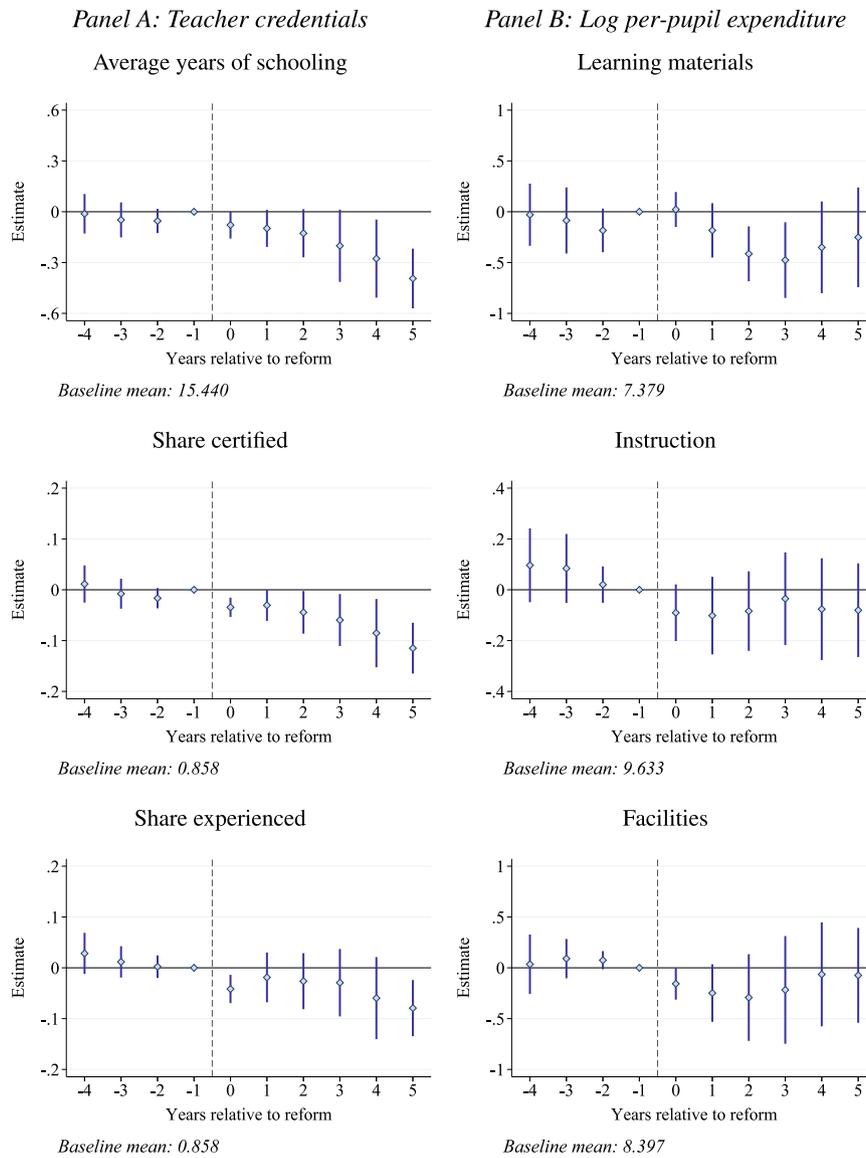


Fig. 3. Dynamic difference-in-differences estimates for school inputs. *Notes:* In all panels, the dashed vertical line indicates the introduction of the AEI, and the baseline mean refers to the average in the higher-expansion regions in 1996. Each point plots the estimates of λ_y from Eq. (3), and the vertical bars show the 95% confidence intervals for the estimates when clustering the standard errors at the municipal level. In panel (A), teacher characteristics are calculated at the school-by-instruction level. Certified teachers are those who hold a pedagogy degree. Experienced teachers have at least three years of experience. In panel (B), log per-pupil expenditure is calculated at the municipal level. Students appear in the estimation sample once per registered course attempt.

dropouts, even though the magnitude of the effects is noticeably larger for high school dropouts towards the end of the study period. All in all, these results suggest that shocks to educational inputs do not have a stronger impact on students with more disadvantaged socioeconomic or academic backgrounds.

Another relevant question is whether there are heterogeneous effects by gender. Prior research on the returns to adult education has shown that women have significant benefits from participating in adult education, whereas the returns are weaker or even insignificant for men (see, e.g., [Blundell et al., 2020](#); [Jacobson et al., 2005](#); [Stenberg et al., 2014](#)). If women are more likely to drop out and less likely to earn course credit in response to school input shocks, it could thus have particularly negative consequences for them in the longer run. I investigate whether the effects differ for men and women in panel (C) of [Fig. A.7](#). The magnitude of the effects is consistently larger for women than for men, suggesting that women’s academic performance may be slightly more sensitive to changes in school inputs; however, the estimates for men and women are not statistically different from one another at conventional significance levels.

5. Sensitivity and credibility of the results

5.1. Robustness checks

This section includes a battery of robustness checks to confirm that my main findings hold when using different sample restrictions, treatment definitions, and model specifications.

First, I check whether my results are robust to different ways of dealing with missing values in the outcome variable. National guidelines stipulate that teachers should not assign a grade when students fail to complete exams or assignments that are required to judge their mastery of the subject material. Rather, a mark of Z should be recorded in the grade registry. Nevertheless, values are missing for around 15% of observations where a non-missing value is expected based on students’ registration status and the course end date. It is unclear whether the missing values should have been recorded as a mark of Z or whether the teacher did not report a grade even though the student completed the course. In my analysis, I take a restrictive approach and only include classes in which all students registered at the end of the course have

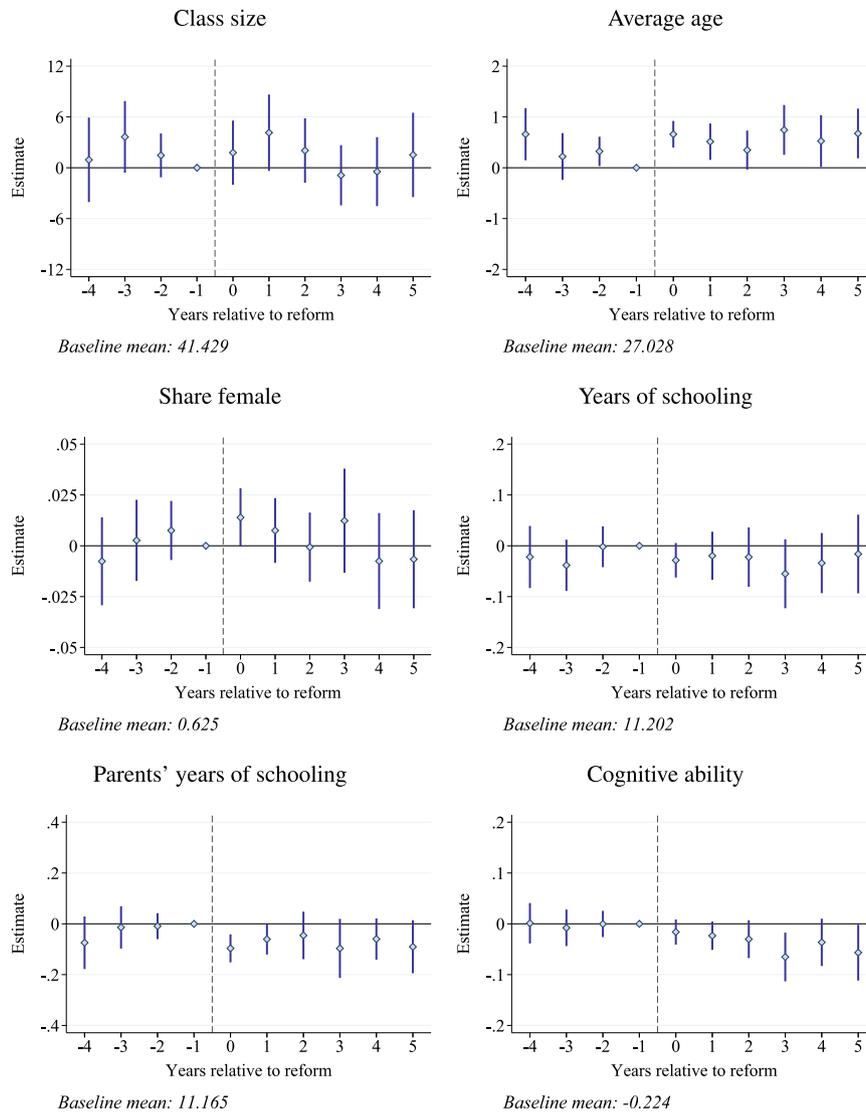


Fig. 4. Dynamic difference-in-differences estimates for class inputs. Notes: In all panels, the dashed vertical line indicates the introduction of the AEI, and the baseline mean refers to the average in the higher-expansion regions in 1996. Each point plots the estimates of λ_y from Eq. (3), and the vertical bars show the 95% confidence intervals for the estimates when clustering the standard errors at the municipal level. Students appear in the estimation sample once per registered course attempt.

Table 3
Difference-in-differences estimates for student performance.

	All students, 1993–2002		Course completers, 1994–2002		
	Drop course (1)	Earn credit (2)	Fail grade (3)	Pass grade (4)	Honors grade (5)
Diff-in-Diff estimate	0.037 (0.007)***	-0.034 (0.007)***	0.001 (0.005)	0.002 (0.007)	-0.004 (0.009)
<i>Pre-reform averages:</i>					
Higher-expansion regions	0.297	0.659	0.072	0.449	0.479
Lower-expansion regions	0.305	0.647	0.080	0.434	0.486
<i>Post-reform averages:</i>					
Higher-expansion regions	0.356	0.584	0.093	0.358	0.549
Lower-expansion regions	0.333	0.595	0.108	0.342	0.550
Number of observations	3,240,448	3,240,448	2,062,652	2,062,652	2,062,652

Notes: Students appear in the estimation sample once per registered course attempt. Outcomes in columns (1)–(2) are unconditional probabilities, and estimates are obtained using the full sample of students from 1993–2002. Outcomes in columns (3)–(5) are conditional probabilities, and estimates are obtained using the sub-sample of course completers from 1994–2002. Year 1993 is dropped from columns (3)–(5) due to a change in grading scale. All regressions include year, municipality, subject, and subject-by-year fixed effects, as well as individual-level controls for age, sex, civil status, presence of young children in the household, foreign background, parents' highest level of education, and own level of education. Standard errors are cluster-robust at the municipal level and shown in parentheses. Stars denote significance levels: *** for $p < 0.01$, ** for $p < 0.05$, and * for $p < 0.10$.

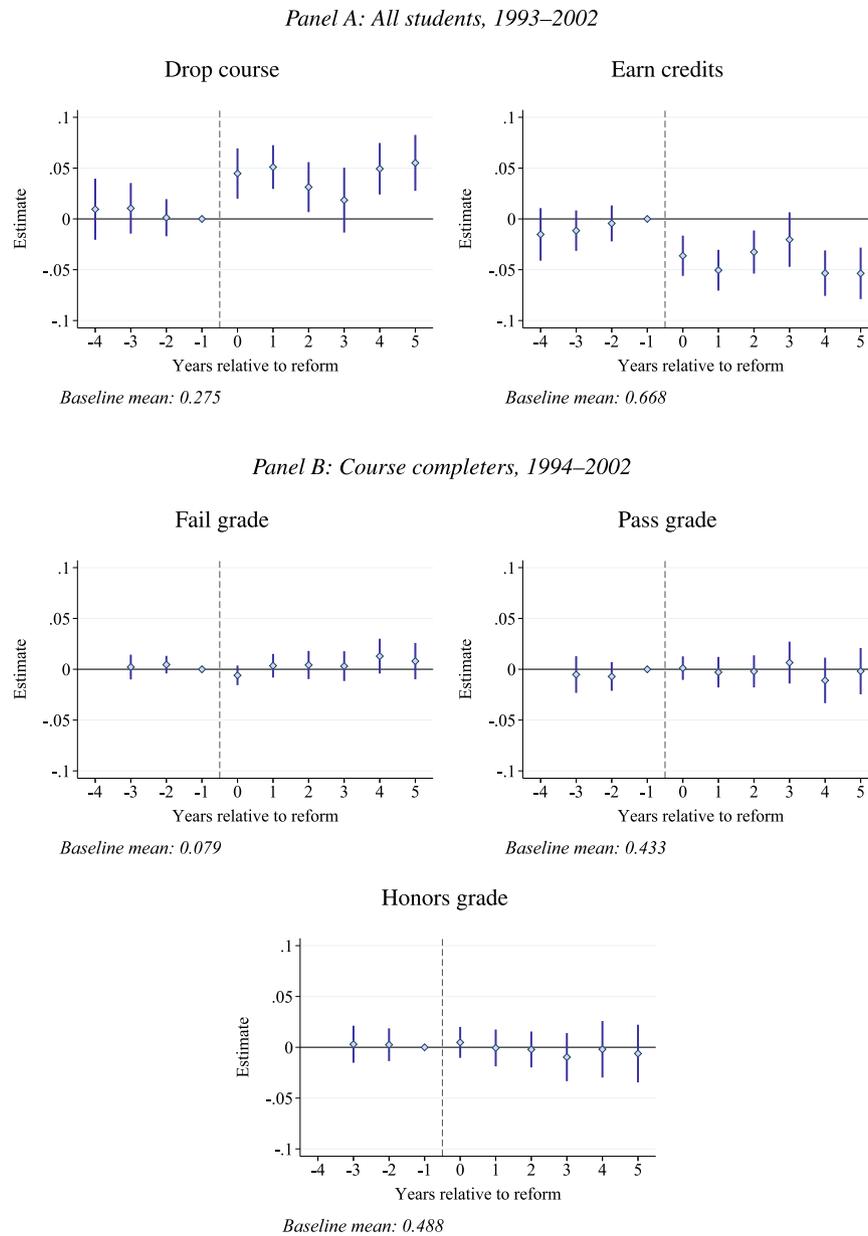


Fig. 5. Dynamic difference-in-differences estimates for course outcomes. *Notes:* The vertical line indicates the start of the AEI, and the baseline mean refers to the average in the higher-expansion regions in 1996. Each point plots the estimates of λ_y from Eq. (3), and the vertical bars plot the 95% confidence intervals with standard errors clustered at the municipal level. Outcomes in panel (A) are unconditional probabilities and are estimated for the full sample from 1993–2002. Outcomes in panel (B) are conditional probabilities and are estimated for the subsample of course completers from 1994–2002. Students appear once per registered course attempt. Regressions include individual controls and the following fixed effects: municipality, year, subject, and subject by year.

non-missing grades. To assess whether my results are sensitive to this restriction, Fig. A.8 plots the main difference-in-differences estimates when dropping classes with different shares of missing grades from the estimation sample. The main point estimates are fairly stable, indicating that my findings are not driven by my sample restriction on classes with missing grades.

Table A.4 reports the results of several additional robustness checks and includes the estimates from the main specification for comparison. The first four robustness checks test whether my findings are sensitive to the inclusion or exclusion of individual-level background characteristics. Although Table 1 showed that there were no significant overall changes in the composition of students in higher- relative to lower-expansion regions during the study period, it is concerning that there are some slight imbalances in compulsory school GPA coinciding with the introduction of the AEI. Reassuringly, however, panels (A) through (D) of Table A.4 show that the estimates for dropping a course and

earning course credit are largely unchanged when compulsory school GPA – or any other background characteristics – are included as a control variables. There is also little change in the estimates when interacting compulsory school GPA with the school-year fixed effects to account for important changes over time.

As another robustness check, I enrich the main specification by interacting the set of baseline municipality characteristics in Table A.2 with the school-year fixed effects. This allows for the possibility that there are different underlying trends in student outcomes related to baseline municipality characteristics. The main findings point in the same direction, although the effect sizes drop in magnitude by approximately 20%–35%, suggesting that municipal variables may be an important confounding factor. In order to understand which characteristics drive this decrease, and also to test whether the effects keep decreasing as additional trends are added, I perform two exercises in Fig. 6. First, I interact the school-year fixed effects with each variable

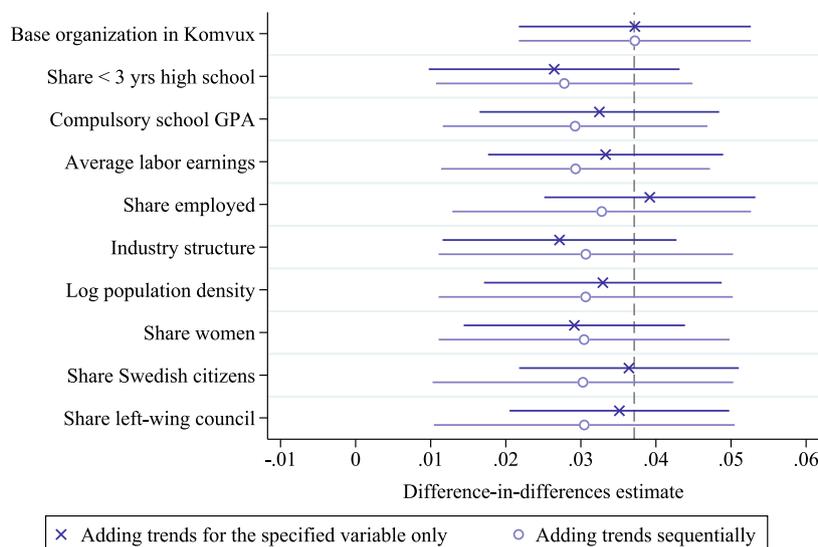


Fig. 6. Robustness of the point estimates for course dropout to underlying trends in municipality characteristics. Notes: The dashed vertical line indicates the baseline estimate for course dropout (0.0371). The point estimates marked O are obtained by adding each characteristic sequentially, i.e., the final row allows for differential trends related to all ten characteristics and corresponds to the estimate in panel (F), column (1) of Table A.4. Horizontal bars show 95% confidence intervals with standard errors clustered at the municipal level.

indicated on the vertical axis, adding these trends to the baseline estimation individually. Second, I use a step-wise procedure to sequentially add underlying trends related to each characteristic – one additional variable at a time, moving down the vertical axis – until trends for all of the listed characteristics are included in the same model. The bottom point in the graph thus corresponds to the estimate in panel (F), column (1) of Table A.4. This exercise reveals that the decrease in the baseline estimate is primarily driven by trends related to education level and industry structure. Reassuringly, however, the step-wise procedure shows that after controlling for different trends related to average educational attainment, the estimates remain fairly stable as additional trends are added to the model.

Next, I test whether my results are sensitive to the definition of the treatment variable. In panel (G), I use a continuous measure of the enrollment shock in each municipality instead of a binary indicator. When evaluated at the average treatment intensity of 2.1, the point estimates from this specification are nearly identical in magnitude to the main point estimates: 0.0369 and -0.0369 for course dropout and earning credits, respectively, compared to baseline estimates of 0.0371 and -0.0342. In panel (H), I again use a binary treatment indicator that divides the municipalities into groups based on above- and below-median enrollment shocks; however, instead of measuring enrollment shocks over the full study period, I take the difference between the enrollment level in the peak post-reform school year (1998/99) and the base organization period (1993/94–1996/97) to better capture the immediate shock of the policy. There is a slight reduction in the magnitude of the effects, though they are still sizable and statistically significant at the 1% level. Finally, in panel (I), I check whether selective re-location is a problem by assigning students to treatment based on their municipality of residence at the start of the study period. Re-scaling the intent-to-treat estimates by the probability of still living in the same region, the estimates are quite similar to the main specification: 0.0359 and -0.0351 for course dropout and earning credits, respectively.

As a final robustness check, I restrict the estimation sample to students' first course attempt in order to check whether the estimates are affected by repeated course-taking. There is no evidence that this is the case (see panel [J]).

5.2. Alternative explanations

The findings presented thus far provide suggestive evidence that expansion-induced shocks to educational inputs have a causal effect

on course dropout in adult education. There are, however, several alternative explanations to consider. In the following paragraphs, I discuss the alternative explanations and assess their plausibility.

One possibility is that the AEI changed the type or number of courses that students chose to enroll in. If students in higher-expansion regions were induced to register for a more challenging course load compared to students in lower-expansion regions, this might have led to increased dropout rates. To help alleviate concerns related to course selection, my main model includes subject and subject-by-year fixed effects, thus accounting for time-invariant differences between subjects and time-varying subject-specific shocks. Nonetheless, it is illuminating to directly assess changes in course selection by using various course characteristics as the dependent variable in my differences-in-differences specification.²⁰

Table 4 reports the results of the difference-in-differences analysis for course characteristics and overall course load, and Fig. A.9 plots the dynamics over time. The results indicate that there is a slight shift out of academic courses in the higher-expansion regions compared to the lower-expansion regions towards the end of the study period. However, for all other characteristics, there are no meaningful changes, and the dynamics do not mirror the effects on student outcomes. Overall, this suggests that changes in course selection are unlikely to drive my findings.²¹

Another possibility is that students drop out of their courses to take advantage of improving labor market prospects, especially as competition for job openings may be reduced by the increased flow of unemployed 25–55-year-olds into adult education. To investigate whether this explanation may account for my findings, I analyze students' labor market outcomes one year after course enrollment, including the number of days unemployed, employment status in November, and annual labor earnings. I estimate my main difference-in-differences model for student outcomes, omitting subject and subject-by-year fixed effects and including only one observation per person and school year. The resulting estimates are reported in columns (1) to (3) of Table 5.

²⁰ Note that there is no within-subject variation in several of the course characteristics (e.g., “academic course”). Thus, I exclude the subject and subject-by-year fixed effects for these results.

²¹ As an additional check, I have verified that the difference-in-differences estimates for student outcomes are not sensitive to the inclusion of course characteristics as control variables.

Table 4
Changes in course characteristics and overall course load.

	Estimate (1)	Std. Err. (2)	P-value (3)
<i>Panel A. Course characteristics.</i>			
Daytime course	-0.005	0.010	0.590
Course duration (in weeks)	0.426	0.599	0.477
Lecture hours per week	-0.159	0.160	0.322
Compulsory-level course	-0.002	0.005	0.734
Academic course	-0.047	0.014	0.001
Number of observations	3,240,448		
<i>Panel B. Overall course load.</i>			
Total number of registered courses	0.112	0.146	0.444
Total lecture hours per week	-0.037	1.144	0.974
Number of observations	679,554		

Notes: In panel (A), each student appears once per course attempt. In panel (B), each student appears once per school year. The estimate column reports the difference-in-differences estimate when using course characteristics as the outcome. Standard errors are clustered at the municipal level.

Table 5
Effects on work and study situation one year after course enrollment.

	Days unemployed (1)	Labor earnings (2)	Employed in November (3)	Enrolled in college (4)
Diff-in-Diff estimate	6.679 (3.585)*	-0.353 (0.966)	0.010 (0.007)	-0.011 (0.005)**
<i>Pre-reform averages:</i>				
Higher-expansion regions	156.864	35.830	0.357	0.145
Lower-expansion regions	133.935	42.245	0.418	0.162
<i>Post-reform averages:</i>				
Higher-expansion regions	115.798	47.113	0.463	0.181
Lower-expansion regions	87.102	53.127	0.511	0.205
Number of observations	676,626	676,626	676,626	676,626

Notes: Each student appears in the sample once per school year that they are registered in municipal adult education. All outcomes are measured during the following calendar year. Days unemployed refers to total days registered with the Public Employment Service during the year. Annual labor earnings is reported in thousands of Swedish crowns (CPI-adjusted to year 1996). Employment and college enrollment status are measured during the fall. Standard errors are shown in parentheses and clustered at the municipal level. Stars denote significance levels: *** for $p < 0.01$, ** for $p < 0.05$, and * for $p < 0.10$.

There is no indication that students drop out of their courses in order to work. On the contrary, there is a slight increase in the number of days unemployed, although this may be partly driven by negative pre-trends at the start of the study period (see Fig. A.10).

Finally, as access to higher education increased over the study period, students may have dropped out of their courses in order to attend college. However, column (4) of Table 5 and panel (d) of Fig. A.10 show that there is actually a slight reduction in the likelihood of registering for college one year after enrolling in adult education. These results indicate that college enrollment decisions do not seem to explain my findings. Moreover, they suggest that the short-term effects observed for course dropout may ultimately have longer-term consequences for students' educational attainment.

5.3. External validity

My main analysis focuses on young adults aged 18–24 for two reasons. First, people under age 25 were not the target population of the AEI. It is thus likely that compositional changes from the pre- to post-reform period are less severe among this age group. Second, I have better data coverage for young adults, including data on prior academic achievement. This enables me to test for important compositional changes and to assess the sensitivity of my results to the inclusion of potential confounding variables, such as compulsory school GPA. In addition, it is worth noting that young adults are a particularly relevant subgroup to study in the Swedish setting. Students under age 25 account for almost 30% of course enrollment in municipal adult education, and over a third of a birth cohort enrolls in a course before age 25 (see Figure B.1 in the supplementary appendix).

Despite the reasons for focusing on young adults, one limitation is that younger students may differ from older students in ways that affect the generalizability of my findings. For instance, Table B.1 in the supplementary appendix reveals that younger students are more likely to be native-born, less likely to work while enrolled, and have completed more years of education despite their younger age. They are also more likely to enroll in courses at the upper-secondary level and in academic subjects. Although it is not observable in the data, it is also plausible that younger students tend to have different motivations for enrolling in adult education compared to older students – for example, studying courses needed to apply to college as opposed to training for a new profession. Given these differences, it is important to consider the extent to which my findings for young adults apply to older adults.

To shed light on the generalizability of my results, I repeat my main difference-in-differences analysis for the sample of students aged 25 and older. The resulting estimates are shown in Fig. 7, alongside the corresponding estimates for students aged 18–24. The effect on course dropout is somewhat weaker among older students, although not statistically different from the effect for younger students. Additionally, in contrast to the results for younger students, there is some evidence of an adverse impact on older students' grades – i.e., increased probability to fail and decreased probability to earn an honors grade, conditional on course completion. Once again, however, the point estimates are statistically indistinguishable from the point estimates for younger students. Although I cannot rule out that negative selection and compositional changes drive the results for older students, these findings suggest that negative shocks to educational inputs have an adverse

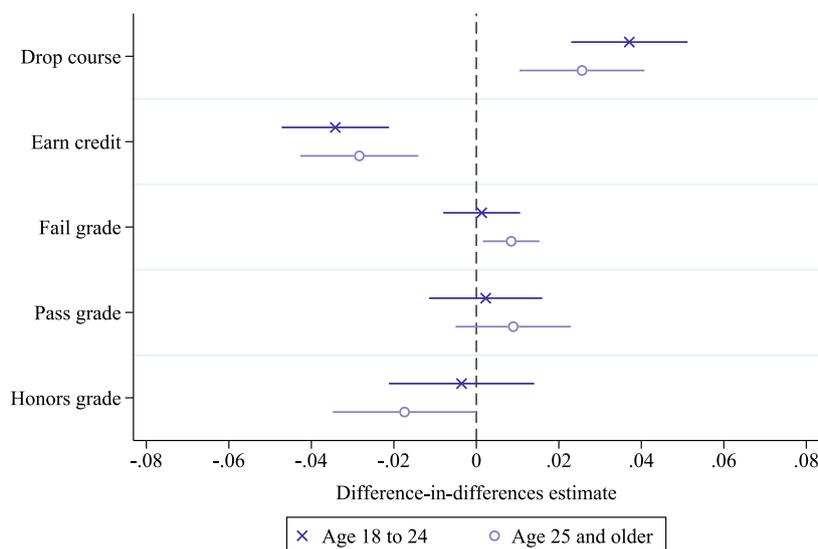


Fig. 7. Comparison of point estimates for younger and older students. *Notes:* Students appear in the estimation sample once per registered course attempt. All regressions control for age, sex, civil status, presence of young children in the household, foreign background, parents' highest level of education, and students' own level of education.

impact on the academic achievement of adult learners, irrespective of their age group.²²

6. Concluding remarks

One of the most enduring and contentious debates in education research is whether educational inputs have an impact on student outcomes. Although a vast literature examines this question for students in primary and secondary school, we know relatively little about the effects for students beyond high school age. This study contributes to the literature by providing novel evidence on the relationship between educational inputs and the academic achievement of adult learners. To that end, I analyzed the effects of a Swedish program that rapidly expanded enrollment in secondary-level adult education. The analysis revealed that the expansion led to negative impacts on peer inputs and school resources. These negative impacts coincided with an increase in course dropout, suggesting a link between educational inputs and students' academic progress in adult education.

My results indicate that policies that expand access to education may have unintended effects on the academic progress of adult learners. This is a particularly relevant finding in the context of adult education, as policymakers have begun to embrace lifelong learning as a way to meet the changing demands of the labor market. Although large-scale expansions are likely to raise the average educational attainment and accumulated skill level of the population, I show that there is an opposing force at play: namely, the negative effect of reduced educational inputs on study completion. These indirect consequences should be taken into account when designing and evaluating policy initiatives to increase enrollment in adult education.

A limitation of my study is that the enrollment shocks I exploit for identification affect multiple educational inputs simultaneously. Thus, it is difficult to determine whether one particular input or a certain combination of inputs matters the most for student outcomes. Future research could attempt to disentangle the mechanisms and determine

²² In Figure B.4 in the supplementary appendix, I support the credibility of the findings for older adults by showing that the estimates are not very sensitive to the inclusion of ability controls among the sub-sample of men for whom I have military enlistment test data. However, similar to the gender pattern observed for younger students, the point estimates for men are slightly weaker than average.

which inputs have the largest, most cost-effective impact on the outcomes of adult learners. Another relevant question is whether the short-run impacts on academic progress have longer-term consequences, for example, effects on employment and earnings.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

J. Lucas Tilley: Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Methodology, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

The authors do not have permission to share data.

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Appendix A. Main appendix

See Fig. A.1–A.10 and Tables A.1–A.4.

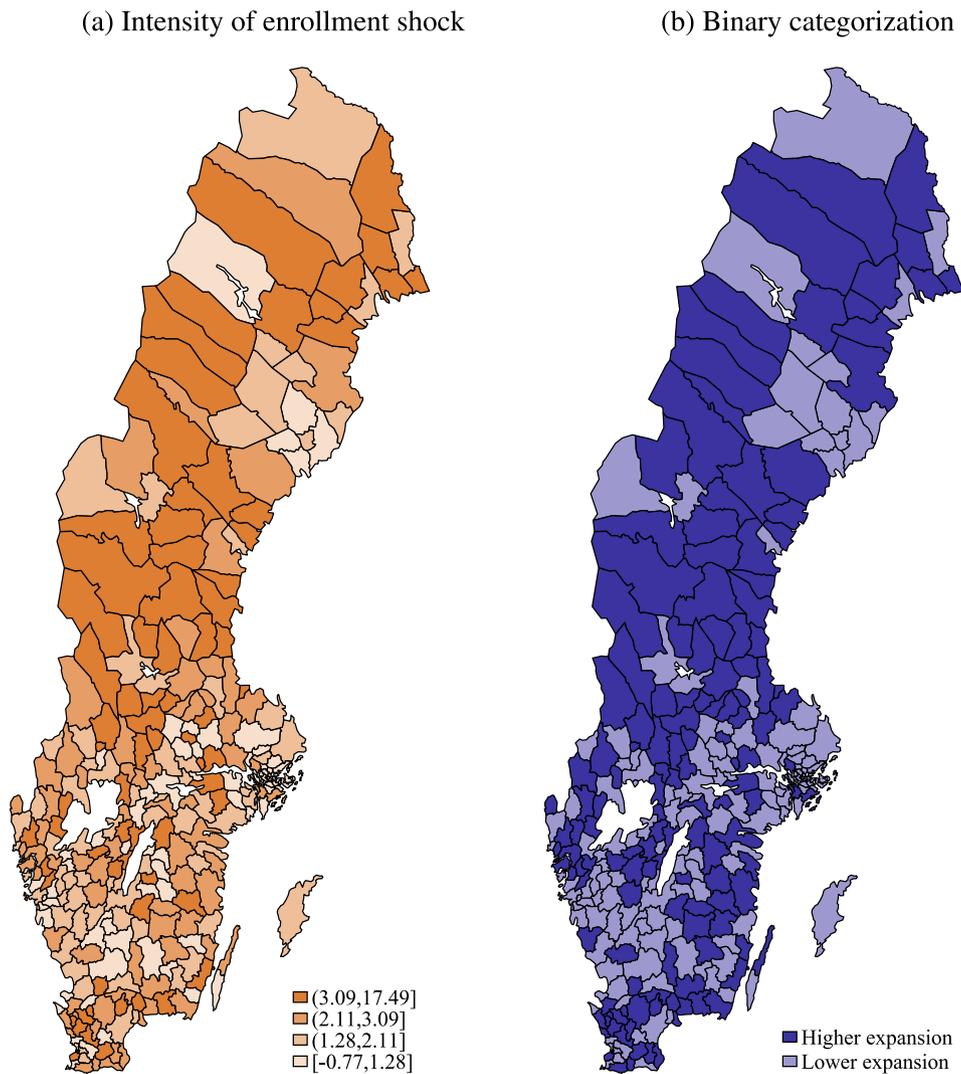


Fig. A.1. Variation in the intensity of enrollment shocks across municipalities. *Notes:* In panel (a), municipalities are shaded according to the intensity of enrollment shock that they experienced after the AEI. Each shade represents a different quartile in the distribution of enrollment shocks, with the lowest quartile/weakest shocks represented by the lightest shade and the highest quartile/strongest shocks represent by the darkest shade. In panel (b), higher-expansion regions are defined as municipalities that experienced above-median enrollment shocks (illustrated with darker shading), and lower-expansion regions are defined as municipalities that experienced below-median enrollment shocks (illustrated with lighter shading).

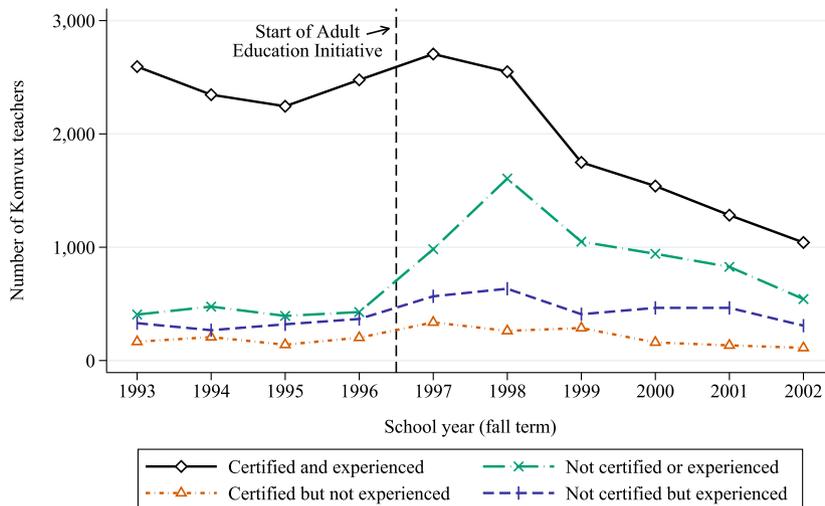


Fig. A.2. Inflow of Komvux teachers by prior teaching experience and certification status. Notes: The figure shows the number of teachers who taught in municipal adult education (Komvux) during the fall term of school year y but not the previous year $y - 1$. Each line categorizes teachers according to their prior teaching experience and the type of degree that they have. Experience refers to any teaching experience since 1985, whether in adult education or another level. Certified refers to teachers who have a college degree in pedagogy.

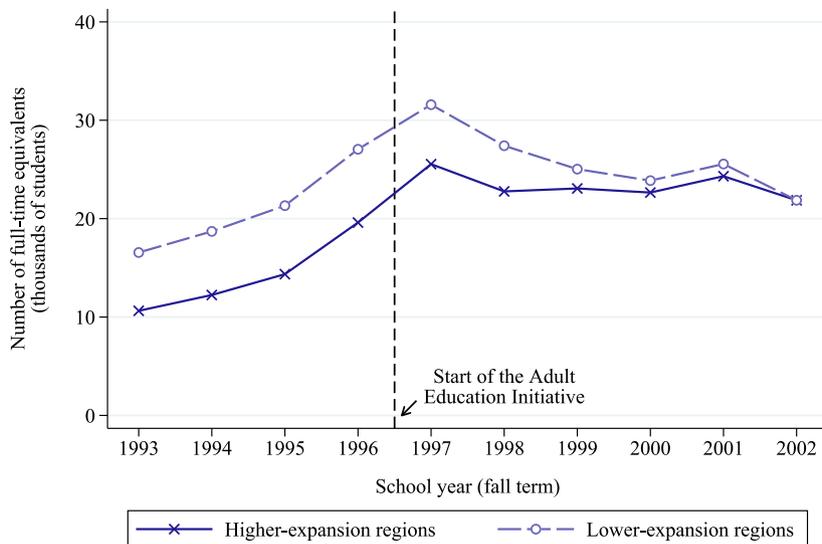


Fig. A.3. Enrollment levels in municipal adult education (18- to 24-year-olds). Notes: The figure shows the number of full-time equivalent students aged 18–24 registered in municipal adult education during a given school year. The darker line plots the enrollment levels in higher-expansion regions, and the lighter line plots the enrollment levels in lower-expansion regions.

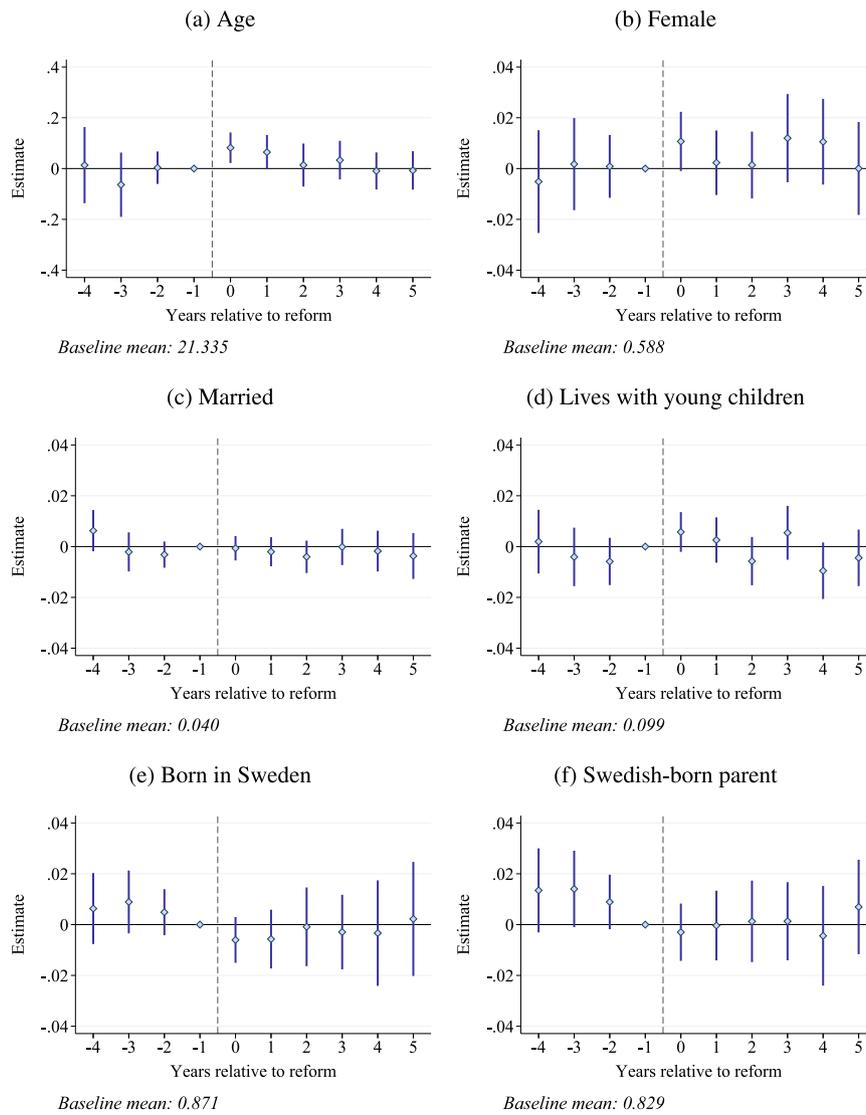


Fig. A.4a. Dynamic difference-in-differences estimates for student characteristics. *Notes:* The dashed vertical line depicts the start of the AEI in 1997. Students appear once per registered course attempt. The vertical bars represent 95% confidence intervals with standard errors clustered at the municipal level.

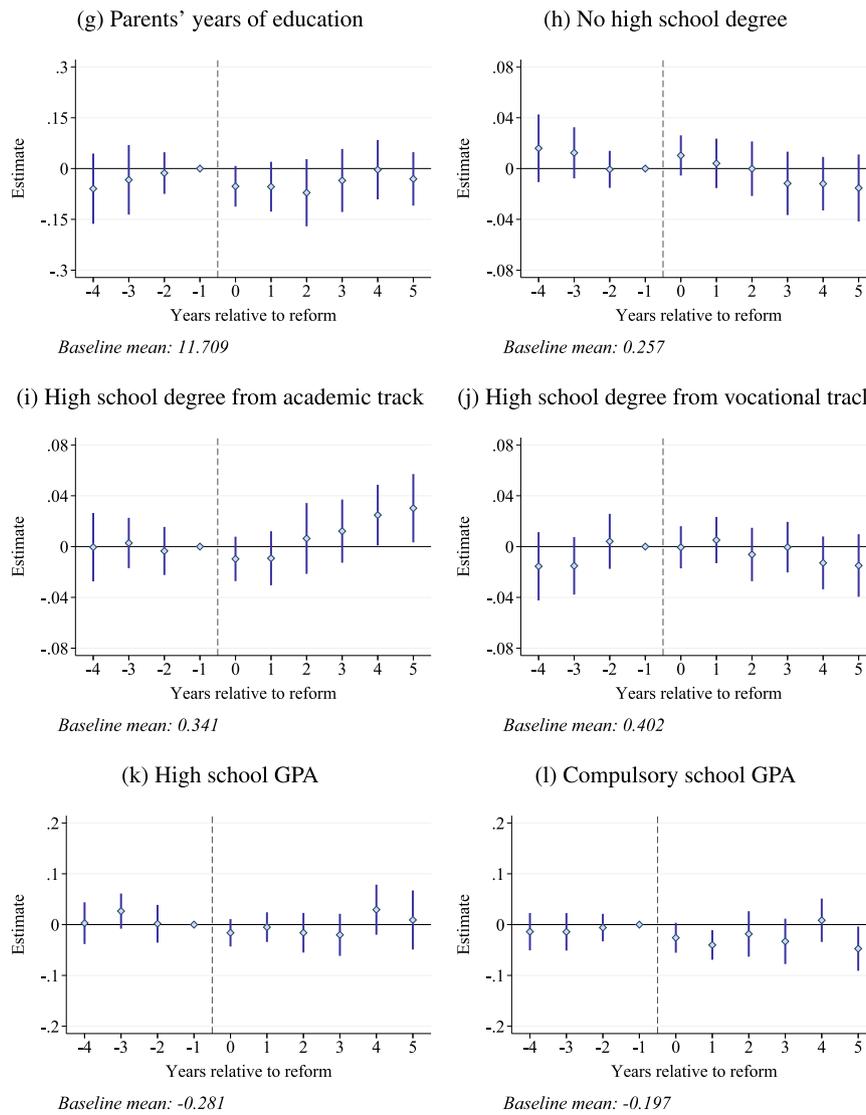


Fig. A.4b. Dynamic difference-in-differences estimates for student characteristics. *Notes:* The dashed vertical line depicts the start of the AEI in 1997. Students appear once per registered course attempt. The vertical bars represent 95% confidence intervals with standard errors clustered at the municipal level.

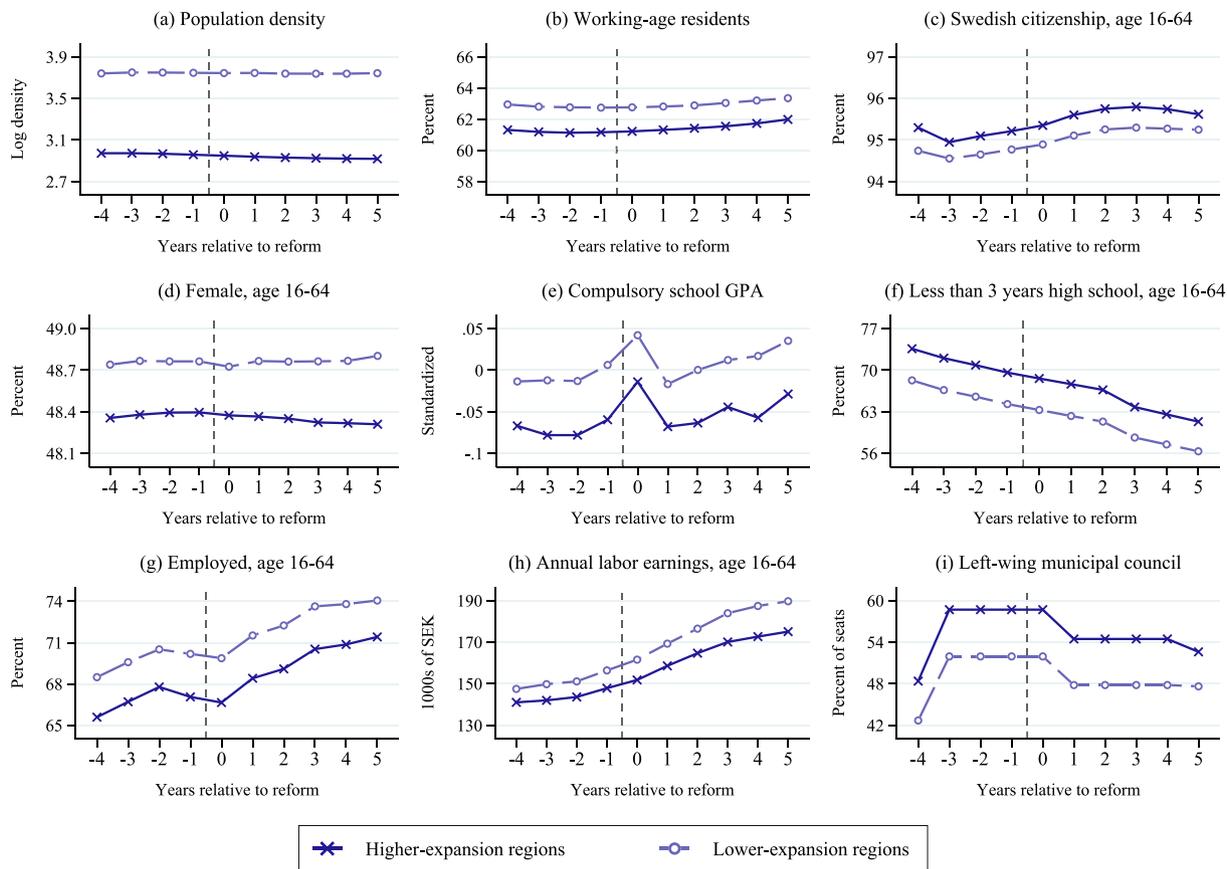


Fig. A.5. Average municipality characteristics over time in higher- and lower-expansion regions. *Notes:* The figure shows average municipality characteristics over time in higher- and lower-expansion regions. Each municipality receives equal weight in the average, regardless of population size. The vertical line indicates the introduction of the AEI in 1997. All data comes from Statistics Sweden and the National Agency for Education. Panel (e) reports the compulsory school GPA of the current graduation cohort. There was a change in grading system at $t = 1$ (year 1998). In panel (f), there was an improvement in data quality for highest education from $t = 3$ (year 2000) onward.

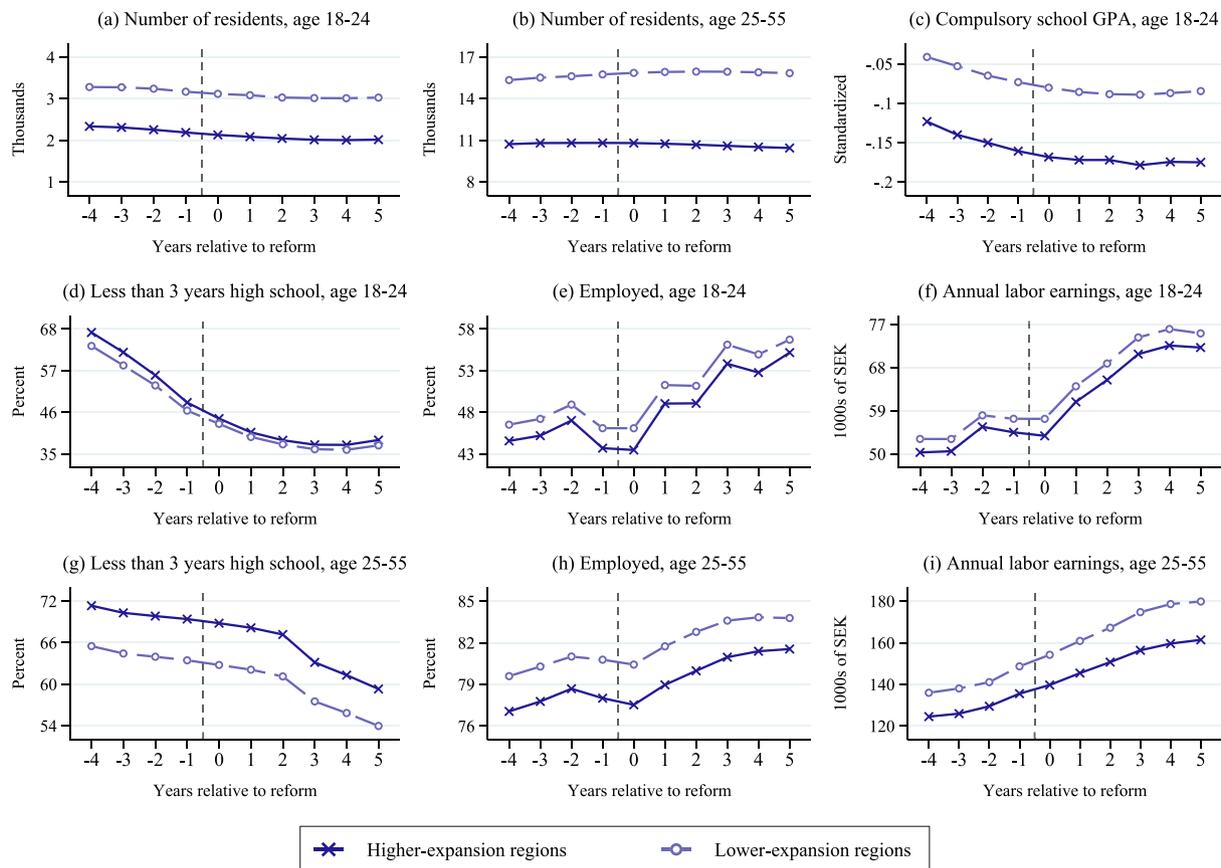
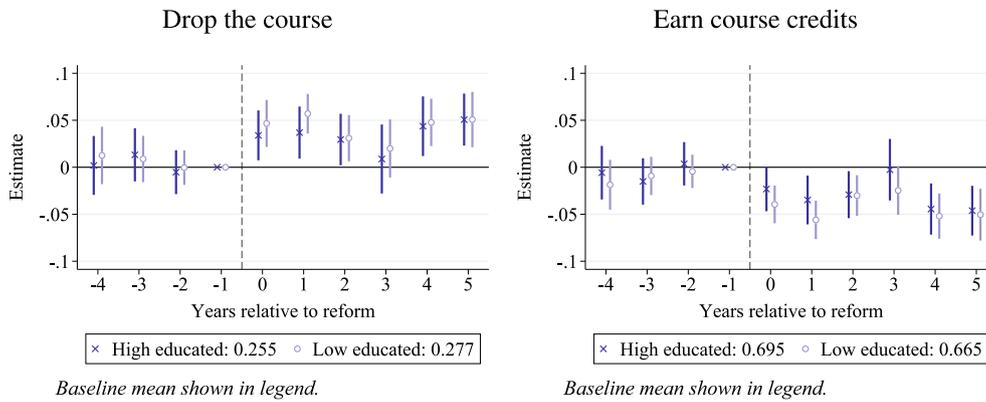
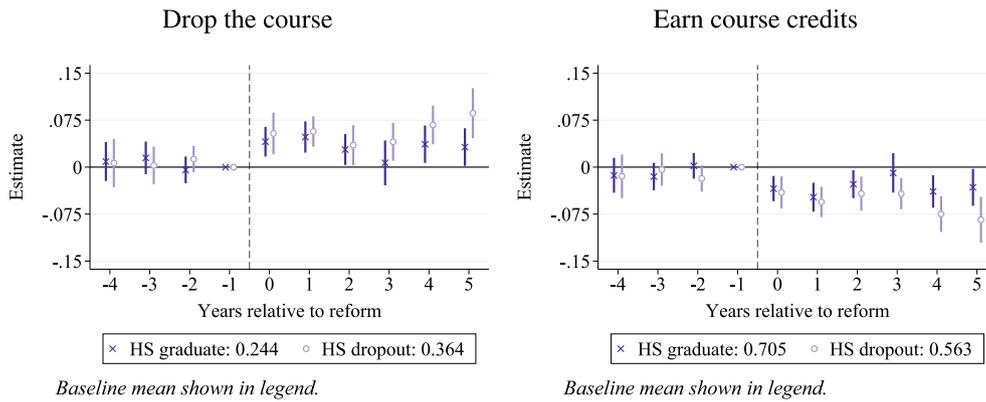


Fig. A.6. Average municipality characteristics over time by age group. *Notes:* The figure shows average municipality characteristics over time in higher- and lower-expansion regions for people aged 18–24 and 25–55. Each municipality receives equal weight in the average, regardless of population size. The vertical line indicates the introduction of the AEI in 1997. There is no data on compulsory school GPA for people born before the 1970s, and thus, I do not show averages for people aged 25–55.

Panel A: Parents' level of education



Panel B: High school graduation status



Panel C: Students' gender

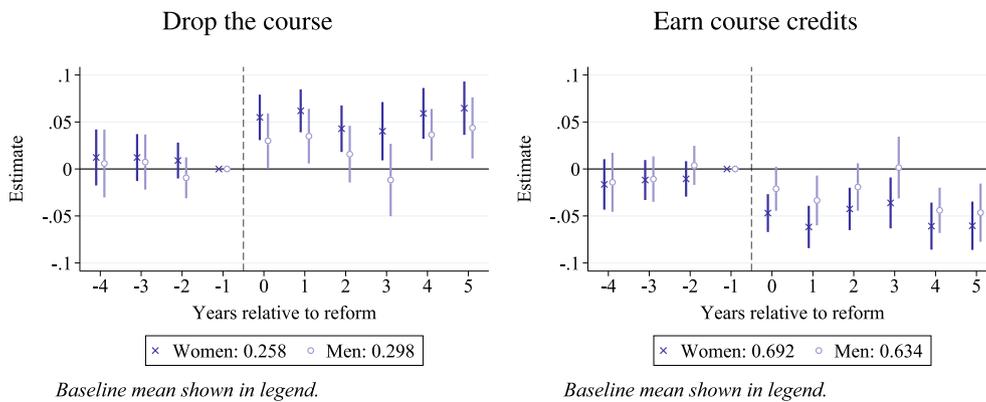


Fig. A.7. Heterogeneity analyses by student characteristics. Notes: The dashed vertical line corresponds to the introduction of the AEI. Vertical bars represent 95% confidence intervals with standard errors clustered at the municipal level. In panel (A), a student is defined as having a high-educated parents if either parent has at least one year of post-secondary education.

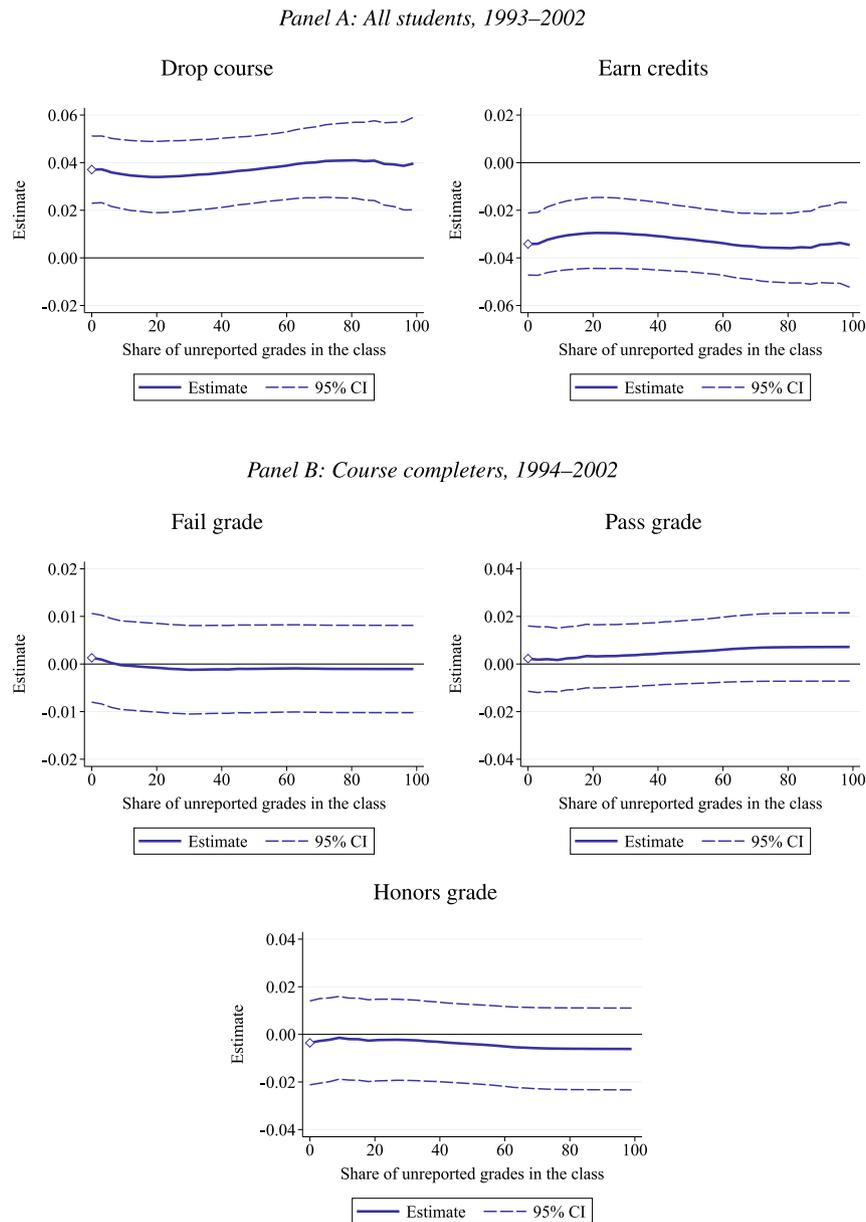


Fig. A.8. Sensitivity of the main estimates to the inclusion of courses with different shares of unreported grades. *Notes:* The plots show how the main estimates change when I relax the sample restriction in which I drop all courses with unreported grades. The leftmost point marked with a diamond corresponds to the main estimate, and the further to the right along the horizontal axis, the higher the share of unreported course grades permitted for an observation to be included in the estimation. If someone has a missing grade, I treat them as a dropout in panel (A).

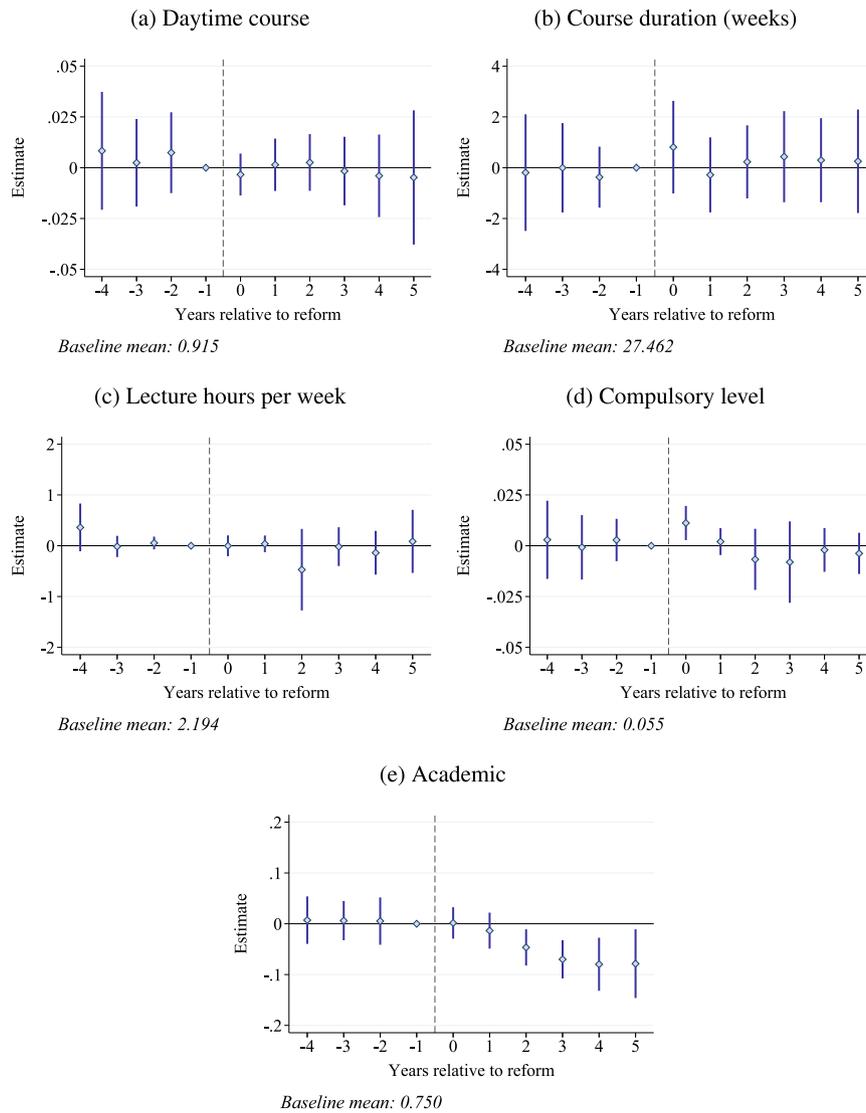


Fig. A.9. Dynamic difference-in-differences estimates for course characteristics. Notes: The vertical line indicates the introduction of the AEI. Vertical bars represent 95% confidence intervals with standard errors clustered at the municipal level. Students appear once per registered course attempt.

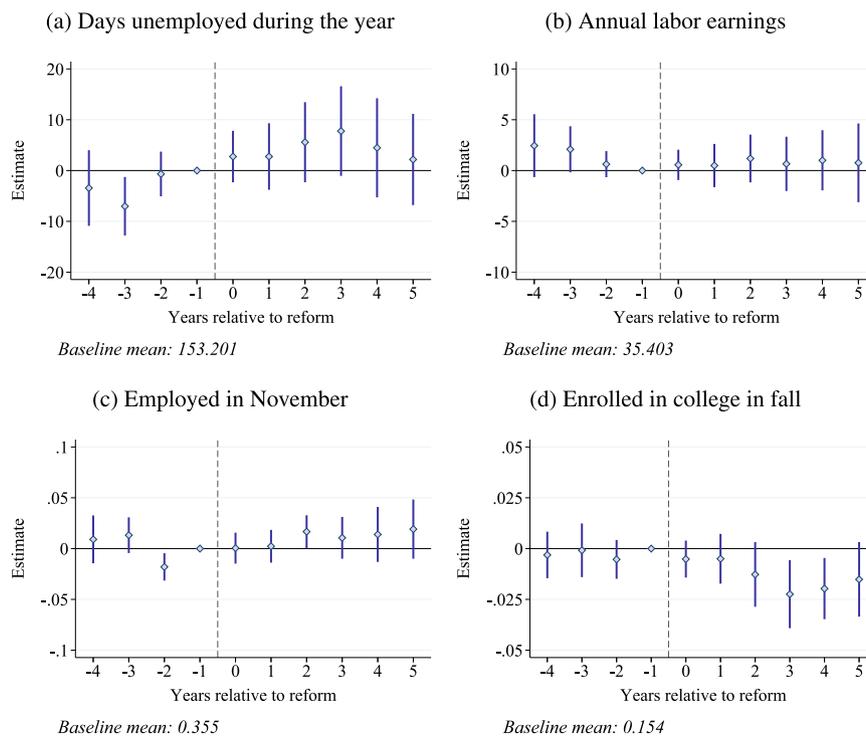


Fig. A.10. Dynamic difference-in-differences estimates for work and study situation one year after course start. *Notes:* The vertical line indicates the introduction of the AEI. Students appear once for every school year that they are registered in municipal adult education.

Table A.1
Descriptive statistics for the estimation sample.

	Pre-reform		Post-reform	
	Higher expansion	Lower expansion	Higher expansion	Lower expansion
Age	21.225 (1.739)	21.337 (1.705)	21.271 (1.627)	21.365 (1.611)
Female	0.587	0.595	0.587	0.580
Married	0.042	0.040	0.038	0.038
Lives with children under age seven	0.104	0.090	0.096	0.075
Born in Sweden	0.869	0.848	0.850	0.828
Swedish-born mother	0.792	0.764	0.766	0.725
Swedish-born father	0.784	0.751	0.759	0.712
Mother's years of education	10.750 (2.445)	11.145 (2.575)	10.867 (2.348)	11.291 (2.526)
Father's years of education	10.621 (2.722)	11.082 (2.915)	10.815 (2.600)	11.309 (2.847)
Not a graduate of high school	0.291	0.294	0.337	0.331
Graduate of academic track	0.325	0.362	0.292	0.349
Graduate of vocational track	0.384	0.344	0.371	0.320
High school GPA	-0.261 (0.873)	-0.211 (0.881)	-0.407 (0.867)	-0.335 (0.875)
Compulsory school GPA	-0.186 (0.836)	-0.123 (0.826)	-0.273 (0.891)	-0.152 (0.859)
Missing compulsory school GPA	0.088	0.107	0.070	0.079
Number of observations	444,636	655,369	918,213	1,222,230

Notes: Students appear in the sample once per registered course attempt. Pre-reform data covers years 1993–1996, and post-reform data covers years 1997–2002. Higher-expansion regions are those that experienced above-median enrollment shocks during the AEI, and lower-expansion regions are those that experienced below-median enrollment shocks. Standard deviations are shown in parentheses for continuous variables; all other characteristics are binary indicators. Grade point averages (GPAs) are standardized. High school GPA is missing for everyone who is not a high school graduate.

Table A.2
Characteristics of higher- and lower-expansion municipalities in 1996.

	Higher expansion	Lower expansion	Difference	P-value
<i>A. Demographics and other characteristics</i>				
Log population density	2.958	3.746	-0.788	0.000
Percent working-age residents	61.160	62.740	-1.581	0.000
Percent female, age 16–64	48.396	48.764	-0.368	0.001
Percent Swedish citizens, age 16–64	95.213	94.770	0.442	0.226
Percent with <3 years of high school education, age 16–64	69.602	64.307	5.295	0.000
Percent with <3 years of high school education, age 18–24	48.573	46.436	2.137	0.003
Percent with <3 years of high school education, age 25–55	69.407	63.452	5.955	0.000
Percent employed, age 16–64	67.058	70.184	-3.126	0.000
Percent employed, age 18–24	43.692	46.089	-2.397	0.001
Percent employed, age 25–55	78.003	80.778	-2.775	0.000
Annual labor earnings (thousands of SEK), age 16–64	147.821	156.372	-8.551	0.000
Annual labor earnings (thousands of SEK), age 18–24	54.500	57.310	-2.811	0.008
Annual labor earnings (thousands of SEK), age 25–55	135.524	148.649	-13.125	0.000
Compulsory school GPA (standardized), graduation cohort	-0.060	0.006	-0.066	0.000
Compulsory school GPA (standardized), age 18–24	-0.161	-0.073	-0.088	0.000
Percent left-wing seats in municipal council	58.682	51.935	6.746	0.000
<i>B. Percent of the working population by industry of employment</i>				
Agriculture, forestry, and fishing	4.341	3.418	0.924	0.004
Mining and manufacturing	24.978	23.893	1.086	0.317
Construction	6.583	6.116	0.468	0.008
Wholesale and retail trade	10.246	11.803	-1.557	0.000
Accommodation and food services	2.392	2.539	-0.147	0.311
Transport and storage	6.051	6.284	-0.232	0.319
Financial intermediation, real estate, and business activities	7.650	9.826	-2.177	0.000
Public administration, education, health, and social work	33.343	31.733	1.610	0.006
Community and personal services	4.414	4.384	0.030	0.809
Number of observations	143	143	286	

Notes: All characteristics are measured in 1996, the year prior to the introduction of the AEI. Each municipality is weighted equally in the average, regardless of population size. The last column reports the p-value from a test of the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the average for the higher-expansion and lower-expansion regions. There is no data on compulsory school GPA for people born before the 1970s, and thus, I cannot show averages for people aged 25–55.

Table A.3
Relationship between baseline municipality characteristics and expansion measure.

	Correlation	P-value
<i>A. Demographics & other characteristics</i>		
Log population density	-0.359	0.000
Percent working-age residents	-0.292	0.000
Percent female, age 16–64	-0.239	0.000
Percent Swedish citizens, age 16–64	0.135	0.023
Percent with <3 years of high school education, age 16–64	0.358	0.000
Percent with <3 years of high school education, age 18–24	0.273	0.000
Percent with <3 years of high school education, age 25–55	0.356	0.000
Percent employed, age 16–64	-0.385	0.000
Percent employed, age 18–24	-0.100	0.091
Percent employed, age 25–55	-0.369	0.000
Annual labor earnings (thousands of SEK), age 16–64	-0.299	0.000
Annual labor earnings (thousands of SEK), age 18–24	-0.099	0.096
Annual labor earnings (thousands of SEK), age 25–55	-0.393	0.000
Compulsory school GPA (standardized), graduating cohort	-0.158	0.008
Compulsory school GPA (standardized), age 18–24	-0.220	0.000
Percent left-wing seats in municipal council	0.321	0.000
<i>B. Percent of the working population by industry of employment</i>		
Agriculture, forestry, and fishing	0.206	0.000
Mining and manufacturing	0.048	0.419
Construction	0.154	0.009
Wholesale and retail trade	-0.289	0.000
Accommodation and food services	0.057	0.335
Transport and storage	-0.062	0.298
Financial intermediation, real estate, and business activities	-0.298	0.000
Public administration, education, health, and social work	0.150	0.011
Community and personal services	0.119	0.045
Number of observations: 286 municipalities		

Notes: This table shows the bivariate correlation between each municipality characteristic listed in the first column and the continuous measurement of enrollment expansion defined in Eq. (1). The last column reports the p-value from a test of the null hypothesis that there is no significant correlation between the given characteristic and the expansion measure.

Table A.4
Robustness checks for effects on student outcomes.

	Drop course (1)	Earn credit (2)
A. Main difference-in-differences specification	0.0371 (0.0072)***	-0.0342 (0.0066)***
B. Excluding vector of individual control variables	0.0367 (0.0073)***	-0.0335 (0.0071)***
C. Controlling for compulsory school GPA and dummy if missing	0.0341 (0.0072)***	-0.0300 (0.0066)***
D. Controlling for compulsory school GPA and dropping if missing	0.0366 (0.0074)***	-0.0336 (0.0068)***
E. Compulsory school GPA interacted with year fixed effects	0.0382 (0.0075)***	-0.0355 (0.0070)***
F. Baseline municipal characteristics interacted with year fixed effects	0.0305 (0.0102)***	-0.0213 (0.0093)***
G. Using a continuous measure of treatment intensity	0.0176 (0.0022)***	-0.0176 (0.0018)***
H. Defining treatment by enrollment shock through 1998/99	0.0282 (0.0076)***	-0.0276 (0.0070)***
I. Assigning treatment by municipality of residence in 1993	0.0260 (0.0064)***	-0.0240 (0.0060)***
J. Dropping course repeaters from the sample	0.0354 (0.0076)***	-0.0323 (0.0071)***

Notes: In panel (F), I interact the school-year fixed effects with the baseline municipality characteristics listed in Table A.2. In panel (G), the continuous variable used to measure treatment intensity ranges from -0.77 to 17.49, with a median of 2.11. Standard errors are clustered at the municipal level. Stars denote significance levels: *** for $p < 0.01$, ** for $p < 0.05$, and * for $p < 0.10$.

Appendix B + C. Supplementary material

Supplementary material related to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econedurev.2023.102441>.

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