

Effective Programs in Elementary Mathematics:

A Meta-Analysis

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Abstract

This article reviews research on the achievement outcomes of elementary mathematics programs. 87 rigorous experimental studies evaluated 66 programs in grades K-5. Programs were organized in 6 categories. Particularly positive outcomes were found for tutoring programs ($ES=+0.20$, $k=22$). Positive outcomes were also seen in studies focused on professional development for classroom organization and management (e.g., cooperative learning) ($ES=+0.19$, $k=7$). Professional development approaches focused on helping teachers gain in understanding of mathematics content and pedagogy had little impact on student achievement. Professional development intended to help in the adoption of new curricula had a small but significant impact for traditional (non-digital) curricula ($ES=+0.12$, $k=7$), but not for digital curricula. Traditional and digital curricula with limited professional development, as well as benchmark assessment programs, found few positive effects.

Effective Programs in Elementary Mathematics: A Meta-Analysis

In recent years, there has been an increasing emphasis on the identification and dissemination of programs proven in rigorous experiments. This emphasis has been clear in federal funding for educational research, especially at the Institute for Educational Sciences (IES), Education Innovation Research (EIR), and the National Science Foundation (NSF). The establishment of the What Works Clearinghouse (WWC) has helped establish standards of evidence and has disseminated information on the evidence base for educational programs. In England the Education Endowment Foundation has similarly supported rigorous research in education. In 2015, the Every Student Succeeds Act defined, for the first time, criteria for the effectiveness of educational programs. ESSA places particular emphasis on three top levels of evidence: strong (statistically significant positive effects in at least one randomized experiment), moderate (statistically significant positive effects in at least one quasi-experiment), and promising (statistically significant positive effects in at least one correlational study). ESSA encourages use of programs meeting these criteria, and requires schools seeking school improvement funding to adopt programs meeting one of these criteria.

One of the subjects most affected by the evidence movement in education is mathematics, because there is more rigorous research in mathematics than in any other subject except reading. The rapid expansion in numbers and quality of studies of educational programs has provided a far stronger basis for evidence-informed practice in mathematics than once existed.

The advances in research have been noted in reviews, cited later in this article. However, the great majority of reviews have focused only on particular approaches or subpopulations, using diverse review methods. This makes it difficult to compare alternative approaches on a

consistent basis, to understand the relative impacts of different programs. The most recent meta-analyses to systematically review research on all types of approaches to mathematics instruction were a review of elementary mathematics programs by Slavin & Lake (2008) and one by Jacobse & Harscamp (2011). A meta-analysis of all secondary mathematics programs was published by Slavin, Lake, & Groff (2009).

The present article updates the Slavin & Lake (2008) review of elementary mathematics, incorporating all rigorous evaluations of programs intended to improve mathematics achievement in grades K-5. The review uses more rigorous selection criteria than would have been possible in 2008, and uses current methods for meta-analysis and meta-regression, to compare individual programs and categories of programs, as well as key mediators, on a consistent basis.

Need for This Review

Two reviews considering all elementary mathematics programs have been published since 2008. Slavin & Lake (2008) identified 87 qualifying studies of outcomes of elementary mathematics programs and concluded that mathematics programs that incorporate cooperative learning, classroom management, and tutoring had the most positive effects on mathematics achievement. Another review of experimental studies by Jacobse and Harskamp (2011) examined the impact of mathematics interventions in grades K-6 and identified forty studies. The authors reported that small group or individual interventions had greater effects on mathematics achievement than did whole-class programs.

An important contribution of the present review is its focus on coherent categories of mathematics interventions. Most previous reviews of mathematics interventions have focused

on variables rather than programs or categories of similar programs (e.g., Gersten et al., 2014; Lynch, Hill, Gonzales, & Pollard, 2019). Yet to inform practice in elementary mathematics, it is important to identify specific effective programs and categories of programs, because this is how educators and policymakers interested in evidence-based reform make choices (Morrison, Ross, & Cheung, 2019). For example, the 2015 Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) defines *program* effectiveness, and the What Works Clearinghouse (WWC) (2020) is similarly focused on evaluating evidence for *programs*, not variables.

The importance of program categories stems from the importance of programs. A daunting problem in evidence-based reform in education is that few programs are supported by large numbers of rigorous studies. The vast majority of practical programs with any rigorous evidence of effectiveness at all have just one or two studies that would meet modern standards. If there are several similar programs that also find positive impacts in rigorous experiments, this may buttress the claims of effectiveness for all of them. On the contrary, if a given program shows positive impacts in a single rigorous experiment, but other equally rigorous studies of similar programs do not, this should cause educators and researchers to place less confidence in the one study's findings.

In the present meta-analysis, we included all studies that met a stringent set of inclusion criteria, regardless of the type of program used. We then grouped the programs into six mutually exclusive categories. These are described in detail later in this article, but in brief, the categories are as follows:

1. Tutoring (e.g., one-to-one or one-to-small group instruction in mathematics)
2. Professional development focused on mathematics content and pedagogy (at least two days or 15 hours)

3. Professional development (at least two days or 15 hours) focused on classroom organization and management (e.g., cooperative learning in mathematics)
4. Professional development focused on implementation of traditional (non-digital) and digital curricula (at least two days or 15 hours)
5. Traditional and digital curricula with limited professional development (less than two days or 15 hours)
6. Benchmark assessments

A major feature of the present review is its use of modern approaches to meta-analysis and meta-regression that enable researchers to control effects of programs, categories and variables for substantive and methodological factors, and to obtain meaningful estimates for key moderators (see Borenstein et al., 2009, 2017; Lipsey, 2019; Piggott & Polanin, 2020; Valentine, 2019).

Another important contribution of the present meta-analysis is its use of stringent inclusion standards, similar to those of the What Works Clearinghouse (2020). For example, the review of research on elementary mathematics programs by Slavin & Lake (2008), mentioned earlier, required that studies use random assignment or quasi-experimental designs, excluded measures over-aligned with the treatment, and required a minimum duration of 12 weeks and a minimum sample size of 30 students in each treatment group. This review found positive effects for professional development approaches, such as cooperative learning, mastery learning, and classroom organization and management, which had a mean effect size of +0.33 ($k=36$). Technology-focused programs had a mean effect size of +0.19 ($k=38$), and curriculum approaches (mostly textbooks) had a mean effect size of +0.10 ($k=13$). These effect sizes are in a range similar to those reported by What Works Clearinghouse (2013) studies of K-12 mathematics. The Lynch et al. (2019) review used similar inclusion standards, and reported an overall impact on mathematics

learning of +0.27. Yet other reviews of mathematics interventions find much larger overall impacts. This is due to their inclusion of studies with design features known to significantly inflate effect sizes. For example, the third meta-analysis to include all studies of elementary mathematics, Jacobse & Harscamp (2011), reported an average effect size of +0.58, about twice the size of the Slavin & Lake (2008) and Lynch et al. (2019) mean effect sizes. They noted that the review studies using non-standardized measures obtained significantly larger effect sizes than those using standardized measures, yet they did not control for this difference, known from other research (e.g., Cheung & Slavin, 2016) to be a powerful methodological factor in achievement effect sizes.

In recent years, research has established the substantial inflationary bias in effect size estimates introduced by certain research design elements. Particularly important sources of bias include small sample size, very brief duration, use of researchers rather than school staff to deliver experimental programs, and use of measures made by developers and researchers (Cheung & Slavin, 2016; deBoer, Donker, & van der Werf, 2014; Wolf et al., 2019).

The problem is that despite convincing demonstrations of the biasing impact of these factors, most reviews of research do not exclude or control for studies that contain factors known to substantially and spuriously inflate effect sizes. As a result, meta-analyses often report effect sizes that are implausibly large. As a point of reference, a study by Torgerson et al. (2013) found an effect size of +0.33, the highest for one-to-one tutoring in mathematics by certified teachers in the current review. How could studies of far less intensive treatments produce much larger effects than one-to-one tutoring?

As one example, a review of research on intelligent tutoring systems by Kulik & Fletcher (2016), mostly in mathematics, reported an implausible effect size of +0.66. The review had a minimum duration requirement of only 30 minutes. The review reported substantial impacts of

“local” (presumably researcher-made) vs. standardized measures, with means of +0.73 and +0.13, respectively. It reported effect sizes of +0.78 for sample sizes less than 80, and +0.30 for sample sizes over 250. Individual included studies with very low sample sizes reported remarkable (and implausible) effect sizes. A 50-minute study involving 48 students had an effect size on local measures of +0.95. Another, with 30 students and a duration of one hour, found an effect size of +0.78. A third, with 30 students and a duration of 80 minutes, reported an effect size of +1.17. Yet in its overall conclusions, Kulik & Fletcher (2016) did not exclude or control for inclusion of very small or very brief studies or inclusion of “locally developed” measures, and did not weight for sample size. In a separate analysis, the review reported on 15 mostly large, long-term studies of a secondary technology program called Cognitive Tutor, showing effect sizes of +0.86 on “locally developed” measures and +0.16 on standardized measures, but simply averaged these to report an effect size of +0.45, an implausibly large impact. As a point of comparison, the What Works Clearinghouse, which uses inclusion criteria similar to those used by Slavin & Lake (2008) and Lynch et al. (2019), accepted five studies of Cognitive Tutor Algebra I, which had a median effect size of +0.08, and one of Cognitive Tutor Geometry with an effect size of -0.19.

As another example, Lein, Jitendra, and Harwell (2020), in a review of research on word problem solving interventions, reported mean effect sizes of +0.68 for researcher-made measures, compared to +0.09 for norm-referenced measures. They also reported a mean of +0.71 for interventions delivered by researchers, compared to +0.28 for those delivered by school staff. Yet the review did not control for these or other likely biasing factors, and reported an implausible mean effect size of +0.56.

In the present meta-analysis, we used inclusion criteria more stringent than those used by the WWC or by Slavin & Lake (2008) or Lynch et al. (2019), and substantially more stringent than

those of the great majority of reviews of studies of mathematics programs. We excluded all measures made by developers or researchers, post-hoc quasi-experiments, very small and very brief studies, and those in which researchers, rather than staff unaffiliated with the research taught the experimental program. We also weighted studies by their sample sizes (using inverse variance) in computing mean effect sizes. Then we statistically controlled for relevant methodological and substantive moderators. These methods are described later in this article.

The importance of these procedures should be clear. Whatever outcomes are reported for studies included in the present meta-analysis, readers should be able to be confident that these outcomes are due to the actual likely effectiveness of the interventions, not to methodological or substantive factors that are known to bias effect size estimates from extensive prior research. Failing to exclude or control for these factors not only spuriously inflates reported effect sizes, but it also confounds comparisons of effect sizes within reviews, as a program's large effect size could be due to use of study features known to inflate effect sizes in the studies evaluating it, rather than to any actual greater benefit for students.

The inclusion of studies with certain study features not only risks substantial inflation of mean effect sizes, but also may undermine the relevance of the study for practice. A study of 30 minutes' duration, one that has a sample size of 14, one that uses researchers rather than school staff to deliver the intervention, or one that uses outcome measures created by developers or researchers, is of little value to teachers or students, because educators need information on what works over significant time periods, is implemented by school staff, and is evaluated using universally accepted assessments, not ones they themselves made up.

Methods

Inclusion Criteria

The review used rigorous inclusion criteria designed to minimize bias and provide educators and researchers with reliable information on programs' effectiveness. The inclusion criteria are similar to those of the What Works Clearinghouse (WWC, 2020), with a few exceptions noted below. A PRISMA flow chart (Figure 1) shows the numbers of studies initially found and the numbers winnowed out at each stage of the review. Inclusion criteria were as follows:

1. Studies had to evaluate student mathematics outcomes of programs intended to improve mathematics achievement in elementary schools, grades K-5. Sixth graders were also included if they were in elementary schools. Students who qualified for special education services but attended mainstream mathematics classes were included.
2. Studies had to use experimental methods with random assignment to treatment and control conditions, or quasi-experimental (matched) methods in which treatment assignments were specified in advance. Studies that matched a control group to the treatment group after posttest outcomes were known (post-hoc quasi-experiments or ex post facto designs) were not included.
3. Studies had to compare experimental groups using a given program to control groups using an alternative program already in place, or "business-as-usual".
4. Studies of evaluated programs had to be delivered by school staff unaffiliated with the research, not by the program developers, researchers, or their graduate students. This is particularly important for relevance to practice.
5. Studies had to provide pretest data. If the pretest differences between experimental and control groups were greater than 25% of a standard deviation, the study was excluded. Pretest equivalence had to be acceptable both initially and based on pretests for the

final sample, after attrition. Studies with differential attrition between experimental and control groups of more than 15% were excluded.

6. Studies' dependent measures had to be quantitative measures of mathematics performance.
7. Assessments made by program developers or researchers were excluded. The WWC (2020) excludes "over-aligned" measures, but not measures made by developers or researchers. The rationale for this exclusion in the current review is that studies have shown that developer/researcher-made measures overstate program outcomes, with about twice the effect sizes of independent measures on average, even within the same studies (Cheung & Slavin, 2016; de Boer et al., 2014; Gersten et al., 2009; Kulik & Fletcher, 2016; Lein et al. 2020; Lynch et al., 2019; Nelson & McMaster, 2019). Results from developer- or researcher-made measures may be valuable to researchers or theorists, and there are situations in which independent measures do not exist. However, such findings should only be supplemental information, not reported as outcomes of the practical impact of treatments.
8. Studies had to have a minimum duration of 12 weeks, to establish that effective programs could be replicated over extended periods. Also, very brief studies have been found to inflate effect sizes (e.g., Gersten et al., 2014; Kulik & Fletcher, 2016; Nelson & McMaster, 2019).
9. Studies could have taken place in the U.S. or in similar countries: Europe, Israel, Australia, or New Zealand. However, the report had to be available in English. In practice, all qualifying studies took place in the U.S., U.K., Canada, the Netherlands, and Germany.

10. Studies had to have been carried out from 1990 through 2020, but for technology a start date of 2000 was used, due to the significant advances in technology since that date.

Literature Search and Selection Procedures

A broad literature search was carried out in an attempt to locate every study that might meet the inclusion requirements. Then studies were screened to determine whether they were eligible for review using a multi-step process that included (a) an electronic database search, (b) a hand search of key peer-reviewed journals, (c) an ancestral search of recent meta-analyses, (d) a web-based search of educational research sites and educational publishers' sites, and (e) a final review of citations found in relevant documents retrieved from the first search wave.

First, electronic searches were conducted in educational databases (JSTOR, ERIC, EBSCO, PsycINFO, ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global) using different combinations of key words (e.g., “elementary students,” “mathematics,” “achievement,” “effectiveness,” “RCT,” “QED”). We also reviewed studies accepted by the What Works Clearinghouse, and searched in recent tables of contents of eight key mathematics and general educational journals from 2013 to 2020: *American Educational Research Journal*, *Educational Research Review*, *Elementary School Journal*, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *Journal of Research on Educational Effectiveness*, *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education*, *Learning and Instruction*, and *Review of Educational Research*. We investigated citations from previous reviews of elementary mathematics programs (e.g., Dietrichson, Bøg, Filges, & Klint Jørgensen, 2017; Gersten et al., 2014; Jacobse & Harskamp, 2011; Kulik & Fletcher, 2016; Li & Ma, 2010; Lynch et al., 2019; Nelson et al., 2019; Savelsbergh et al., 2016).

We were particularly careful to be sure we found unpublished as well as published studies, because of the known effects of publication bias in research reviews (Cheung & Slavin, 2016;

Chow & Ekholm, 2018; Polanin, Tanner-Smith, & Hennessy, 2016). Finally, we reviewed citations of documents retrieved from the first wave to search for any other studies of interest.

A first screen of each study was carried out by examining the title and abstract using inclusion criteria. Studies that could not be eliminated in the screening phase were located and the full text was read by one of the authors of the current study. We further examined the studies that were believed to meet the inclusion criteria and those where inclusion was possible but not clear. All of these studies were examined by a second author to determine whether they met the inclusion criteria. When the two authors were in disagreement, the inclusion or exclusion of the study was discussed with a third author until consensus was reached.

Initial searching identified 18,646 potential studies. After removing 4,157 duplicate records, these search strategies yielded 14,489 studies for screening. The screening phase eliminated 13,366 studies, leaving 1,123 full-text articles to be assessed for eligibility. Of these full-text articles that were reviewed, 1,039 studies did not meet the inclusion criteria, leaving 84 contributions included in this review, with two studies including multiples interventions for a total number of 87 studies (see Figure 1).

Coding

Studies that met the inclusion criteria were coded by one of the authors of the review. Then codes were verified by another author. As for the inclusion of the studies, disagreements were discussed with a third author until consensus was reached.

Data coded included: program components, publication status, year of publication, study design, study duration, sample size, grade level, participant characteristics, outcome measures, and effect sizes.

We also identified variables that could possibly moderate the effects in the review distinguishing between substantive factors and methodological factors. Substantive factors are related to the intervention and the population characteristics. The factors coded were grade level (K-2 vs. 3-6), student achievement levels (low achievers vs. average/high achievers), socio-economic status (low SES vs. moderate/high SES), and study locations in the U.S. vs. other countries. Methodological factors included research design (quasi-experiments vs. randomized studies). For tutoring programs we also coded the group size (one-to-one vs. one-to-small group) and the type of provider (teacher, teaching assistant, paid volunteer, or unpaid volunteer). The coded data are available on GitHub (Pellegrini, Lake, Neitzel, & Slavin, 2020).

Effect Size Calculations and Statistical Procedures

Effect sizes were computed as the mean difference between the posttest scores for individual students in the experimental and control groups after adjustment for pretests and other covariates, divided by the unadjusted standard deviation of the control group's posttest scores. Procedures described by Lipsey and Wilson (2001) were used to estimate effect sizes when unadjusted standard deviations were not available.

Statistical significance is reported for each study using procedures from the What Works Clearinghouse (WWC, 2020). If assignment to the treatment and control groups was at the individual student level, statistical significance was determined by using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), controlling for pretests and other factors. If assignment to the treatment and control groups was at the cluster level (e.g., classes or schools), statistical significance was determined by using multilevel modeling such as Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM, Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Studies with cluster assignments that did not

use HLM or other multi-level modeling but used student-level analysis were re-analyzed to estimate significance with a formula provided by the WWC (2020) to account for clusters.

Mean effect sizes across studies were calculated after assigning each study a weight based on inverse variance (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001), with adjustments for clustered designs suggested by Hedges (2007). In combining across studies and in moderator analysis, we used random-effects models, as recommended by Borenstein et al. (2009).

Meta-regression

We used a multivariate meta-regression model with robust variance estimation (RVE) to conduct the meta-analysis (Hedges et al., 2010). This approach has several advantages. First, our data included multiple effect sizes per study, and robust variance estimation accounts for this dependence without requiring knowledge of the covariance structure (Hedges et al., 2010). Second, this approach allows for moderators to be added to the meta-regression model and calculates the statistical significance of each moderator in explaining variation in the effect sizes (Hedges et al., 2010). Tipton (2015) expanded this approach by adding a small-sample correction that prevents inflated Type I errors when the number of studies included in the meta-analysis is small or when the covariates are imbalanced. We estimated three meta-regression models. First, we estimated a null model to produce the average effect size without adjusting for any covariates. Second, we estimated a meta-regression model with the identified moderators of interest and covariates. Third, we estimated an exploratory meta-regression model which added tutoring provider as a moderator. Due to the small sample size, this model is considered exploratory and results of statistical tests such as p-values are not reported. All moderators and covariates were grand-mean centered to facilitate interpretation of the intercept. All reported mean effect sizes come from this meta-regression model, which adjusts for potential moderators

and covariates. The packages *metafor* (Viechtbauer, 2010) and *clubSandwich* (Pustejovsky, 2020) were used to estimate all random-effects models with RVE in the R statistical software (R Core Team, 2020).

Categories of Mathematics Programs

Studies that met the inclusion criteria were divided into categories according to the main and most distinctive components of the programs. Category assignments were based on independent readings of articles and websites by the authors. All authors read all accepted studies, and if there were disagreements about categorizations they were debated and determined by consensus among all authors. The categories and their theoretical rationales were as follows.

1. Tutoring. Tutoring refers to one-to-one or one-to-small group instruction intended to help students struggling in mathematics. The theoretical base for tutoring draws on research in reading, which has long made extensive use of one-to-one and small group tutoring (see, for example, Elbaum et al., 2000; Gersten et al., 2020; Slavin, Lake, Davis, & Madden, 2011; Wanzek et al., 2016) as well as in mathematics (e.g., Fuchs et al., 2013b, 2016a; Jacobse & Harskamp, 2011; Nelson & McMaster, 2019). Tutoring may involve one teacher or one teaching assistant (paraprofessional) with one student, or one teacher or teaching assistant with a very small group of students, usually from two to six at a time.

There are several ways in which tutoring is likely to improve student mathematics outcomes. First, tutoring (especially one-to-one) permits tutors to substantially adapt their instruction to the needs of the student(s). Tutoring programs in mathematics generally provide well-structured, sequential materials for students, but tutors are trained to explain and demonstrate concepts for students who are struggling with it. Tutors are trained to start with struggling students where they are and move them forward rapidly. They are able to explain and model

mathematical concepts and processes, observe how students are working, and give them personalized feedback and encouragement. Tutors can enable students to work in small steps, experiencing success at each step. Further, tutors are likely to be able to build close personal relationships with tutored student(s), giving them attention and praise that many students crave, and enhancing their motivation as students seek to please a valued adult. Previous reviews of research on elementary mathematics approaches have found that tutoring is among the most effective of all interventions for students struggling in mathematics (e.g., Jacobse & Harskamp, 2011; Slavin & Lake, 2008).

2. Professional Development Focused on Mathematics Content and Pedagogy.

Interventions in this category provide intensive content-focused professional development (PD) intended to advance teachers' understanding of current standards-based content and effective pedagogy (teaching methods). To be included in this category, PD had to be provided for at least two days or 15 hours. This category of strategies emphasizes giving teachers knowledge about mathematics content and about ways of explaining it (Desimone, 2009; Desimone & Garet, 2015; Kennedy, 2014; Penuel et al., 2011). Ideally, such approaches emphasize *mathematics content, active learning, coherence, sustained duration, and collective participation* to help teachers learn and apply to their teaching new understandings of mathematics content and mathematics-specific pedagogy (Desimone, 2009; Desimone & Garet, 2015; Kennedy, 2014; Penuel et al., 2011). Almost all of these professional development programs (as well as those in Categories 3, 4, and 5) provided some degree of on-site coaching to follow up after initial training. Coaching has been found to be an effective component of PD in mathematics (Kraft, Blazar, & Hogan, 2018).

3. Professional Development Focused on Classroom Organization and Management.

This mathematics-specific category includes programs that provide teachers with professional development and materials to help them implement innovations in classroom organization and management, such as cooperative learning (e.g., Slavin, 2017) and classwide behavior approaches (e.g., Weis et al., 2015). This category had the highest effect size ($ES=+0.33$, $k=36$) of any category in the Slavin & Lake (2008) meta-analysis. Previous research on cooperative learning has shown positive effects on mathematics and other subjects (e.g., Rohrbeck et al., 2003; Webb, 2008).

4. Professional Development Focused on Implementation of Traditional and Digital Curricula. Interventions in this category provide teachers with moderate to extensive professional development (at least two days or 15 hours, combining training and follow-up coaching) to support informed, thoughtful implementation of innovative traditional (i.e., non-digital) or digital curricula for students. There were two subcategories: a) Professional Development Focused on Implementation of Traditional Curricula, with minimal use of technology, and b) Professional Development Focused on Implementation of Digital Curricula, such as computer-assisted instruction.

5. Traditional and Digital Curricula With Limited Professional Development includes two subcategories: a) Traditional (i.e., non-digital) curricula (textbooks with associated teaching materials), and b) Digital curricula for students. Limited professional development (less than two days or 15 hours) was provided in such strategies.

6. Benchmark Assessments consist of tests given periodically (three to five times a year) to find out how students are proceeding toward success on state standards. The rationale is to give teachers and school leaders early information on student performance so they can

make changes well before state testing (e.g., Konstantopolous, Miller, van der Ploeg, & Li, 2016).

Results

A total of 87 studies evaluating 66 programs met the inclusion standards of this review. The studies included were of high methodological quality: 74 (85%) of the studies were randomized trials and 13 (15%) were quasi-experimental studies. Also, 75 (86%) of the studies were reported in 2010 or later, indicating the extraordinary pace at which rigorous studies of elementary mathematics are appearing. Only four of the studies included in the current review overlapped those cited by Slavin & Lake (2008). Studies cited in 2008 but not in the current article were released before 1990, or did not meet the much more stringent inclusion requirements of the current synthesis.

Table 1 shows the meta-regression outcomes. The full model controlled for program category and subcategory, research design, grade level, student achievement level, SES, U.S. vs. other countries, and tutoring group size. Table 2 shows adjusted means for each category and subcategory. Tables 3 to 8 summarize the main characteristics and outcomes of the individual studies, grouping them by category, and Table 9 shows effects of moderators. Across all included studies of programs on elementary mathematics, we found an average weighted effect size of +0.09, $p < .01$ ($k = 87$), with outcomes that vary substantially among different categories.

Tutoring Programs

Twenty-two studies evaluated tutoring programs. Combining all forms of tutoring, the mean effect size was +0.20, $p < .01$ ($k = 22$). Table 3 shows the tutoring programs, study details, and findings. Eight of these evaluated face-to-face, one-to-one tutoring. An additional

study evaluated one-to-one tutoring from tutors in India or Sri Lanka delivered online to students in the U.K., and another evaluated cross-age peer tutoring. These two approaches were so different from other tutoring models and had such limited evidence (one study each) that they are not averaged with the others. Fourteen studies evaluated programs taught by tutors to small groups. Overall, the weighted mean effect size for one-to-one face-to-face tutoring was $+0.19$, $p < .01$ ($k = 8$), while the single study of one-to-one online tutoring program had an effect size of -0.03 and the one study of cross-age peer tutoring had an effect size of $+0.02$. One-to-one tutoring by certified teachers ($ES = +0.22$, $k = 2$), and by teaching assistants ($ES = +0.16$, $k = 5$) were not significantly different from each other in the exploratory model. Teaching assistants were relatively well qualified (e.g., most had bachelor's degrees), and both certified teachers and teaching assistants used structured programs and received extensive professional development. One program used paid AmeriCorps volunteers¹ as tutors, and the effect size was $+0.20$.

Tutoring to small groups had an overall mean effect size of $+0.30$, $p < .01$, $k = 14$). Surprisingly, outcomes of one-to-small group tutoring using structured programs were (non-significantly) higher than those of one-to-one tutoring. The only one-to-small group program that used certified teachers ($ES = +0.36$, $k = 1$) was similar in outcomes to one-to-small group approaches that used teaching assistants as tutors ($ES = +0.30$, $p < .01$, $k = 13$). The numbers of studies in some categories of tutoring were small, so these findings must be interpreted with caution, but it is interesting that while all forms of face-to-face tutoring by paid adults had

¹ AmeriCorps is a U.S. program that recruits and trains volunteers to provide services (such as tutoring) to their communities. Volunteers receive stipends and educational benefits.

quite positive impacts on achievement, the outcomes were highest for one-to-small group approaches.

Professional Development Focused on Mathematics Content and Pedagogy

Ten studies evaluated ten programs focused on teacher professional development to improve teachers' knowledge of mathematics content and content-specific pedagogy. The programs use various types of support for teachers such as workshops, training, continuous professional development, in-school support, and coaching. They may focus on improving teachers' content knowledge, content-specific pedagogy, general pedagogy, or some combination of these. Table 4 shows the programs, study details, and outcomes. The adjusted mean effect size was +0.03, n.s. ($k = 10$) for all professional development programs focused on mathematics content and pedagogy.

Professional Development Focused on Classroom Organization and Management

Professional development approaches in this category focused on helping teachers use models such as cooperative learning and classroom management strategies (see Table 5). Across seven studies of six diverse programs, the average effect size for mathematics was +0.19, $p < .01$ ($k = 7$).

Professional Development Focused on Implementation of Traditional (non-digital) and Digital Curricula

Twelve studies evaluated 10 programs in which significant professional development supported the implementation of new curricula or software. Table 6 shows study details and outcomes. The mean effect size was +0.01, n.s. ($k = 12$). Effect sizes averaged +0.12, $p < .01$ ($k = 7$) for traditional (non-digital) curricula, but 0.00, n.s. ($k = 5$) for digital curricula.

Traditional and Digital Curricula With Limited Professional Development

Thirty studies evaluated 19 mathematics curricula, primarily traditional (non-digital) or digital textbooks with teacher materials and limited professional development. Study details and outcomes are summarized in Table 7. Across all qualifying studies, the adjusted mean effect size was +0.05, n.s. ($k = 30$). Fifteen studies of traditional curricula, mostly textbooks, found a mean effect size of +0.04, n.s. ($k = 15$), and 15 studies that evaluated digital curricula found a mean effect size of +0.08, $p < .01$ ($k = 15$).

Benchmark Assessments

Four studies evaluated three programs that use benchmark assessments, summarized in Table 8. The studies found a mean effect size of 0.00, n.s. ($k = 4$).

Moderator Analyses

Random-effects models were used to carry out moderator analyses, which identify substantive and methodological factors that contribute to positive outcomes (see Table 9). Moderator analyses including all studies were conducted. An exploratory model was used to examine the effect of tutoring provider, by adding it to all other identified moderators.

Research design. As reported in previous studies, effect sizes may vary according to research design. Cheung & Slavin (2016) and de Boer et al. (2014) found that quasi-experiments across all subjects and grade levels, PK-12, produce a significantly higher effect size than randomized studies, on average, although others, such as Lipsey & Wilson (2001), have not found this difference. In the present meta-analysis, differences in effect sizes between studies that used randomized designs ($ES = +0.08$, $p < .01$, $k = 74$) and studies that used quasi-experimental designs incorporating matching ($ES = +0.20$, $p < .01$, $k = 13$) were tested. This difference ($\beta = 0.12$) was significant ($p < .05$).

Grade levels. To determine if different grade levels may be a source of variation, we divided the study outcomes into those relating to grades K to 2 and those relating to grades 3 to 6. Many studies crossed this divide, so one study could contribute both a K-2 and a 3-5 effect size. The mean effect size for K-2 outcomes ($ES = +0.08, p < .01, n = 79$) was very similar to the mean effect size for 3-6 outcomes ($ES = +0.11, p < .01, n = 78$).

Student achievement level. Outcomes including all students had a mean effect size of $+0.08, p < .01 (n = 121)$. This was not significantly different from either outcomes for low achievers ($ES = +0.13, p < .01, n = 48$) or outcomes for moderate and high achievers ($ES = +0.06, p < .05, n = 15$).

Socio-economic status (SES). Study samples were defined as low-SES if the proportion of students receiving free or reduced-priced meals was at or above the 75th percentile of school rates of free- or reduced- price meals participation at the national level (76% for the U.S., 21% for England). Mean effect sizes for outcomes of mixed SES populations were $+0.10, p < .01 (n = 55)$. The mean effect size for low SES students was $+0.08, p < .05 (n = 56)$, and for moderate/high SES students it was $+0.10, p < .01 (n = 73)$. The differences between mixed and low SES students ($\beta = -0.01, n.s.$) and mixed and moderate/high SES students ($\beta = 0.01, n.s.$) were not statistically significant.

U.S. vs. Other Countries. Of the 87 qualifying studies, 65 took place in the U.S., 19 in England, one in the Netherlands, one in Germany, and one in Canada. Mean effect sizes were nearly identical for U.S. and non-U.S. studies: $+0.10, p < .01$ for U.S. ($k = 65$), $+0.08, p < .01$ for non-U.S. ($k = 22$). This difference ($\beta = -0.02, n.s.$) was not statistically significant.

Tutoring-Specific Moderators

Tutoring group size. The impacts of tutoring provided in a one-to-one format ($ES = +0.19$, $p < .01$, $k = 8$) were compared to those for tutoring provided in small-group settings ($ES = +0.30$, $p < .01$, $k = 13$). Outcomes were not significantly different ($\beta = 0.11$, n.s.).

Tutoring provider. Because there were small numbers of studies of tutoring with different providers, this moderator was explored in a separate exploratory model still containing all other moderators and covariates. The mean effect sizes for five different combinations of providers and group size (one or small group) are shown in Table 9 as an exploratory analysis, and statistical tests such as p values are not reported.

Among the tutoring studies, the outcomes of tutoring provided by teachers ($ES = +0.24$, $k = 3$) was similar to those of tutoring provided by teaching assistants ($ES = +0.18$, $k = 18$).

Discussion

This review of evaluations of elementary mathematics programs found 87 studies of very high methodological quality. The studies were mostly randomized and large-scale, increasing the likelihood that their findings will replicate in large-scale applications in practice. Strict inclusion criteria, plus controls for key moderators, made effect size estimates much lower than those in previous meta-analyses, but because of these procedures, the effect sizes are more realistic than were those in studies with less strict inclusion standards (e.g., Jacobse & Harscamp, 2014; Kulik & Fletcher, 2016; Slavin & Lake, 2008). Collectively, the studies found that it matters a great deal which programs and which types of programs elementary schools use to teach mathematics, especially for low-achieving students.

The findings of the current study provide some support for the conclusions of Lynch et al. (2019). Of course, the present study focused only on elementary mathematics, and Lynch et al.

addressed science as well as mathematics in grades pre-K to 12, so this is not a head-to-head comparison. But the relative outcomes are nevertheless interesting.

Both Lynch et al. (2019) and the present study found small, non-significant impacts for professional development services without a strong link to new curriculum, and both found small, non-significant impacts of implementation of traditional or digital curricula with a limited focus on professional development (less than two days or 15 hours). Lynch et al. found positive effects for strategies that focused professional development on the implementation of new curricula. The present study also found small but significant positive effects of strategies that devote extensive professional development to adoption of traditional (non-digital) curricula ($ES = +0.12, p < .01$), but found an effect size near zero for programs that provide extensive professional development to support use of digital curricula. The present meta-analysis also found significant positive effects of professional development to help teachers improve classroom organization and management ($ES = +0.19, p < .01, k=7$). Forms of cooperative learning were most common among such studies. The Lynch et al. (2019) meta-analysis did not identify a comparable category of professional development because its focus was on the interaction of professional development and curriculum.

The other category of approaches that had the largest and most robust impacts was tutoring. One-to-one tutoring by face-to-face adult tutors and one-to-small group tutoring were particularly effective. It was interesting to find that the effect size for one-to-small group tutoring ($ES = +0.30, p < .01, k = 14$) was larger than that for one-to-one ($ES = +0.19, p < .01, k = 8$), though this difference was not statistically significant. Similar findings were reported by Clarke et al. (2017). Teachers ($ES = +0.24, k = 3$) and teaching assistants ($ES = +0.18, k = 18$) appear equally effective as tutors, on average, but this result should be interpreted cautiously due to the small sample of teacher-tutor studies. In contrast, on-line tutors and cross-age peer tutors

did not show promising impacts. The findings suggesting that the least expensive tutoring format, one-to-small group tutoring by teaching assistants, was quite effective ($ES = +0.30$, $p < .01$, $k = 13$) suggests that this tutoring arrangement could be a very cost-effective service for students struggling in mathematics, and could therefore be practicably offered to larger numbers of students than has previously been thought possible.

Theorists have long assumed that tutoring works well because the tutor can substantially adapt to the learning needs of students (e.g., Elbaum, 2000). Yet digital curricula also emphasizes individualization, and effect sizes for all studies using digital curricula had effect sizes near zero (see Tables 6 and 7). However, the kind of individualization possible in one-to-one or one-to-small group tutoring is beyond what technology can provide. As in CAI, successful tutoring programs in mathematics generally provide structured, sequential content at students' individual levels, and allow students to proceed at their own pace. However, face-to-face tutors can also individualize by providing feedback, explanations, and demonstrations to help students understand key concepts and get past blockages and misconceptions. Also, it may be that tutoring, by providing struggling students with individual attention from caring tutors, may provide a motivational or social-emotional benefit that computers cannot, and students may be eager to please a valued adult. Research is needed to understand the effectiveness of tutoring, including qualitative and correlational as well as experimental methods.

The positive effects of professional development focused on classroom organization and management ($ES = +0.19$, $k = 7$) replicate findings from previous reviews, such as Slavin & Lake (2008) and Jacobse & Harscamp (2011), as well as a great deal of research on cooperative learning (e.g., Rohrbeck et al., 2003; Slavin, 2017; Webb, 2008).

Programs in the classroom organization and management category generally assign students to teams and encourage them to help one another learn and behave appropriately. Teams receive recognition or small privileges (such as lining up first for recess) if their members, on average, behaved appropriately and performed well on assessments. Professional development is focused on facilitating teamwork, mutual assistance, encouragement, and commitment to pro-social goals. All programs also focus on student success in mathematics. The success of this category of programs suggests that mathematics achievement may best be facilitated by enhancing motivation and making students active learners.

The discrepancy in outcomes was striking between studies of professional development focused on building teachers' knowledge of mathematics content and pedagogy and those of professional development focused on helping teachers implement innovations in classroom organization and management. One extraordinary example is a study of Intel Math (Garet et al., 2016), which provided 93 hours of in-service to teachers of grades K-8 to improve their understanding of mathematics content and pedagogy. A one-year cluster randomized evaluation with 165 teachers found small but significantly *negative* impacts on state tests ($ES = -0.06, p < .05$), and nearly identical but non-significant negative effects on NWEA Mathematics. Several studies found significant positive impacts on teachers' knowledge of mathematics, but this did not transfer to improvement in student achievement. Not one of the 10 studies of professional development methods focused on mathematics content and pedagogy achieved statistical significance in improving mathematics outcomes, and the mean was only +0.03. It is of course important for teachers to know and apply appropriate mathematics content and content-specific pedagogy, but perhaps this is not enough if the student experience is not fundamentally changed. Another possibility is that

teachers in the experimental and control groups already knew a great deal about mathematics content and pedagogy, so further professional development in these areas may not make much difference. Clearly, a deeper look into programs of this kind is warranted.

Studies of traditional and digital mathematics curricula with limited professional development found very small impacts (mean $ES = +0.05$, n.s., $k = 30$). Most of the mathematics curriculum studies just compared a new textbook or digital curriculum (and associated add-ons) to existing textbooks or software, so it is not surprising to see few differences in outcomes. Similarly, studies of benchmark assessments found a mean effect size of 0.00 ($k = 4$, n.s.).

One interesting finding from the present review relates to technology in mathematics education, which has been reviewed previously by Cheung & Slavin (2013); Higgins et al. (2019); Li & Ma (2010); and Savelsbergh et al. (2016). It is striking how weak the evidence base for technology is. The present research adds to the evidence on technology applications in several ways. First, the category of Professional Development Focused on the Implementation of Traditional and Digital Curricula had two subcategories, identifying programs with or without an emphasis on technology (see Table 6). Programs that provided extensive professional development to support traditional (non-digital) curricula, essentially textbooks, had a modest positive impact on mathematics achievement, averaging $ES = +0.12$ ($k=7$; $p<.05$). However, professional development supporting programs with a strong focus on technology had an average effect size of 0.00. Among programs with limited professional development, both traditional curricula ($ES = +0.04$) and digital curricula ($ES = +0.08$) had minimal effect sizes (see Table 7). Especially in mathematics, which seems to lend itself to technology more than

any other subject, to find so little evidence supporting the value-added of technology is disturbing.

One might ask whether the impacts of digital curricula are increasing over time. To test this, we computed mean unweighted effect sizes for studies reported in three five-year periods.

The results were as follows:

Period	No. of studies (k)	Mean effect size
2005-2009	4	+0.04
2010-2014	9	+0.07
2015-2019	7	+0.05

Clearly, efforts of digital curricula are not improving. Across the 20 studies of digital curricula, there were two with impressive, though not statistically significant impacts: One was a study of Time to Know by Rosen & Beck-Hill (2012), with an effect size of +0.31 (n.s.). The other was a study of Symphony Math, by Schwartz (2019), with an effect size of +0.30 (n.s.). These may indicate promise for the next generation of digital curriculum, but they are single studies with too few schools to achieve adequate power for statistical significance (meaning that these large impacts could be due to characteristics of a few schools rather than true effects of the programs).

Technology in education has long been expected to have revolutionary impacts on learning. Computer-assisted instruction was expected to be effective because it places students at their precise level of proficiency, so that they need not repeat content they already know, and it advances students at their own pace, so that they can never fall behind. The computer, it is said, is patient, giving students as much time as they need to master the content, but moving forward

rapidly if they are succeeding. The computer immediately provides answers, so students need not practice errors, but can correct themselves and move on. Every one of these points was made in a 1954 film that still exists on YouTube (“Teaching Machine and Programmed Learning”). Yet 67 years later, it is clear that technology programs based on these arguments, no matter how sensible they sound, have not transformed the outcomes of learning, not even in elementary mathematics (also not in elementary reading; see Neitzel et al., in press).

Across all approaches, effects were non-significantly larger for low achievers ($ES = +0.13$) than for others (moderate/high achievers: $ES = +0.06$, mixed achievers: $ES = +0.08$), suggesting that there may be many pragmatic methods of increasing means while narrowing gaps.

Conclusion

This meta-analysis provides encouraging findings, suggesting that low achievers can make substantial gains in mathematics if they receive relatively cost-effective small group tutoring. Promising outcomes were also achieved by programs that emphasize cooperative learning and classroom management. These findings support a belief that long-standing inequalities in mathematics achievement can be overcome using proven, replicable strategies and by professional development focused on implementation of traditional curricula.

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Table 1. Meta-regression results.

Coefficient	Reference group	beta	SE	t	df	p
Null Model						
Intercept		0.11	0.02	6.42	72.92	0.000
Meta-Regression						
Intercept	Tutoring	0.10	0.01	7.93	41.95	0.000
PD Focused on Classroom Organization and Management		0.04	0.08	0.48	8.89	0.641
PD Focused on Mathematics Content and Pedagogy		-0.12	0.07	-1.75	23.55	0.094
PD Focused on Implementation of Traditional and Digital Curricula		-0.15	0.07	-2.26	10.26	0.047
Traditional and Digital Curricula with Limited Professional Development		-0.11	0.07	-1.63	17.85	0.120
Benchmark Assessments		-0.15	0.10	-1.56	7.10	0.163
PD Focused on Implementation of Traditional Curricula	PD Focused on Implementation of Digital Curricula	0.12	0.04	2.78	7.33	0.026
Digital Curricula	Traditional Curricula	0.04	0.04	1.01	24.56	0.324
Quasi-Experiments	Randomized Studies	0.12	0.04	3.30	12.21	0.006
K-2	Mixed	-0.04	0.03	-1.15	15.79	0.267
3-6		0.00	0.02	-0.09	11.51	0.930
Low Achievers	Mixed Achievers	0.05	0.03	1.87	12.07	0.086
Moderate/high Achievers		-0.02	0.02	-0.84	12.10	0.419
Low SES	Mixed SES	-0.02	0.02	-0.65	20.74	0.524
Moderate/high SES		0.01	0.02	0.31	22.36	0.759
International Studies	U.S. Studies	-0.02	0.03	-0.47	30.80	0.643
One-to-Small Group Tutoring	One-to-One Tutoring	0.12	0.08	1.52	15.19	0.149

Note. Meta-regression model also controlled for cross-age and online tutoring.

Table 2. Mean Effect Sizes of Program Categories and Subcategories.

Table	Category	k	n	ES	SE	t	df	p
3	Tutoring programs	22	39	+0.20	0.05	4.21	7.86	0.003
	<i>One-to-One Tutoring</i>	8	13	+0.19	0.06	3.36	7.50	0.011
	<i>One-to-Small Group Tutoring</i>	14	26	+0.30	0.05	5.88	13.38	0.000
4	Professional Development Focused on Mathematics Content and Pedagogy	10	23	+0.03	0.03	0.86	9.01	0.411
5	Professional Development Focused on Classroom Organization and Management	7	11	+0.19	0.06	3.30	4.16	0.028
6	Professional Development Focused on Implementation of Traditional and Digital Curricula	12	35	+0.01	0.03	0.42	3.13	0.705
	<i>Professional Development Focused on Implementation of Traditional Curricula</i>	7	18	+0.12	0.03	4.88	5.51	0.003
	<i>Professional Development Focused on Implementation of Digital Curricula</i>	5	17	0.00	0.03	-0.03	3.15	0.977
7	Traditional and Digital Curricula With Limited Professional Development	30	67	+0.05	0.03	1.52	12.52	0.153
	<i>Traditional Curricula</i>	15	34	+0.04	0.04	1.06	12.33	0.309
	<i>Digital Curricula</i>	15	33	+0.08	0.02	4.02	11.88	0.002
8	Benchmark Assessments	4	5	0.00	0.08	-0.03	3.12	0.975

Note. k=number of studies; n = number of outcomes; ES=effect size; SE=standard error; df=degrees of freedom

Table 3. *Tutoring Programs*

Study	Design	Duration	Sample Size	Grade	Sample Characteristics	Posttest	Effect size	Study ES
Category Mean: +0.20*								
One-to-one Tutoring								
Subcategory Mean: +0.19*								
<i>One-to-one Tutoring by Teachers</i>								
Math Recovery								
Smith et al. (2013)	QE	1 year	775 students (259E, 516C)	1	48% minority, 15% ELL, 65% FRL.	WJ-Math Fluency WJ-App. Problems WJ-Quant Concepts WJ-Math Reasoning	+0.15* +0.28* +0.24* +0.30*	+0.24*
Numbers Count								
Torgerson et al. (2013)	SR	12 weeks	418 students (144E, 274C)	Year 2 (Grade 1)	England. 75% FRL.	Progress in Math (PIM 6)		+0.33*
<i>One-to-one Tutoring by Teaching Assistants</i>								
Catch Up® Numeracy								
Program Mean: +0.05								
Hodgen et al. (2019)	CR	1 year	142 schools 1481 students (737E, 744C)	Year 4, 5 (Grade 3, 4)	Urban and rural schools in England. 22% FRL.	Progress Test in Mathematics		-0.04
Rutt et al. (2014)	SR	30 weeks	216 students (108E, 108C)	Year 2-6 (Grade 1-5)	England. 35% FRL.	Progress Test in Mathematics		+0.21*
Galaxy Math								
Fuchs et al. (2013a)	SR	16 weeks	591 students (385E, 206C)	1	Southeast school district. 69% AA, 7% H, 83% FRL.	Word Problems		+0.25*
Maths Counts								
See et al. (2018)	SR	3 months	291 students (147E, 144C)	Year 3-6 (grade 2-5)	Low performing students in England. 37% FRL, 54% SEN.	Key Stage 2		+0.11

Pirate Math							
Fuchs et al. (2010)	SR	16 weeks	150 students (100E, 50C)	3	Nashville and Houston. 35% SPED, 19% ELL, 75% FRL, 56% AA, 29% H.		+0.37*
<i>One-to-one Tutoring by Paid Volunteers</i>							
MathCorps							
Parker et al. (2019)	SR	6 months	284 students (183E, 101C)	4-6	Minnesota. 35% W, 27% AA, 20% A, 61% FRL.	STAR Math	+0.20*
One-to-Small Group Tutoring							
<i>One-to-Small Group Tutoring by Teachers</i>							Subcategory Mean: +0.30*
Number Rockets							
Gersten et al. (2015)	CR	6 months	76 schools 994 students (615E, 379C)	1	44% AA, 46% H, 34% FRL.	TEMA-3	+0.34*
<i>One-to- Small Group Tutoring by Teaching Assistants</i>							
1stClass@Number							
Nunes et al. (2018)	CR	3 months	122 schools 503 students (251E, 252C)	Year 2 (grade 1)	Schools in England. 40% FRL	Key Stage 1	+0.01
Affordable Primary Tuition							
Torgerson et al. (2018)	CR	12 weeks	102 schools 1201 students (567E, 634C)	Year 6 (Grade 5)	England. 48% FRL, 72% W.	Key Stage 2	+0.19
FocusMATH							
Styers & Baird- Wilkerson (2011)	SR	1 year	341 students (166E, 175C)	3, 5	23% AA, 33% H, 24% ELL, 12% SPED, 71% FRL	KeyMath 3	+0.24*
Fraction Face-Off!							
Program Mean: +0.57*							
Fuchs et al. (2013b)	SR	12 weeks	259 students (129E, 130C)	4	82% FRL, 11% ELL, 53% AA, 25% W, 19% H.	NAEP Items	+0.88*
Fuchs et al. (2016a)	SR	12 weeks	213 students (143E, 70C)	4	17% ELL, 88% FRL, 15% SPED, 58% AA, 16% W, 17% H	NAEP Items	+0.39*

Fuchs et al. (2016b)	SR	12 weeks	212 students (142E, 70C)	4	49% AA, 27% H, 18% ELL, 90% FRL.	NAEP Items	+0.64*
Malone et al. (2019)	SR	12 weeks	225 students (149E, 76C)	4	16% W, 43% AA, 25% H, 20% ELL, 88% FRL.	NAEP Items	+0.29*
Fusion Math							
Clarke et al. (2014)	SR	19 weeks	78 students (38E, 40C)	1	Pacific Northwest. 20% H, 18% ELL, 70% FRL, 12% SPED.	SAT-10	+0.11
Onebillion Maths Apps							
Nunes et al. (2019)	CR	12 weeks	112 schools 1089 students (543E, 546C)	Year 1 (K)	England. 25% FRL	PTM	+0.24*
ROOTS							Program Mean: +0.19*
Clarke et al. (2016)	SR	4 months	290 students (203E, 87C)	K	Oregon. 5% AA, 58% W, 33% H, 32% LEP, 11% SPED	TEMA-3 NSB SESAT	+0.32* +0.16 +0.001
Doabler et al. (2016)	SR	5 months	292 students (208E, 82C)	K	Boston. 7% AA, 89% W, 50% H, 26% ELL.	TEMA-3 NSB SESAT	+0.31* +0.40* +0.24
Clarke et al. (2017)	SR	4 months	689 students (527E, 162C)	K	Oregon. 55% W, 26% H, 26% LEP, 87% FRL.	TEMA-3 NSB SESAT	+0.25* +0.09 +0.12
Working Memory Intervention							
Wright et al. (2019)	CR	5 months	171 schools 1822 students (882E, 940C)	Year 3 (grade 2)	England. 37% FRL, 80% W	GL Assessment British Ability	+0.22
Online One-to-one Tutoring							
Affordable Online Maths Tuition							
Torgerson et al. (2016)	CR	27 weeks	64 schools 578 students (289E, 289C)	Year 6 (Grade 5)	England. 92% FRL, 43% minority.	Key Stage 2	-0.03

Cross-age Peer Tutoring

Shared Maths

Lloyd et al. (2015)	CR	2 years	79 schools Year 3 (tutees) 2786 students Year 5 (tutors) 2683 students	Year 3, 5 (Grades 2, 4)	England. 22% FRL, 86% W, 4% AA, 5% A.	ICAS-Year 3 ICAS-Year 5	+0.01 +0.02	+0.02
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Note for Tables 3-8.

Design/Treatment: SR=Student Randomized, CR=Cluster Randomized, QE=Quasi Experiment, CQE=Cluster Quasi-Experiment

Measures: BAM: Balanced Assessment in Mathematics, CAT: California Achievement Test, CMT-Math: Connecticut Mastery Test, CST: California Standards Test, CSAP: Colorado Student Assessment Program, ECLS-K: Early Childhood Longitudinal Program, FCAT: Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test, GMADE: Group Mathematics Assessment and Diagnostic Evaluation, HCPS II: Hawaii Content and Performance Standards, ICAS: Interactive Computerised Assessment System, CAS: Interactive Computerized Assessment System, ISAT: Illinois Student Achievement Test, ISTEP+: Indiana State Test of Educational Proficiency, ITBS: Iowa Test of Basic Skills, MAP: Measure of Academic Progress, MAT- Metropolitan Achievement Test, MEAP: Michigan Educational Assessment Program, NAEP: National Assessment of Educational Progress, NJASK: New Jersey State Test; NSB: Brief Number Sense Screener, Nevada CRT: Nevada Criterion Referenced Test, NWEA: Northwest Evaluation Association, PTM: Progress Test in Maths, SAT 10: Stanford Achievement Test 10, SESAT: Stanford Early School Achievement Test; SOL: Virginia Standards of Learning, STAR Math: Standardized Testing and Reporting, TAKS: Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills, TEMA-3: Test of Early Mathematics Ability 3, WJ III: Woodcock-Johnson III.

Demographics: A=Asian, AA=African-American, H=Hispanic, W=White, FRL=Free/Reduced Lunch, ELL=English Language Learner, LD=Learning Disabilities, SPED=Special Education.

* $p < .05$ at the appropriate level of analysis (cluster or individual).

Table 4. *Professional Development Focused on Mathematics Content and Pedagogy*

Study	Design	Duration	Sample Size	Grade	Sample Characteristics	Posttest	Effect size	Study ES
Category Mean: +0.03								
CASL								
Randel et al. (2016)	CR	1-2 years	67 schools 9,596 students (4,420E, 5,176C)	4,5	CO. 56% W, 27% H, 47% FRL.	CSAP		+0.01
Cognitively Guided Instruction								
Schoen et al. (2020)	CR	1 year	22 schools 2,005 students (1,046E, 959C)	1, 2	FL. 60% FRL, 18% AA, 37% H, 37% W, 23% ELL	ITBS Grade 1 Comp. Grade 1 Problems Grade 2 Comp. Grade 2 Problems	+0.03 +0.14 -0.29 -0.07	-0.04
Intel Math								
Garet et al. (2016)	CR	1 year	165 teachers 3,677 students (1,760E, 1,917C)	4	46% W, 14% AA, 30% H, 58% FRL, 12% ELL, 14% SPED.	State tests NWEA	-0.06* -0.05	-0.05*
Math for All								
Duncan et al. (2018)	CR	1 year	29 schools 881 students (423E, 458C)	4, 5	Chicago 79% FRL, 37% AA, 42% H, 23% ELL	NWEA MAP		+0.11
Math Solutions								
Jacob et al. (2017)	CR	2 years	74 classes 1,453 students (727E, 726C)	4, 5	63% AA, 21% W, 14% SPED	State tests Grade 4 Grade 5	+0.04 +0.08	+0.06
PBS TeacherLine								
Dominguez et al. (2006)	CR	1 year	87 teachers 1,119 students (523E, 596C)	3-5	FL, SC, NY.	Algebra test Geometry test	-0.02 +0.08	+0.03
Philosophy for Children								
Gorard et al. (2015)	CR	1 year	48 schools 1,529 students (772E, 757C)	Year 5 (Grade 4)	England. 47% FRL, 19% SPED, 12% ELL, 26% minority.	Key Stage 2		+0.10

Primarily Math							
Kutaka et al. (2017)	CQE	1 year	218 teachers 809 students (313E, 496C)	K-2	3 urban school districts.	TEMA-3	+0.14
Project GROW							
Prast et al. (2018)	CR	1 year	30 schools 3,514 students	1-6	Schools from Netherlands.	Cito Mathematics Test	+0.11*
Using Data							
Cavalluzzo et al. (2014)	CR	2 years	59 schools 10,877 students (5,384E, 4,903C)	4,5	FL. 47% AA, 9% H, 66% FRL, 10% SPED.	FCAT	+0.01

Table 5. *Professional Development Focused on Classroom Organization and Management*

Study	Design	Duration	Sample Size	Grade	Sample Characteristics	Posttest	Effect size	Study ES
Category Mean: +0.19*								
Individualized Student Instruction (ISI)								
Connor et al. (2018)	CR	1 year	32 teachers 370 students (205E, 165C)	2	North FL. 84% W, 5% AA	Woodcock Math Fluency Key Math	+0.16 <hr/> +0.07	+0.11
PAX Good Behavior Game								
Weis et al. (2015)	CQE	1 year	49 classes 703 students (402E, 301C)	1, 2	Ohio. 82% W, 48% FRL	MAP		+0.32*
ReflectEd								
Motteram et al. (2016)	CR	1 year	65 classes 1570 students (839E, 731C)	Year 5 (Grade 4)	England	InCAS		+0.32
Spring Math								
VanDerHayden et al. (2012)	CR	1 year	23 classes 187 students (106E, 81C)	5	Mississippi. 34% W, 36% AA, 11% SPED, 57% FRL	State Test		-0.05
Program Mean: +0.11								
TAI								
Stevens & Slavin (1995)	CQE	2 years	5 schools 873 students (411E, 462C)	2-6	MD. 7% minority, 10% FRL, 9% SPED	CAT-Computation CAT-Application	+0.29 <hr/> +0.20	+0.24
Karper & Melnick (1993)	CQE	1 year	8 classes 165 students (84E, 81C)	4-5	Hershey, PA.	District Test Grade 4 Grade 5	<hr/> -0.05 <hr/> -0.12	-0.09
Math PALS								
Wood et al. (2020)	CR	1 year	28 teachers 454 students (205E, 249C)	1	FL. 45% FRL, 84% W, 4% AA, 3% H	WJ-III Math Fluency WJ-III Applied Problems	+0.16 <hr/> +0.06	+0.11

Table 6. *Professional Development Focused on Implementation of Traditional (non-Digital) and Digital Curricula*

Study	Design	Duration	Sample Size	Grade	Sample Characteristics	Posttest	Effect size	Study ES
Category Mean: +0.01								
Professional Development Focused on Implementation of Traditional (non-Digital) Curricula								
Subcategory Mean: +0.12*								
AMSTI								
Newman et al. (2012)	CR	1 year	40 schools 9,370 students (5,111E, 4,259C)	4-5	49% minority, 64% FRL.	SAT 10		+0.05
EarlyMath								
Reid et al. (2014)	CQE	2 years	16 schools 903 students (443, 460C)	K-2	Midwestern city.	WJ-Applied Problems		+0.01
Math Pathways & Pitfalls								
Heller (2010)	CR	1 year	121 classes 2,160 students (1,204E, 956C)	4, 5	AZ, CA, IL. 55% ELL, 76% FRL, 8% AA, 69% H, 9% W.	State tests Grade 4 Grade 5	+0.04 +0.08	+0.06
Mathematics Mastery								
Vignoles et al. (2015)	CR	1 year	83 schools 4,176 students (2,160E, 2,016C)	Year 1 (Grade K)	Schools across England.	Number Knowledge Test		+0.10
Mathematics Reasoning								
Program Mean: +0.10								
Stokes et al. (2018)	CR	12 weeks	160 schools 6,353 students (3,238E, 3,115C)	Year 2 (Grade 1)	England. 23% FRL	Progress in Math (PIM 7)		+0.08
Worth et al. (2015)	CR	4 months	36 schools 1,365 students (517E, 848C)	Year 2 (Grade 1)	England. 16% FRL, 14% SPED, 14% ELL.	Progress in Math (PIM 7)		+0.20*
Math Expressions								
Agodini et al. (2010)	CR	1 year	90 schools 4,114 students (2,036E, 2,078C)	1, 2	CT, FL, KY, MN, MS, MO, NY, NV, SC, TX. 26% AA, 30% H, 10% ELL.	ECLS-K Grade 1 Grade 2	+0.11* +0.12*	+0.11*

Professional Development Focused on Implementation of Digital Curricula								Subcategory Mean: 0.00
MathsFlip								
Rudd et al. (2017)	CR	1 year	24 schools 1,129 students (542E, 587)	Year 5, 6 (grade 4, 5)	England. 25% FRL, 37% ELL	Key Stage 2		+0.07
Odyssey Math								
Wijekumar et al. (2009)	CR	1 year	122 teachers 2,456 students (1,223E, ,233C)	4	DE, NJ, PA. 18% FRL, 25% minority, 7% ELL.	TerraNova		+0.02
Reasoning Mind								Program Mean: -0.04
Shechtman et al. (2019)	CR	1 year	46 schools 1,921 students (941E, 980C)	5	Urban, rural and suburban schools in West Virginia. 94% W, 50% FRL	WVGSA		-0.13
Wang & Woodworth (2011b)	SR	4 months	651 students (521E, 130C)	2-5	San Francisco Bay Area. 87% H, 81% ELL, 88% FRL.	NWEA-Math Over. NWEA-Probl. Solv. NWEA-Num. sense NWEA-Comp. NWEA-Geometry NWEA-Statistics	-0.02 -0.05 +0.01 -0.08 +0.11 -0.02	-0.01
Time to Know								
Rosen & Beck-Hill (2012)	CQE	6 months	4 schools 476 students (283E, 193C)	4-5	Dallas, TX 18% AA, 63% H	TAKS		+0.31

Table 7. *Traditional (non-Digital) and Digital Curricula with Limited Professional Development*

Study	Design	Duration	Sample Size	Grade	Sample Characteristics	Posttest	Effect size	Study ES
Category Mean: +0.05								
Traditional (non-Digital) Curricula								
Subcategory Mean: +0.04								
Early Learning in Mathematics								
Clarke et al. (2015)	CR	1 year	129 classes 2,116 students (1,134E, 982C)	K	OR, TX. 56% FRL, 38% ELL, 36% H, 8% SPED.	TEMA-3		+0.11
enVisionMATH / Scott Foresman-Addison Wesley Elementary Math								
Resendez & Azin (2006)	CR	1 year	39 classes 863 students (445E, 418C)	3, 5	OH, NJ 9% AA, 18% FRL.	TerraNova-Math Tot.	-0.07	-0.01
Resendez & Manley (2005)	CR	1 year	35 teachers 645 students (352E, 293C)	2, 4	WA, WY, VA, KY 20% AA, 9% H, 10% ELL, 46% FRL.	TerraNova-Math Tot. TerraNova-Comp. TerraNova-Comp.	+0.10 -0.21 +0.05	-0.05
Resendez et al. (2009)	CR	2 years	44 teachers 659 students (349, 310C)	2-3, 4-5	MT, OH, NH, MA, KY, TN. 95% W, 19% FRL.	MAT-Conc. & Prob. Sol. MAT-Math Comp. GMADE	-0.13 +0.06 -0.06	-0.04
Strobel et al. (2017)	CR	2 years	33 teachers 495 students (285E, 210C)	1-2, 4-5	24% W, 37% AA, 33% H, 15% ELL, 74% FRL.	TerraNova		+0.02
Everyday Mathematics								
Vaden-Kiernan et al. (2015)	CR	2 years	48 schools 4,467 students	K-5	51% AA, 73% FRL.	GMADE		-0.01
GO Math!								
Eddy et al. (2014)	CR	1 year	79 teachers 1,363 students (754E, 609C)	1-3	AZ, ID, IL, MI, OH, PA, UT, 36% AA, 35% H, 31% ELL, 35% FRL.	ITBS		+0.01
Investigations in Number, Data, and Space								
Agodini et al. (2010)	CR	1 year	93 schools 4,019 students (1,941E, 2,078C)	1, 2	CT, FL, KY, MN, MS, MO, NY, NV, SC, TX. 23% AA, 32% H, 13% ELL.	ECLS-K Grade 1 Grade 2	0.00 +0.09	+0.04

Gatti & Giordano (2008)	CR	1 year	77 classes 1,363 students (729E, 634C)	1, 4	AZ, MA, OR, SC 52% FRL, 27% H, 9% AA.	GMADE Grade 1 Grade 4	-0.14 -0.31	-0.22*
JUMP Math								
Solomon et al. (2011)	CR	5 months	18 schools 267 students (163E, 104C)	5	Rural Canadian schools, Ontario.	WJ-III		+0.23
Math Connects								
Jordan (2009)	CQE	1 year	139 teachers 1,897 students (844E, 1,053C)	2, 4	61% W, 14% AA, 16% H.	TerraNova Grade 2 Grade 4	+0.08 -0.04	+0.02
Math in Focus								
ERIA (2010)	QE	1 year	678 students (125E, 553C)	4	NJ. 15% FRL, 30% minority, 12% SPED.	NJ ASK		+0.25*
ERIA (2013)	CQE	1 year	33 classes 679 students (362E, 317C)	3	59% minority, 58% FRL, 9% ELL.	ITBS		+0.29
Jaciw et al. (2016)	CR	1 year	18 teams 1,641 students (857E, 784C)	3-5	Clark County, NV. 47% H, 10% AA, 56% FRL, 11% SPED.	SAT10-Probl. Solv SAT10-Procedures Nevada CRT	+0.12* +0.14* +0.05	+0.10
Saxon Math								
Agodini et al. (2010)	CR	1 year	91 schools 4,083 students (2,005E, 2,078C)	1, 2	CT, FL, KY, MN, MS, MO, NY, NV, SC, TX. 21% AA, 40% H, 12% ELL.	ECLS-K Grade 1 Grade 2	+0.07 +0.17*	+0.11
Digital Curricula								
Subcategory Mean: +0.08*								
Accelerated Math								
Program Mean: +0.02								
Lambert et al. (2014)	CR	1 year	36 classes 504 students (256E, 248C)	2-5	Midwestern US. 40% minority, 76% FRL, 18% SPED	TerraNova		+0.02
Lehmann & Seeber (2005)	CQE	4 months	47 classes 1,243 students (577E, 666C)	4-6	Germany. 18% immigrants	Hamburger Schulleistungs-test Grade 4 Grade 5 Grade 6	+0.01 +0.17 -0.01	+0.06

Ysseldyke & Bolt (2007)	CR	1 year	36 classes 723 students (368E, 355C)	2-5	AL, FL, SC, TX, MS, MI, NC. 44% AA, 45% H	TerraNova	0.00	
Digital Feedback in Primary Maths								
Sutherland et al. (2019)	CR	1 year	108 classes 2133 students (1103E, 1030C)	Year 4, 5 (grade 3, 4)	England. 30% FRL	ACERs Essential Learning Metric (ELM)	-0.04	
DreamBox Learning								
							Program Mean: +0.10	
Lenard & Rhea (2019)	CR	6 months	24 schools 12,467 students (6,084E, 6,048C)	K-5	School in North Carolina. 18% H, 22% AA, 47% W, 11% LEP, 25% FRL.	Number Knowledge Test (K-2)	+0.12*	+0.08
						North Carolina End-of- Grade EOG (3-5)	+0.03	
Wang & Woodworth (2011a)	SR	4 months	557 students (446E, 111C)	K, 1	San Francisco Area. 87% H, 81% ELL, 88% FRL.	NWEA-Math Over.	+0.11	+0.11
						NWEA-Probl. Solv.	+0.06	
						NWEA-Num. sense	+0.08	
						NWEA-Comp.	+0.13	
						NWEA-Geometry	+0.16*	
						NWEA-Statistics	+0.12	
Educational Program for Gifted Youth (EGPY)								
Suppes et al. (2013)	SR	1 year	1484 students (742E, 742C)	2-5	California. 55% AA, 31% H.	CST	-0.01	
ScratchMaths								
Boylan et al. (2018)	CR	2 years	110 schools 5,818 students (2,803E, 3,015C)	Years 5, 6 (Grades 4, 5)	England. 28% FRL.	Key Stage 2	0.00	
ST Math								
Rutherford et al. (2014)	CR	1, 2 years	1 yr: 34 schools 10,455 students 2 yrs: 18 schools 2,677 students	3-5	Southern CA. 90% FRL, 85% H, 63% ELL.	CST		
						1 year	+0.09	+0.08
						2 years	+0.03	
SuccessMaker								
							Program Mean: +0.08	
Gatti (2009)	CQE	1 year	8 schools 792 students (455E, 337C)	3,5	AZ, FL, MA, NJ. 34% H, 34% FRL, 89% ELL, 47% low achievers.	GMADE		
						Grade 3	+0.11	+0.07
						Grade 5	+0.03	

Gatti (2013)	SR	1 year	490 students (239E, 251C)	5	AZ, CA, KS, MI, OR, TX. 49% H, 8% AA, 11% SPED, 17% LEP, 70% FRL.	GMADE	+0.09
Gatti & Petrochenkov (2010)	CR	1 year	47 classes 913 students (506E, 407C)	3, 5	AZ, AR, CA, IN, KS, PA. 88% ELL, 66% FRL, 42% H, 12% AA, 40% low achievers.	GMADE-Grade 3 GMADE-Grade 5	+0.27 -0.19 +0.06
Symphony Math							
Schwarz (2019)	CQE	1 year	58 classes 1,202 students (579E, 623C)	1-4	Kentucky. 87% W, 57% FRL.	STAR 360@ Math	+0.30
Waterford Early Learning							
Magnolia Consulting (2012)	CR	2 years	57 classes 680 students (425E, 255C)	K-1 1-2	19% AA, 53% H, 17% W, 73% FRL, 32% LEP, 5% SPED.	SAT 10	+0.04
Stop and Think							
Roy et al. (2019)	CR	1 year	84 year groups 2702 students (1343E, 1359C)	Year 3, 5 (grade 2, 4)	England. 30% FRL	Progress Test in Maths (PTM)	+0.09

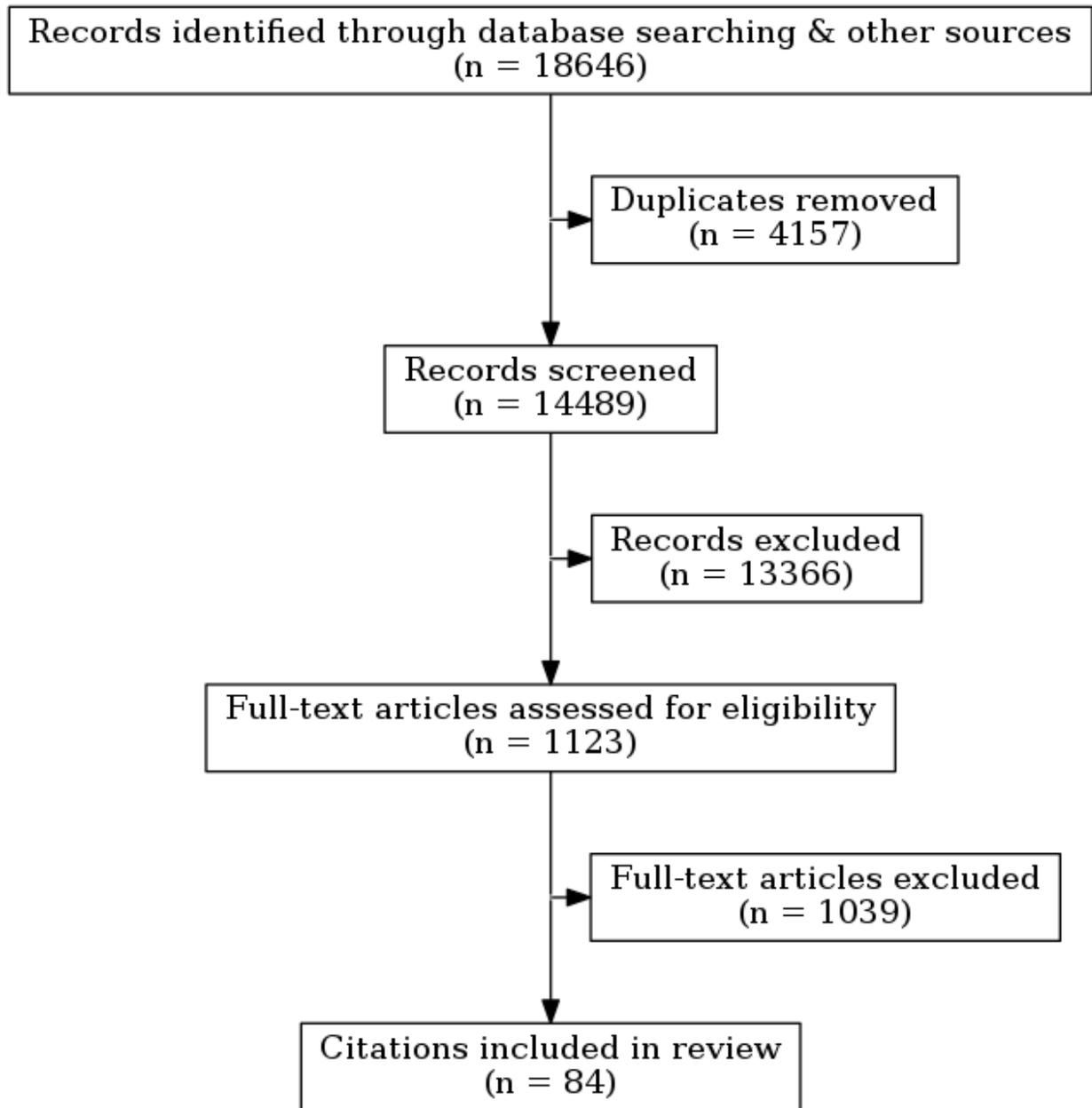
Table 8. *Benchmark Assessments*

Study	Design	Duration	Sample Size	Grade	Sample Characteristics	Posttest	Effect size	Study ES
Category Mean: 0.00								
Achievement Network (ANet)								
West et al. (2016)	CR	2 years	89 schools 13,233 students (6,617E, 6,616C)	3-5	MA, LA, IL. 87% AA, 15% ELL, 87% FRL.	State tests		-0.09*
Acuity								Program mean: +0.16
Konstantopoulos et al. (2013)	CR	1 year	49 schools 11,632 students (5,816E, 5,816C)	3-6	Rural, urban, and suburban schools in IN	ISTEP+		+0.19*
Konstantopoulos et al. (2016)	CR	1 year	55 schools 13,944 students (6,972E, 6,972C)	3-6	IN. 53% W, 27% AA, 12% H, 57% FRL 19% SPED.	ISTEP+		+0.13
mClass								
Konstantopoulos et al. (2016)	CR	1 year	55 schools 6,249 students	K-2	IN. 27% AA, 12% H, 57% FRL, 19% SPED.	TerraNova		-0.22*

Table 9. Methodological and Substantive Moderators.

Moderator	Level	k	n	ES	SE	t	df	p
Research Design	Quasi-Experiments	13	20	+0.20	0.03	6.16	9.77	0.000
	Randomized studies	74	164	+0.08	0.01	6.33	39.14	0.000
Grade Level	K-2	33	79	+0.08	0.02	3.92	26.77	0.001
	3-6	46	78	+0.11	0.02	4.38	34.78	0.000
	Mix K-6	14	27	+0.11	0.02	6.29	10.85	0.000
Student Achievement Level	Low Achievers	33	48	+0.13	0.02	5.58	13.61	0.000
	Moderate/high Achievers	11	15	+0.06	0.03	2.43	12.00	0.032
	Mixed Achievers	61	121	+0.08	0.01	6.43	33.71	0.000
Socio-Economic Status	Low SES	36	56	+0.08	0.02	3.31	33.59	0.002
	Moderate/high SES	52	73	+0.10	0.02	6.54	34.80	0.000
	Mixed SES	26	55	+0.10	0.02	6.29	22.55	0.000
U.S. vs. Other Countries	U.S. Studies	65	136	+0.10	0.02	6.58	36.94	0.000
	Non-U.S. Studies	22	48	+0.08	0.03	3.07	20.95	0.006
Tutoring Group Size	One-to-one	8	13	+0.19	0.06	3.36	7.50	0.011
	One-to-small	14	26	+0.30	0.05	5.88	13.38	0.000
<i>Tutoring Specific Moderators (Exploratory Only)</i>								
Tutoring Provider	Teachers	3	6	+0.24				
	Teaching Assistants	18	32	+0.18				
Tutoring Group Size and Provider	One-to-One by Teachers	2	5	+0.22				
	One-to-One by Teaching Assistants	5	7	+0.16				
	One-to-Small Group by Teachers	1	1	+0.36				
	One-to-Small Group by Teaching Assistants	13	25	+0.30				

Note. *k* = number of studies; *n* = number of outcomes; ES=effect size; SE=standard error; df=degrees of freedom. Exploratory model is the same as the full model, adding the tutoring provider moderator. Because of the limited sample size and exploratory nature, statistical tests are not reported.

Figure 1.*PRISMA Flow Diagram of Study Search and Review Process.*

*A total of 84 unique citations were included in the review. Of those citations, some reported on more than one intervention, so they are included as having multiple studies, bringing the total number of included studies to 87.

