

The Effectiveness of Education Technology for Enhancing Reading Achievement: A Meta-Analysis

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Abstract

The present review examines research on the effects of technology use on reading achievement in K-12 classrooms. Unlike previous reviews, this review applies consistent inclusion standards to focus on studies that met high methodological standards. In addition, methodological and substantive features of the studies are investigated to examine the relationship between education technology and study features. A total of 85 qualified studies based on over 60,000 K-12 participants were included in the final analysis. Consistent with previous reviews of similar focus, the findings suggest that education technology generally produced a positive, though small, effect ($ES=+0.16$) in comparison to traditional methods. However, the effects may vary by education technology type. In particular, the types of supplementary computer-assisted instruction programs that have dominated the classroom use of education technology in the past few decades are not producing educationally meaningful effects in reading for K-12 students. In contrast, innovative technology applications and integrated literacy interventions with the support of extensive professional development showed somewhat promising evidence. However, too few randomized studies for these promising approaches are available at this point for firm conclusions.

Keywords: Educational technology, reading achievement, K-12, meta-analysis

Introduction

The classroom use of education technology such as computers, interactive whiteboards, multimedia, and the internet, has been growing at a phenomenal rate in many countries in the last two decades. According to a recent survey conducted by the U.S. Department of Education (SETDA 2010) on the use of education technology in US public schools, almost all public schools had one or more instructional computers with internet access, and the ratio of students to instructional computers with internet access was 3.1 to 1. In addition, 97% of schools had one or more instructional computers located in classrooms and 58% of schools had laptops on carts. A majority of public schools surveyed also indicated their schools provided various education technology devices for instruction: LCD (liquid crystal display) and DLP (digital light processing) projectors (97%), digital cameras (93%), and interactive whiteboards (73%). The U.S. Department of Education provides generous grants to state education agencies to support the use of education technology in K-12 classrooms. For example, in fiscal year 2009, the Department made a \$900 million investment in education technology in elementary and secondary schools (SETDA, 2010).

Though research on the effectiveness of education technology for improving learning outcomes is abundant, previous studies suffer from a number of problems typical in educational research: small sample size, brief intervention (e.g., Foster, Erickson, Foster, Brinkman, & Torgesen, 1994), lack of control group (e.g., Moseley, 1993), and poorly described treatments. Perhaps the biggest problem is that many studies claiming to be studies of technology confound use of technology with one-to-one tutoring, small-group tutorials, or other teaching strategies known to be effective without technology (e.g., Barker & Torgesen, 1995; Ehri, Dreyer, Flugman, & Gross, 2007; Torgensen, Wagner, Rashotte, Herron, & Lindamood, 2010; Wentink, Van Bon, & Schreuder, 1997). The purpose of this review is to examine all studies that meet well-justified standards of methodological rigor reported since the 1970s to look at the overall effectiveness of education technology for enhancing reading achievement in K-12 classrooms.

Previous Reviews

Several major meta-analyses of the impact of education technology on reading have been conducted in the past two decades (Becker, 1992; Blok, Oostdam, Otter, & Overmatt, 2002; Fletcher-Finn & Gravatt, 1995; C. L. C. Kulik & J. A. Kulik, 1991; J. A. Kulik, 2003; Ouyang, 1993; Soe, Koki, & Chang, 2000). Overall, all came to a similar conclusion, that education technology generally produced small to moderate effects on reading outcomes with effect sizes ranging from +0.06 to +0.43. For example, Blok, Oostdam, Otter, & Overmatt (2002) examined 42 studies from 1990 onward and found an overall effect size of +0.19 in support of education technology for K-3 students. Their conclusion was consistent with the findings of earlier reviews by Becker (1992), Fletcher-Finn & Gravatt (1995), Kulik & Kulik (1991); Ouyang (1993); and Soe, Koki, & Chang (2000).

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A more recent review was conducted by Kulik (2003) on the impact of education technology on various subjects. For reading, a total of 27 studies focusing on three major applications of technology to reading instruction were included: integrated learning systems, writing-based reading programs, and reading management programs. Results varied by program type. No significant positive effect was found in the nine controlled studies of integrated learning system. However, moderate positive effects were found in the 13 writing-based reading program studies such as *Writing to Read*, with an overall effect size of +0.41, and in the three reading management program studies (*Accelerated Reader*), with an average effect size of +0.43. Of particular relevance to our review are the two meta-analyses by Kulik & Kulik (1991) and Soe, Koki, & Chang (2000), which had a focus on K-12 classrooms. Both reviews found a positive but modest effect of education technology on reading performance (ES=+0.25 and +0.13, respectively) for K-12 students.

Probably the most often-cited review in education technology was conducted by Kulik and Kulik (1991), who viewed computers as valuable tools for teaching and learning. Specifically, they claimed that:

1. Education technology was capable of producing positive but small effects on student achievement (ES=+0.30).
2. Education technology could produce substantial savings in instruction time (ES=+0.70).
3. Education technology fostered positive attitudes toward technology (ES=+0.34).
4. In general, education technology could be used to help learners become better readers, calculators, writers, and problem solvers.

However, Clark (1983; 1985; 1985; 1994) argued that there was not enough evidence to say that educational technology is more effective than other teaching methods. He believed that the achievement gains in many of these studies might be due to novelty effects or to the instructional strategies used with the computers, but not the media itself. In addition, many studies included in these major reviews do not meet minimal standards of methodological adequacy. For example, 10 of the 42 studies included in Blok's review did not include a control group. Furthermore, it is quite possible that the positive achievement outcomes from some of these so-called technology studies might not be caused by the technology itself, but rather by the extended learning time for additional practice.

The need to re-examine research on the effectiveness of technology for reading outcomes has been heightened by the publication of a large-scale, randomized evaluation of modern computer-assisted instruction programs by Dynarski et al. (2007) and Campuzano et al. (2009). Teachers within schools were randomly assigned to use any of 5 first grade programs and any of

4 fourth grade programs, or to control groups. At both grade levels and in both years of the evaluation, effect sizes were near zero. The overall effect size was +0.04 for first grade and +0.02 for fourth grade. The second year evaluation allowed for computation of effect sizes for each CAI program separately, and these comparisons found that none of the programs had notable success in reading.

This large-scale, third-party federal evaluation raises troubling questions about the effectiveness of technology for elementary reading outcomes. The Dynarski et al. (2007) and Campuzano et al. (2009) effect sizes were much lower than the effect sizes reported from all of the earlier research reviews. The study's use of random assignment, a large sample size, and careful measurement to evaluate several modern commercial CAI programs, raises important questions about the effectiveness of the technology applications that have been most common in education for many years. Do the Dynarski/Campuzano findings conform with those of other high-quality evaluations? Are there technology applications different from the supplemental CAI programs studied by Dynarski/Campuzano that have great promise? What can we learn from the whole literature on technology applications to inform future research and practice in this critical area?

The present review examines research on the effects of technology use on reading achievement in K-12 classrooms. Unlike most previous reviews, this review applies consistent inclusion standards to focus on studies that met high methodological standards. In addition, methodological and substantive features of the studies are investigated to examine the relationship between education technology and study features.

Method

The current review employed meta-analytic techniques proposed by Glass, McGaw & Smith (1981) and Lipsey & Wilson (2001). Comprehensive Meta-analysis Software Version 2 (Borenstein, Hedges, Higgins, & Rothstein, 2005) was used to calculate effect sizes and to carry out various meta-analytical tests, such as Q statistics and sensitivity analyses. Like many previous meta-analyses, this study follows several key steps: 1. Locating all possible studies; 2. Screening potential studies for inclusion using preset criteria; 3. Coding all qualified studies based on their methodological and substantive features; 4. Calculating effect sizes for all qualified studies for further combined analyses; and 5. Carrying out comprehensive statistical analyses covering both average effects and the relationships between effects and study features.

Literature Search Procedures

In an attempt to locate every study that could possibly meet the inclusion criteria, a literature search of articles written between 1970 and 2010 was carried out. Electronic searches were made of educational databases (e.g., JSTOR, ERIC, EBSCO, Psych INFO, Dissertation Abstracts), web-based repositories (e.g., Google Scholar), and educational technology publishers' websites, using different combinations of key words (e.g. education technology, instructional technology, computer-assisted instruction, interactive whiteboards, multimedia, reading interventions, etc). We also conducted searches by program name. We attempted to

contact producers and developers of educational technology programs to check whether they knew of studies that we had missed. References from other reviews of educational technology programs were further investigated. We also conducted searches of recent tables of contents of key journals from 2000 to 2010: *Educational Technology and Society*, *Computers and Education*, *American Educational Research Journal*, *Reading Research Quarterly*, *Journal of Educational Research*, *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, and *Reading and Writing Quarterly*. Citations in the articles from these and other current sources were located.

Criteria for Inclusion

In order to be included in this review, studies had to meet the following inclusion criteria (see Slavin, 2008, for rationales).

1. The studies evaluated any type of education technology, including computers, multimedia, and interactive whiteboards, and other technology.
2. The studies involved students in grades K-12.
3. The studies compared students taught in classes using a given technology-assisted reading program to those in control classes using an alternative program or standard methods.
4. Studies could have taken place in any country, but the report had to be available in English.
5. Random assignment or matching with appropriate adjustments for any pretest differences (e.g., analyses of covariance) had to be used. Studies without control groups, such as pre-post comparisons and comparisons to “expected” scores, were excluded. Studies in which students selected themselves into treatments (e.g., chose to attend an after-school program) or were specially selected into treatments (e.g., gifted or special education programs) were excluded unless experimental and control groups were designated after selections were made.
6. Pretest data had to be provided, unless studies used random assignment of at least 30 units (individuals, classes, or schools) and there were no indications of initial inequality. Studies with pretest differences of more than 50% of a standard deviation were excluded because, even with analyses of covariance, large pretest differences cannot be adequately controlled for as underlying distributions may be fundamentally different (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002).
7. The dependent measures included quantitative measures of reading performance, such as standardized reading measures. Experimenter-made measures were accepted if they were comprehensive measures of reading, which would be fair to the control groups, but measures of reading objectives inherent to the program (but unlikely to be emphasized in control groups) were excluded. Measures of skills that do not require interpretation of print, such as phonemic awareness, oral vocabulary, or writing, were excluded.
8. A minimum study duration of 12 weeks was required. This requirement is intended to focus the review on practical programs intended for use for the whole year, rather than brief investigations. Brief studies may not allow programs to show their full effect. On the other hand, brief studies often advantage experimental groups that focus on a

particular set of objectives during a limited time period while control groups spread that topic over a longer period. Studies with brief treatment durations that measured outcomes over periods of more than 12 weeks were included, however, on the basis that if a brief treatment has lasting effects, it should be of interest to educators.

9. Studies had to have at least two teachers in each treatment group.
10. Studied programs should be replicable in realistic school settings. Studies providing experimental classes with extraordinary amounts of assistance that could not be provided in ordinary applications were excluded.

Both the first and second author looked at each potential study independently. When disagreement arose, both authors reexamined the studies in question together and came to a final agreement.

Study Coding

To examine the relationship between effects and studies' methodological and substantive features, studies needed to be coded. Methodological features included research design and sample size. Substantive features included grade levels, types of education technology programs, program intensity, level of implementation, and socio-economic status. In addition, ability, SES, gender, and race were coded for subgroup analyses.

Effect Size Calculations and Statistical Analyses

In general, effect sizes were computed as the difference between experimental and control individual student posttests after adjustment for pretests and other covariates, divided by the unadjusted posttest pooled SD. Procedures described by Lipsey & Wilson (2001) and Sedlmeier & Gigerenzor (1989) were used to estimate effect sizes when unadjusted standard deviations were not available, as when the only standard deviation presented was already adjusted for covariates or when only gain score SD's were available. If pretest and posttest means and SD's were presented but adjusted means were not, effect sizes for pretests were subtracted from effect sizes for posttests. After calculating individual effect sizes for all 89 qualifying studies, Comprehensive Meta-Analysis software was used to carry out all statistical analyses such as Q statistics and overall effect sizes.

Findings

Overall Effects

A total of 85 qualified studies based on 60,721 K-12 participants were included in the final analysis: 8 kindergarten studies (N=2,068), 59 elementary studies (N=34,200), and 18 secondary studies (N=24,453). As indicated in Table 2, the overall mean effect size for the 85 qualified studies is +0.16. The distribution of effect sizes in this collection of studies is highly heterogeneous ($Q=362.52$, $df=84$, $p<0.00$), indicating that the variance of study effect sizes is

larger than can be explained by simple sampling error. Thus, a random effects model was used¹. As will be discussed in a later section, some methodological features (e.g. research design, sample size) and substantive features (e.g. type of intervention, grade level, SES) were used to model some of these variations.

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Sensitivity Analysis

A sensitivity analysis was performed to check any possible outliers that may skew the overall results. Using a “one-study removal” analysis (Borenstein, et al., 2009) we found that the range of effect sizes still falls within the 95% confidence interval (0.12 to 0.21). In other words, the removal of any one effect size does not substantially affect the overall effect sizes.

Publication Bias

Two statistical analyses were performed to check whether there was a significant number of studies with null results that have not been uncovered through a search of the literature to nullify the effects found in the meta-analysis: Classic fail-safe N and Orwin’s fail-safe N. As indicated in Table 3, the classic fail-safe N test determined that a total of 4,198 studies with null results would be needed in order to nullify the effect. The Orwin’s test (Table 4) estimates the number of missing null studies that would be required to bring the mean effect size to a trivial level. We set 0.01 as the trivial value. The result indicated that the number of missing null studies to bring the existing overall mean effect size to 0.01 was 880. Taken together, these results suggest that there is no reason to believe that publication bias could account for the positive effect size.

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¹ A random-effects model was used for three reasons. First, the test of heterogeneity in effect sizes was statistically significant. Second, the studies for this review were drawn from populations that are quite different from each other, e.g. age of the participants, types of intervention, research design, etc. Third, the random-effects model has been widely used in meta-analysis because the model does not discount a small study by giving it a very small weight, as is the case in the fixed-effects model (Borenstein, Hedges, Higgins, & Rothstein, 2009; Dersimonian & Laird, 1986; Schmidt, Oh, & Hayes, 2009). The average effect size using a fixed-effects procedure was only +0.11 (see Table 2)

As an additional test of the possibility of publication bias, we used a mixed-effects model to test whether there was a significant difference between published journal articles and unpublished publications such as technical reports and dissertations. As indicated in Table 5, the overall effect sizes for published articles and unpublished reports are +0.25 and +0.14, respectively. The Q-value ($Q_B=4.44$, $df=1$, and $p<0.04$) does indicate publication bias in this collection of studies. In other words, the effect sizes from the published journal articles were significantly larger than those in technical reports and dissertations.

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Year of Publication

We were also interested in looking at whether there were any differences among studies according to their publication year. Earlier reviews found suggestive evidence that effectiveness of education technology was improving over time as technology became more sophisticated and advanced (Fletcher-Finn & Gravatt, 1995; J. A. Kulik & Kulik, 1987; Niemiec & Walberg, 1987). For example, Niemiec and Walberg (1987) found that the average effect size for microcomputer-based instruction ($ES=+1.12$) was three times larger than that of computer-based instruction delivered through mainframes ($ES=+0.38$). Kulik & Kulik (1987) also detected a similar pattern. In their meta-analyses on computer-based instruction, they found that the average effect for studies from 1966-1974 was +0.24 whereas studies from 1974 to 1984 had a larger overall effect size of +0.36. Fletcher-Finn & Gravatt (1995) reported that the average effect size for computer-assisted instruction was +0.24 for the years 1987-1992, but the effect size for more recent studies was +0.33. However, the present review found no trend toward more positive results in recent years (see Table 6). Means for each time period were close to the overall mean effect size of +0.16.

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Methodology Features

As indicated in Table 2, the value of the Q statistic suggests that there is considerable variation in effect sizes across studies. In order to understand possible reasons for such variation, we examined two key potential methodological features that may help explain some of the variation: research design and sample size.

Research Design. One potential source of variation is the presence of different research designs (e.g., Abrami & Bernard, 2006). Four categories of research design were identified in

this collection of studies. Randomized experiments (N=25) were those in which students, classes, or schools were randomly assigned to conditions and the unit of analyses was at the level of the random assignment. Randomized quasi-experiments (RQE) (N=3) refer to studies that used random assignment at the school or class level but the analysis was done at the student level due to too few schools or classes. Matched control (N=48) studies were ones in which experimental and control groups were matched on key variables at pretest, before posttests were known, while matched post-hoc studies (MPH) (N=9) were ones in which groups were matched retrospectively, after posttests were known. Table 7 presents the outcomes of the analyses according to research designs. The average effect size for randomized experimental studies, randomized quasi experiments, matched control studies, and matched post hoc studies were +0.08, +0.16, +0.19, and +0.19, respectively. Since there were only three RQE studies and the effect sizes of the matched and MPH studies were similar, we decided to combine these three quasi-experimental categories into one category and compared it to randomized experiments. Results are shown in Table 8. The mean effect size for quasi-experimental studies was +0.19, twice the size of that for randomized studies. As a group, randomized evaluations had effect sizes like those reported in the Dynarski/Campuzano study, while quasi-experiments had higher estimates.

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Sample Size. Another potential source of variations may lie in differences in study sample size. Previous studies suggest that studies with small sample sizes produce larger effect sizes than do large studies (Liao, 1999; Slavin & Smith, 2009). In this collection of studies, there were a total of 49 large studies with sample sizes greater than 250 and 36 small studies with fewer than 250 students. As indicated in Table 9, a statistically significant difference was found between large studies and small studies ($Q_B=4.66$, $df=1$, and $p<0.03$). The mean effect size for the 40 small studies (ES=+0.25) was twice that of large studies (ES=+0.13).

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Design/Size. After examining the effect of research design and sample sizes separately, we then looked at the combined effect of these two moderator variables together. As shown in Table 10, the difference among the four groups was significant ($Q_B=12.37$ and $p<0.00$). Small matched control studies produced the largest effect size (ES=+0.24), followed by small randomized studies (ES=+0.21), large matched control studies (ES=+0.16), and large randomized studies (ES=+0.07). Within each research design, the effect sizes of small studies

were about twice as large as those of large studies. The findings for the large randomized studies, as a group, resembled those of the Dynarski/Campuzano study.

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Substantive Features

In addition to methodological features, substantive features were also examined to help explain some of the variation in the model. Six key substantive features were identified and examined: Grade levels, types of intervention, program intensity, level of implementation, and socio-economic status.

Grade Levels. Studies were organized in three grade levels: Kindergarten (N=8), Elementary (N=59), and Secondary (N=18). The results by grade levels are shown in Table 11. The effect sizes for kindergarten, elementary, and the secondary level were +0.15, +0.10, and +0.31, respectively. The between-group difference ($Q_B = 9.52$, $df=2$, $p<0.01$) was significant. The post hoc test suggests that the effect size at the secondary level was significantly higher than that at the kindergarten and elementary levels.

Types of intervention. In terms of intervention type, the studies were divided into four major categories: Computer-Managed Learning (CML) (N=4), Innovative Technology Applications (ITA) (N=6), Comprehensive models (N=18), and Supplemental Technology (N=57). The majority of the studies (67%) fell into the supplementary program category. These supplementary programs, such as *Destination Reading*, *Plato Focus*, *Waterford*, and *WICAT*, provide additional instruction at students' assessed levels of need to supplement traditional classroom instruction. These were the types of programs evaluated in the Dynarski/Campuzano evaluation. Innovative Technology Applications included *Fast ForWord*, *Reading Reels*, and *Lightspan*. Computer-Managed Learning Systems included only *Accelerated Reader*. This program uses computers to assess students' reading levels, assigning reading materials at students' levels, scoring tests on those readings, and charting students' progress, but students do not work directly on the computer. Comprehensive models, represented by *READ 180*, *Writing to Read*, and *Voyager Passport*, are methods that use computer-assisted instruction along with non-computer activities as students' core reading approach.

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Table 12 presents the summary results of the analyses by program types. A marginally significant between-group effect ($Q_B = 7.15$, $df=3$, $p<0.07$) was found, indicating some variations among the four programs. The 18 comprehensive model studies produced the largest effect size, +0.28, and the four computer managed learning and the six innovative technology applications produced similar moderate effect sizes of +0.19 and +0.18, respectively. The average effect size for the 57 supplemental technology programs was only +0.11. The results of the analyses of CML and ITA data have to be considered carefully, however, due to the small number of studies in these categories.

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Program intensity. Program intensity may help explain some of the variation in the model. Program intensity was divided into two categories: low intensity (the use of technology less than 15 minutes a day or less than 75 minutes a week) and high intensity (over 15 minutes a day or 75 minutes a week). Analyzing the use of technology as a moderator variable, no significant difference was found between the two intensity categories ($Q_B=3.04$, $df=1$, $p=0.08$). This result suggests that more technology use does not necessarily result in better outcomes. The effect sizes for low and high intensity are +0.11 and +0.19, respectively.

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Level of Implementation. Significant differences were found among low, medium, and high levels of implementation as reported by the researchers. The mean effect sizes for low, medium, and high implementation were +0.01, +0.18, and, +0.22, respectively. Over half of the studies (53%) did not provide any or insufficient information about implementation. It is clear from the findings that no effect was found when implementation was described as low. A significant and positive effect was detected for groups that had a medium or high level of implementation rating. The implementation ratings must be considered cautiously, however, because authors who knew that there were no experimental-control differences may have described poor implementation as the reason, while those with positive effects might be less likely to describe implementation as poor. For example, Patterson et al (2003) did not find significant differences between the treatment and control groups for their Waterford study and they concluded that “it could be argued that the Waterford failed to produce promised results because the teachers did not implement it appropriately or that differences in use among the eight classrooms contributed to better results for some than for others” (p. 200).

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Socio-economic status (SES). Studies were divided into three categories: Low, mixed, and high SES. Low SES refers to studies that had 40% or more students receiving free and reduced-price lunch and high SES less than 40%. Four studies that involved a diverse population, including both low and high SES students, were excluded in these analyses. The p-value (0.31) of the test of heterogeneity in effect sizes suggests that the variance in the sample of effect sizes were within the range that could be expected based on sampling error alone. The effect sizes for low and high SES were +0.17 and +0.12, respectively, indicating a minimal effect of SES (Table 15). In addition to the between-study comparison, we also looked at the differential impact of instructional technology on students with different SES background within studies. There were a total of ten studies identified. As shown in Table 16, education technology had a slightly higher positive impact on low SES students with an average effect of +0.31, whereas the effect for high SES students was +0.20. Due to low power, no significant difference was found between low SES and high SES groups.

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Within-Study Subgroup Analyses

Besides looking at methodological and substantive features, subgroup analyses of comparisons within studies were also conducted to compute differential mean effect sizes based on student demographic characteristics such as student ability, gender, race, and language. Because the number of studies in these subgroup analyses was small, it is difficult to estimate the between-studies variance (Tau Square) with any precision. Thus the fixed-effects model was used. Interpretation of some of these results also needs to be tentative due to the small number of studies involved. These initial findings need to be verified with additional studies.

Ability. Out of the 85 qualifying studies, there were a total of 13 studies that examined the impact of instructional technology on students with different academic abilities, yielding 29 effect sizes. The mean effect sizes for low, middle, and high ability students were +0.37, +0.27, and +0.08, respectively. The post hoc tests suggest that instructional technology had a more positive impact on low and middle ability students than it did on high ability students.

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Gender. As indicated in Table 18, instructional technology generated a more positive impact among males than females. The effect sizes for males and females were +0.28 and +0.12, respectively. No significant difference according to gender was found, however, due to low power.

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Race. A total of seven studies examined the interaction effect of race with the use of education technology. The mean effect sizes for students who were African American, Hispanic, and White were +0.12, +0.42, and +0.11. The numbers of studies with each group was small, however, and there was only one study on a Hispanic population.

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English Language Learners. Only three studies examined the effect of instructional technology on English language learners. The effect size was +0.29 ($p < 0.05$).

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Discussion

The purpose of this review was to examine the overall effectiveness of education technology on reading outcomes in K-12 classrooms. Important methodological and substantive moderator variables, such as research design, sample size, type of intervention, and program intensity were used to examine whether outcomes were different according to these study features. Furthermore, sub-analyses were conducted to look at the differential impact on key subgroups such as gender, race, and SES.

Consistent with previous reviews of similar focus, the findings of this study suggest that education technology generally produced a positive, though small, effect ($ES=+0.16$) in comparison to traditional methods. This effect is much larger than those reported in the recent large, randomized evaluation of current commercial CAI models by Dynarski et al. (2007) and Campuzano et al. (2009). Yet to the degree other studies have resembled aspects of Dynarski/Campuzano, the outcomes have also been more similar. In particular, studies of traditional, supplementary CAI, studies that used random assignment, and studies with large sample sizes (all of which are characteristics of the Dynarski/Campuzano studies) found smaller effect sizes than other studies.

Qualifying studies provide greater support for technology applications other than supplementary CAI, which had an overall effect size of $+0.11$. Out of the 57 qualifying supplemental instructional technology studies, 19 of them were rigorous randomized experiments (e.g., Alifranglis, 1991; Becker, 1994, Campuzano et al, 2009; Vaughan, Serio & Wilhelm, 2006), involving a total of approximately 11,000 students. The majority of these qualifying studies (53%) were conducted since 2000. Only one study was conducted in the 70s, 12 studies in 80s, and 13 in 90s. We found no trend toward more positive effects in more recent studies. The study by Dunarski et al. (2007) and Campuzano et al (2009) evaluated a total of six supplemental programs, including *Destination Reading*, *Headsprout*, *Plato Focus*, *Waterford Early Reading Program*, *Academy of Reading*, and *LeapTrack*, and found minimal effects of these supplemental programs, with effect sizes ranging from -0.01 to $+0.11$. The evidence from these high quality randomized studies with large samples clearly suggests that the types of supplementary computer-assisted instruction programs that have dominated the classroom use of education technology in the past few decades are not producing educationally meaningful effects in reading for K-12 students.

In contrast to studies of supplementary CAI, the largest effects were found in the 18 studies of comprehensive models, including *READ 180*, *Writing to Read*, and *Voyager Passport*, with an overall effect size of $+0.28$. Unlike supplemental computer-assisted instruction models, *READ 180* and *Voyager Passport*, the two widely used secondary reading approaches, are intended to serve as integrated literacy interventions, which combine computer and non-computer instruction in their classrooms, with the support of extensive professional development. For example, in *READ 180*, a widely used secondary model for struggling readers, classrooms are provided with 90 minutes a day of instruction in a group of 15. Each period begins with a 20-minute shared reading and skills lesson, and then students in groups of 5 rotate among three activities: computer-assisted instructional reading, modeled or independent reading, and small-group instruction with the teacher. Teachers are given materials and professional development to support instruction in reading strategies, comprehension, word study, and vocabulary. These comprehensive approaches have a much greater impact on reading instruction and on reading outcomes than the ordinary CAI models, but studies of them do not isolate the unique contribution made by the use of technology. Further, none of the studies conducted to date for *READ 180* and *Voyager Passport* were randomized, and our findings suggest that non-randomized studies of technology applications overstate effect sizes. In short, too few randomized studies for comprehensive approaches are available at this point for firm conclusions. Researchers and developers need to examine the effect of these promising programs

by using rigorous experimental designs.

Other technology applications may also have greater promise than supplementary CAI, but again, the numbers of studies of each is small. A single matched evaluation of *Lightspan* (Birch, 2002), which integrates video and computer content on Sony Playstations as used at school and at home, found substantial positive effects ($ES=+0.42$), but this was a matched evaluation involving only two schools. *Reading Reels*, a program that adds multimedia content to the *Success for All* whole-school reform model, was found in two randomized experiments to add significantly to the reading outcomes of *Success for All*, with effect sizes of $+0.17$ (Chambers et al., 2006), and $+0.27$ (Chambers et al., 2008).

In addition to these overall findings, several key findings emerging from this review warrant mention. First, the majority of the qualifying studies (71%) included in this review were quasi-experiments, including matched control, randomized quasi-experiments, and matched post-hoc experiments. Out of the 85 qualified studies, only 25 (29%) were randomized experiments. Eight out of the 25 randomized studies were conducted by Campuzzano et al and Dynarski et al in 2007 and 2009, respectively. The present findings point to an urgent need for more practical randomized studies in the area of education technology.

Second, our findings indicate that studies with small sample sizes generally produced twice the effect sizes of those with large sample sizes. The results support the findings of other research studies (Pearson, Ferding, Blomeyer, & Moran, 2005; Slavin & Smith, 2009). This should come as no surprise for three reasons. First, it is much easier for researchers to maintain high implementation fidelity in small-scale studies as compared to large-scale studies. In addition, standardized tests were more likely to be used in large scale studies, which are usually less sensitive to treatments. Finally, small studies with null effects may have never been written up or made available in published or report forms.

Third, in contrast to previous reviews (e.g., Kulik & Kulik, 1991), we found a significant difference between experimental and quasi-experimental designs. Our findings suggest that the effect sizes were generally twice as large in quasi-experiments than in true experiments.

Fourth, a differential impact of education technology at different grade levels was found. The use of education technology had a larger impact at the secondary level than at any other grade levels, with a mean effect size of $+0.31$. However, the results need to be interpreted with caution. First, only two of the eighteen qualified secondary studies were randomized experiments. As mentioned earlier, the effects were likely to be larger in quasi-experiments. In addition, the 18 qualified secondary studies were dominated by two intervention programs: three from *Accelerated Reader*, and eight from *READ 180*. The findings suggest that randomized studies are particularly needed at the secondary level.

Fifth, no significant differences were found regarding program intensity. More technology does not necessarily result in better outcomes. Future studies may want to investigate the impact of the time variable factor in depth for various grades.

Finally, it appears that the use of education technology had somewhat greater benefits for low ability and ELL students. Given the current focus on intervention for low performing and ELL students, schools and districts may consider adopting appropriate proven education technology programs in order to close the language and ability gaps, especially in reading. However, there are few studies that compare outcomes by ability or ELL status. Further studies on these subgroups are needed in order to improve internal and external validity of these findings.

Conclusions

The findings of this review support those of earlier reviews by other researchers. The classroom use of education technology will undoubtedly continue to expand and play an increasingly significant role in public education in the years to come as technology becomes more sophisticated and more cost-effective. This review highlights the need for more randomized studies. In addition, schools and districts should make concerted efforts to identify and adopt research-proven education technology programs to improve student academic achievement as well as to close the ability and language gaps in their schools. The technology approaches most widely used in schools, especially supplemental computer-assisted instruction, have the least evidence of effectiveness. Alternative uses of technology have greater promise. The U.S. Department of Education should continue to invest in evaluation of innovative programs and in creation of new technology. For example, interactive whiteboards have become increasingly popular in US public schools. Yet there is little experimental research on their outcomes or on effective ways of using these and other whole-class technologies.

Limitations

It is important to mention several limitations in this review. First, due to the scope of this review, only studies with quantitative measures of reading were included. There is much to be learned from other non-experimental studies such as qualitative and correlational research that can add depth and insight to understanding the effects of these education technology programs. Second, the review focuses on replicable programs used in realistic school settings over periods of at least 12 weeks, but it does not attend to shorter, more theoretically-driven studies that may also provide useful information, especially to researchers. Finally, the review focuses on traditional measures of reading performance, primarily standardized tests. These are useful in assessing the practical outcomes of various programs and are fair to control as well as experimental teachers, who are equally likely to be trying to help their students do well on these assessments. However, the review does not report on experimenter-made measures of content taught in the experimental group but not the control group, although results on such measures may also be of importance to researchers or educators.

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Table 1: Summary of major meta-analysis in education technology

Reviews	Grade	Number of Studies	Effect Sizes
Kulik & Kulik (1991)	K-12	18	+0.25
Becker (1992)	K-8	10	+0.18
Ouyang (1993)	K-6	20	+0.16
Fletcher-Finn & Gravatt (1995)	K-12	23	+0.12
Soe, Koki, & Chang (2000)	K-12	17	+0.13
Blok et al (2002)	K-3	42	+0.19
Kulik (2003)	K-6	24	+0.06 to +0.43

Table 2*Overall Effect Sizes*

	k	ES	SE	Variance	95% confidence interval		Test of Mean		Test of heterogeneity in effect sizes		
					Lower	Upper	Z-value	P-value	Q-value	df (Q)	P-value
1. Fixed	85	0.11	0.01	0.000	0.09	0.13	12.33	0.00	362.53	84	0.000
2. Random	85	0.16	0.02	0.000	0.12	0.21	7.51	0.00			

Table 3: Classic fail-safe N

Z-value for observed studies	13.83
P-value for observed studies	0.00
Alpha	0.05
Tails	2.00
Z for alpha	1.96
Number of observed studies	85.00
Number of missing studies that would bring p-value to >alpha	4198.00

Table 4: Orwin's fail-safe N

Standardized difference in means in observed studies	0.11
Criterion for a 'trivial' standardize difference means	0.01
Mean standardized difference in means in missing studies	0.00
Number of missing studies needed to bring standardized difference in means under 0.01	880.00

TABLE 5
By Publication

Mixed effects analysis					95% confidence interval		Test of Mean		Test of heterogeneity in effect sizes		
<i>Publication</i>	k	ES	SE	Variance	<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>	Z-value	P-value	Q-value	df (Q)	P-value
1. Published	21	0.25	0.05	0.002	0.16	0.35	5.20	0.00			
2. Unpublished	64	0.14	0.02	0.001	0.09	0.18	5.80	0.00			
Total between (Q_B)									4.44	1	0.04

□

TABLE 6
By Year of Publication

Mixed effects analysis					95% confidence interval		Test of Mean		Test of heterogeneity in effect sizes		
<i>Research design</i>	k	ES	SE	Variance	<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>	Z-value	P-value	Q-value	df (Q)	P-value
1. 1970s	1	0.14	0.16	0.03	-0.17	0.45	0.89	0.37			
2. 1980s	15	0.16	0.05	0.002	0.07	0.24	3.70	0.00			
3. 1990s	15	0.08	0.02	0.000	0.041	0.11	4.27	0.000			
4. 2000s	48	0.18	0.03	0.001	0.119	0.25	5.68	0.000			
5. 2010s	6	0.17	0.05	0.003	0.068	0.27	3.28	0.001			
Total between (Q_B)									11.14	4	0.03

TABLE 7
By Design

Mixed effects analysis					95% confidence interval		Test of Mean		Test of heterogeneity in effect sizes		
<i>Research design</i>	k	ES	SE	Variance	<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>	Z-value	P-value	<i>Q-value</i>	<i>df (Q)</i>	P-value
1. Randomized	25	0.08	0.02	0.001	0.04	0.13	3.70	0.00			
2. RQE	3	0.16	0.12	0.014	-0.08	0.39	1.31	0.19			
3. Matched	48	0.19	0.04	0.001	0.12	0.26	5.44	0.00			
4. MPH	9	0.19	0.06	0.004	0.06	0.31	2.93	0.00			
Total between (Q_B)									7.88	3	0.05

*MPH=Matched post hoc; RQE=randomized quasi-experiment

TABLE 8
By Design

Mixed effects analysis					95% confidence interval		Test of Mean		Test of heterogeneity in effect sizes		
<i>Research design</i>	k	ES	SE	Variance	<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>	Z-value	P-value	<i>Q-value</i>	<i>df (Q)</i>	P-value
1. Randomized	25	0.08	0.02	0.001	0.04	0.13	3.70	0.000			
2. Quasi-Experiments	60	0.19	0.03	0.001	0.13	0.25	6.63	0.000			
Total between (Q_B)									8.42	1	0.00

TABLE 9
By Sample Size

Mixed effects analysis					95% confidence interval		Test of Mean		Test of heterogeneity in effect sizes		
<i>Sample size</i>	k	ES	SE	Variance	<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>	Z-value	P-value	Q-value	df (Q)	P-value
1. Large	49	0.13	0.02	0.001	0.08	0.18	5.42	0.000			
2. Small	36	0.25	0.05	0.002	0.15	0.34	5.35	0.000			
Total between (Q_b)									4.66	1	0.03

TABLE 10
By Design and Size

Mixed effects analysis					95% confidence interval		Test of Mean		Test of heterogeneity in effect sizes		
<i>Research design/Size</i>	k	ES	SE	Variance	<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>	Z-value	P-value	Q-value	df (Q)	P-value
1. Large Randomized	17	0.07	0.02	0.001	0.03	0.12	3.06	0.00			
2. Small Randomized	7	0.21	0.07	0.005	0.06	0.35	2.77	0.00			
3. Large Matched Control	31	0.16	0.04	0.001	0.08	0.23	4.14	0.00			
4. Small Matched Control	30	0.24	0.05	0.002	0.14	0.33	4.97	0.00			
Total between (Q_b)									12.31	3	0.00

TABLE 11

By Grade Levels

Mixed effects analysis					95% confidence interval		Test of Mean		Test of heterogeneity in effect sizes		
<i>Grade</i>	k	ES	SE	Variance	<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>	Z-value	P-value	Q-value	df (Q)	P-value
1. Kindergarten	8	0.15	0.14	0.019	-0.12	0.42	1.07	0.28			
2. Elementary	59	0.10	0.02	0.000	0.07	0.14	6.34	0.00			
3. Secondary	18	0.31	0.07	0.004	0.18	0.44	4.77	0.00			
Total between (Q_B)									9.52	2	0.01

TABLE 12

By Programs

Mixed effects analysis					95% confidence interval		Test of Mean		Test of heterogeneity in effect sizes		
<i>Types of program</i>	k	ES	SE	Variance	<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>	Z-value	P-value	Q-value	df (Q)	P-value
1. Computer Managed Learning	4	0.19	0.09	0.008	0.02	0.36	2.14	0.03			
2. Innovative Technology Applications	6	0.18	0.05	0.003	0.08	0.28	3.51	0.00			
3. Comprehensive	18	0.28	0.07	0.005	0.14	0.41	4.06	0.00			
4. Supplemental	57	0.11	0.02	0.000	0.07	0.15	5.22	0.00			
Total between (Q_B)									7.15	3	0.07

TABLE 13*By Intensity*

Mixed effects analysis					95% confidence interval		Test of Mean		Test of heterogeneity in effect sizes		
<i>Intensity</i>	k	ES	SE	Variance	<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>	Z-value	P-value	Q-value	df (Q)	P-value
1. High (>75min a week)	55	0.19	0.03	0.001	0.13	0.24	6.31	0.00			
3. Low (<75min a week)	30	0.11	0.03	0.001	0.06	0.17	3.99	0.00			
Total between (Q_B)									3.04	1	0.08

Low=less than 75 minutes a week; High=more than 75 minutes a week

TABLE 14*By Implementation*

Mixed effects analysis					95% confidence interval		Test of Mean		Test of heterogeneity in effect sizes		
<i>Research design/Size</i>	k	ES	SE	Variance	<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>	Z-value	P-value	Q-value	df (Q)	P-value
1. Low	6	0.01	0.03	0.001	-0.06	0.07	.27	0.79			
2. Medium	17	0.18	0.04	0.001	0.11	0.24	4.99	0.00			
3. High	17	0.22	0.07	0.005	0.09	0.35	3.19	0.00			
4. NA	45	0.16	0.03	0.001	0.10	0.22	5.34	0.00			
Total between (Q_B)									17.30	3	0.00

NA: no information about implementation

TABLE 15*By SES—Between Studies*

Mixed effects analysis					95% confidence interval		Test of Mean		Test of heterogeneity in effect sizes		
SES	k	ES	SE	Variance	Lower	Upper	Z-value	P-value	Q-value	df (Q)	P-value
1. Low SES	67	0.17	0.03	0.001	0.12	0.22	6.68	0.00			
2. High SES	14	0.12	0.05	0.002	0.03	0.21	2.50	0.01			
Total between (Q_B)									1.02	2	0.31

TABLE 16*By SES—Within Studies*

Fixed effects analysis					95% confidence interval		Test of Mean		Test of heterogeneity in effect sizes		
SES	k	ES	SE	Variance	Lower	Upper	Z-value	P-value	Q-value	df (Q)	P-value
1. Low SES	6	0.31	0.08	0.00	-0.16	0.47	3.94	0.00	32.12	5	0.00
2. High SES	4	0.20	0.11	0.01	-0.00	0.41	1.95	0.05	16.15	3	0.00
Total within									48.27	8	0.00
Total between (Q_B)									0.68	1	0.41
Overall (Q_T)									48.95	9	0.00

TABLE 17*Ability*

Mixed effects analysis <i>Ability</i>	k	ES	SE	Variance	95% confidence interval		Test of Mean		Test of heterogeneity in effect sizes		
					Lower	Upper	Z-value	P-value	Q-value	df (Q)	P-value
1. Low	12	0.37	0.11	0.01	0.15	0.58	3.33	0.00			
2. Middle	8	0.27	0.08	0.01	0.10	0.43	3.26	0.00			
3. High	9	0.08	0.07	0.01	-0.05	0.22	1.19	0.24			
Total between (Q_B)									5.85	2	0.05

TABLE 18*Gender*

Mixed effects analysis <i>Gender</i>	k	ES	SE	Variance	95% confidence interval		Test of Mean		Test of heterogeneity in effect sizes		
					Lower	Upper	Z-value	P-value	Q-value	df (Q)	P-value
1. Males	10	0.28	0.11	0.01	0.06	0.49	2.50	0.01			
2. Females	10	0.12	0.08	0.01	-0.03	0.27	1.56	0.12			
Total between (Q_B)									1.34	1	0.25

TABLE 19*Race*

Fixed effects analysis					95% confidence interval		Test of Mean		Test of heterogeneity in effect sizes		
<i>Race</i>	k	ES	SE	Variance	Lower	Upper	Z-value	P-value	Q-value	df (Q)	P-value
1. African American	4	0.12	0.03	0.00	-0.05	0.18	3.57	0.00	26.06	3	0.00
2. Hispanics	1	0.42	0.28	0.08	-0.12	0.96	1.51	0.13	0.00	0	1.00
3. White	4	0.11	0.05	0.00	0.02	0.20	1.32	0.02	12.89	3	0.00
Total within									38.98	6	0.00
Total between (Q_B)									1.22	2	0.55
Overall (Q_T)	9	0.11	0.03	0.00	0.07	0.17	4.42	0.00	40.16	8	0.04

TABLE 20*English Language Learners*

Fixed effects analysis					95% confidence interval		Test of Mean		Test of heterogeneity in effect sizes		
<i>Eng Language Learners</i>	k	ES	SE	Variance	Lower	Upper	Z-value	P-value	Q-value	df (Q)	P-value
ELL	3	0.29	0.05	0.00	0.20	0.38	6.27	0.00	0.05	2	0.975
Total within									0.05	2	0.975
Total between (Q_B)									0.00	0	1.00
Overall (Q_T)	3	0.29	0.05	0.00	0.20	0.38	6.27	0.00	0.05	2	0.975

KINDERGARTEN								
Study	Design Large/Small	Duration	N	Grade	Sample Characteristics	Posttest	Program Intensity	Overall ES
Comprehensive Models								
Writing to Read								
Stevenson et al. (1988)	Matched (S)	1 year	241 students (86E, 155C)	K	African American students in Washington, DC	MAT Reading	15-min daily	+0.35
Granick & Reid (1987)	Matched (S)	1 year	2 schools 73 students (37E, 36C)	K	High-poverty African American schools in Baltimore	MAT	15-min daily	+0.02
Voyager Universal Literacy System								
Frechtling et al. (2006)	Matched (L)	1 year	8 schools 398 students (202E, 196C)	K	High-poverty African American inner city schools	DIBELS/C TOPP/ Woodcock	portion of a daily 2-hr instructional block	+0.62
Hecht (2003)	Matched (S)	5 months	4 schools (101E, 112C)	K	High-poverty African American schools	Woodcock	portion of a daily 2-hr instructional block	+0.06
Supplemental CAI Programs								
Waterford Early Reading Program								
Paterson et al. (2003)	Matched (L)	1 year	16 classes (8E, 8C) (49E, 59C)	K	High-poverty community in western New York	Clay Word Recognition Test	15-min daily	0.00
Tracey & Young (2006)	Matched (L)	1 year	15 classes (8E, 7C) 265 children (151E, 114C)	K	High-minority northeastern community	TERA-2	15-min daily	+0.47
The Literacy Center (LeapFrog)								
RMC (2004)	Randomized Quasi- Experiment (L)	1 year	6 schools 258 students (126E, 132C)	K	High-poverty schools in Las Vegas, 30% ELL	Gates MacGinitie DIBELS	20-30 min daily	+0.14
Destination Reading								
Barnett (2006)	Matched (L)	1 year	15 classes (8E, 7C)	K	High-poverty high-minority community in FL	DIBELS Clay Word Recognition Dolch	2x 20-min weekly (minimum)	-0.53

Study	Design Large/Small	Duration	N	Grade	Sample Characteristics	Posttest	Program Intensity	Overall ES
ELEMENTARY								
Comprehensive Models								
Writing to Read								
Collis, Ollila & Ollila (1990)	Matched (S)	1 year	97 students (53E, 44C)	1	Schools in British Columbia, Canada	SAT	15-min daily	+0.27
Beasley (1989)	Matched (S)	6 months	74 students (42E, 32C)	1	Middle-class students in Athens, AL; 82%W, 18%AA	SESAT-2	15-min daily	+0.19
Innovative Technology Applications								
Reading Reels								
B. Chambers et al. (2006)	Randomized (L)	1 year	10 schools 394 students (189E, 205C)	1	High-poverty schools in Hartford, CT 61% H, 35% AA	Woodcock/ DIBELS	5-min daily	+0.17
B. Chambers et al. (2008)	Randomized (S)	1 year	2 schools 159 students (75E, 84C)	1	Hispanic students in high-poverty schools in Los Angeles and Las Vegas	Woodcock/ GORT	20-min daily	+0.27
Fast ForWord								
Marion (2004)	Matched (L)	1 year	349 students (215E, 134C)	5,6	Schools in Appalachian TN; 52% FL, 100% W	Terra Nova	Not stated	+0.25
Scientific Learning (2006)	Matched (S)	15 weeks	142 students (55E, 87C)	5,6	Middle class schools in Northwest OH	Gates MacGinitie	Not stated	+0.11
Rouse & Krueger (2004)	Randomized (L)	1 year	4 schools 454 students (237E, 217C)	3-6	High-poverty northeastern city schools 59%FL, 66%H, 27% AA, 61% ELL	Connecticut Mastery Test	90-100 min daily	+0.05
Lightspan								
Birch (2002)	Matched post hoc (S)	2 years	101 students (50E, 51C)	2,3	Schools in the Caesar Rodney School District in DE	SAT	60-min weekly (minimum)	+0.42

Study	Design Large/Small	Duration	N	Grade	Sample Characteristics	Posttest	Program Intensity	Overall ES
Computer-Managed Learning Systems								
Accelerated Reader								
Knox (1996)	Randomized (S)	3 months	77 students (40E, 37C)	3,4	Low SES students in a southeastern state. 72% FL, 79% W, 13% AA, 8%H.	DRS & SAT	portion of a daily 60-min reading program	-0.03
Yee (2007)	Matched (L)	1 year	3 schools (1E, 2C) 2072 students (612E, 1460C)	2-5	Majority-Hispanic schools in Los Angeles Co. 92% FL, 79% H, 17%	CST	portion of a daily 60-min reading program	+0.06
Nurnery & Ross (2007)	Matched (L)	1 year	18 schools 912 students (450E, 462C)	5	4 middle schools in a suburban Texas school district	TAAS	portion of a daily 60-min reading program	+0.22
Supplemental CAI Programs								
Destination Reading								
Campuzano et al. (2009)	Randomized (L)	1 year	21 teachers (21E, 14C) 742 students (448 E, 294C)	1	Schools across the U.S. 71% FL, 31% AA, 34%H, 34% W	SAT-10	2x20-min weekly (minimum)	+0.09
Rabiner et al (2010)	Randomized (S)	1 year	5 schools 77 students (52E, 25C)	1	Mostly African American and Hispanic students in the southeastern United States	WJIII	2x60-min weekly	+0.26
Headspout								
Campuzano et al. (2009)	Randomized (L)	1 year	63 teachers (32E, 31C) 1,079 students (574E, 505C)	1	Schools across the U.S. 35% FL, 81% W, 13% AA, 67% H	SAT-10	3x30-min weekly	+0.01
Plato Focus								
Campuzano et al. (2009)	Randomized (L)	1 year	29 teachers (15E, 14C) 618 students (327E, 291C)	1	Schools across the U.S. 48% FL, 67%W, 27% H, 5% AA	SAT-10	15-30 min daily	+0.02

Study	Design Large/Small	Duration	N	Grade	Sample Characteristics	Posttest	Program Intensity	Overall ES
Waterford Early Reading Program								
Campuzano et al. (2009)	Randomized (L)	1 year	46 teachers (28E, 18C) 1,155 students (689E, 466C)	1	Schools across the U.S. 47%FL, 37%AA, 16%H	SAT-10	17-30 min daily	+0.02
Cassady & Smith (2005)	Matched (S)	1 year	6 classes (3E, 3C) 93 students (46E, 47C)	1	School in rural midwest	Terra Nova Reading	20-min daily	+0.71
Lexia								
Macaruso, Hook, & McCabe (2006)	Matched (S)	7 months	5 schools 10 classes (5 E, 5C) 179 students (92 E, 87 C)	1	Boston area 50% FL	Gates MacGinitie	2-4 x 20-30 min weekly	+0.20
The Literacy Center (LeapFrog)								
RMC (2004)	Randomized Quasi- Experiment (S)	1 year	6 schools 195 students (109E, 86C)	1	High-poverty schools in Las Vegas, 30% ELL	Gates MacGinitie DIBELS	20-30 min daily	-0.04
Erdner, Guy, & Bush (1997)	Matched (S)	1 year	2 schools 85 students (45E, 40C)	1	Schools in north central OK	CTBS	3x20-min weekly	+0.75
Reading Machine								
Abram (1984)	Randomized (S)	12 weeks	103 students (53E, 50C)	1	Not stated	ITBS	3x15-min weekly	+0.29
Academy of Reading								
Campuzano et al. (2009)	Randomized (L)	1 year	41 teachers (22E, 19C) 899 students (495E, 404C)	4	Schools across the U.S. 65%FL, 54%AA, 29%H, 17%W	SAT-10	3x25-min weekly (minimum)	-0.01
LeapTrack								
Campuzano et al. (2009)	Randomized (L)	1 year	55 teachers (29E, 26C) 1274 students (665E, 609C)	4	Schools across the U.S. 61%FL, 57%AA, 33%W, 10%H	SAT-10	3x15-min weekly (minimum)	+0.09

Study	Design Large/Small	Duration	N	Grade	Sample Characteristics	Posttest	Program Intensity	Overall ES
Jostens (Earlier form of Compass Learning)								
Alifrangis (1991)	Randomized (S)	1 year	12 classes (6 E, 6 C)	4-6	School at an army base near Washington, D.C. 37% minority.	CTBS Reading	3x20-min weekly	+0.15
Becker (1994)	Randomized (S)	1 year	1 school 187 students	2-5	Inner city Baltimore High poverty.	CAT	3x30-min weekly	+0.09
Standish (1995)	Matched (S)	1 year	2 schools 139 students (56E, 83C)	2	Students in suburban DE	MAT 6 Reading Comprehension	2x25-min weekly	+0.05
Estep (1997)	Matched post hoc (S)	4 years	106 schools (53E, 53C)	3	Elementary schools in IN	ISTEP	not stated	+0.03
Sinkis (1993)	Matched (L)	1 year	422 students (228E, 194C)	3, 5, 6	Chapter One students in a large urban school system in the northeast	MAT	3x20-min weekly	+0.12
Compass Learning								
Kadel Research Consulting (2006)	Matched post hoc (L)	2 years	598 students (159, 439C)	4,5	Garfield Heights, OH 50% FL, 63% W, 24% H, 13% AA	OAT	120-min Monthly	+0.29
CCC Successmaker								
Campbell (2000)	Matched (L)	1 year	13 schools (7 E, 6 C) 701 students (310E, 391C)	4,5	Middle class students in Etowah, AL	SAT	10-15 min daily	-0.02
Ragosta (1983)	Matched (L)	3 years	6 schools (4E, 2C) Eight 1-year cohorts Three 2-year cohorts One 3-year cohort	4-6	High poverty schools in Los Angeles	CTBS	10-20 min daily	+0.17
Saracho (1982)	Matched (L)	1 year	256 students (128E, 128C)	3-6	Spanish-speaking migrant students	CTBS Reading	180-min weekly	-0.09

Study	Design Large/Small	Duration	N	Grade	Sample Characteristics	Posttest	Program Intensity	Overall ES
<u>Classworks Gold</u>								
Whitaker (2005)	Matched post hoc (S)	1 year	2 schools 220 students (123E, 97C)	4,5	Schools in rural Tennessee, 62% Low SES.	TCAP	2x45-min weekly	-0.14
<u>My Reading Coach</u>								
Vaughan, Serido, & Wilhelm (2006)	Randomized (L)	1 year	4 schools 284 students (127E, 157C)	2-4	Predominately minority students from 4 schools in 3 states; 27% ELLs, 36% AA, 36% H, 22% W	GRADE	3-4 x 45-min weekly	+0.24
<u>WICAT</u>								
Miller (1997)	Matched post hoc (L)	3 years	30 schools (10E, 20C)	3-5	New York City Public Schools, almost all AA or Hispanic, 1/6 ESL	DRP	15-min daily	+0.02
Clayton (1992)	Matched post hoc (L)	1 year	5 schools (1E, 4C) 426 students (181E, 245C)	2-5	Schools in northwest SC. 46% FL, 59%W, 39% AA	CTBS	25-min daily	-0.01
<u>Open Book to Literacy</u>								
Williams (2005)	Matched (S)	1 year	2 schools (1E, 1C) 127 students (66E, 61C)	4	High-poverty schools in Memphis, 51% W, 24% H, 21% AA	TORC	30-min daily	+0.28
<u>Award Reading</u>								
Block et al (2007)	Matched (L)	20 weeks	1138 students (569E, 569C)	K, 1	High-poverty schools in Texas, New Jersey, and New York	Word Reading DIBELS	some technology daily	+0.11
<u>Lexia</u>								
Faux (2004)	Matched (L)	1 year	268 students (137E, 131C)	1-3	Low achieving students in Boston public schools	DRA	60-min weekly	+0.07

Study	Design Large/Small	Duration	N	Grade	Sample Characteristics	Posttest	Program Intensity	Overall ES
Kid Biz3000								
Tracey & Young (2004)	Matched (S)	1 year	5 schools 168 students (84E, 84C)	5	Mostly white students in a small, northeast city in New York	Vocabulary SRI Comprehension	2x 40-min weekly	+0.17
Multimedia CD-ROM								
Schardt (1997)	Randomized (S)	12 weeks	96 students (48E, 48C)	3, 4	Hispanic LEP students in Tyler, Texas	TAAS	15-20 min daily	+0.18
Computer-assisted remedial reading instruction (CARRI)								
Saine et al (2010)	Randomized (S)	28 weeks intervention/ 2 year follow up	50 students (25E, 25C)	1	P1 Finnish students in a middle-class suburban area	Letter knowledge/ Reading fluency	4x45-min weekly	+0.64
Compass Learning Odyssey								
DiLeo (2007)	Randomized Quasi- Experiment (S)	1 year	4 schools 207 students (125E, 82C)	5	Mostly White students in a low SES school district in central PA	PSSA	30-min daily	-0.38
Read About								
James-Burdumy et al (2009)	Randomized (L)	1	2613 students (1246E, 1367C)	5	Mostly White students in 10 districts across 8 states	TOSCRIF	2x40-min weekly	-0.04
ABRACADABRA								
Wolgemuth et al (2010)	Matched (S)	16 weeks	166 students (118E, 48C)	1, 2	Students from Northern Territory Indigenous classrooms in Australia	GRADE	4x30-min weekly	+0.10
Wolgemuth et al (2010)	Randomized (L)	1 semester	17 classes 308 students (163E, 145C)	K to Year 2	Students from six schools in three Northern Territory cities in Australia: Alice Springs, Darwin, Palmerston	GRADE	4x30-25 min weekly	+0.22

Study	Design Large/Small	Duration	N	Grade	Sample Characteristics	Posttest	Program Intensity	Overall ES
Savage et al (2010)	Randomized (L)	1	74 classrooms 1067 students (549E, 518C)	K to Year 2	23 non-dominant inner city and suburban schools from three Canadian provinces	Letter Sounds Blending Words Listening Comprehension	180-min weekly	+0.21
Other Supplemental CAI								
Dynarski et al (2007): Destination Reading Waterford Headsprout Plan Focus Academy of Reading	Randomized (L)	1 year	2619 students (1516E, 1103C)	1	National. 49%FL, 44% W, 31%AA, 22%H	SAT-9	About 20-min daily	+0.04
Dynarski et al (2007): Destination Reading Waterford Headsprout Plan Focus Academy of Reading	Randomized (L)	1 year	2265 students (1231E, 1034C)	4	National. 64%FL, 17% W, 57%AA, 23%H	SAT-9	About 20-min daily	+0.02
Ramey (1991)	Matched (L)	1 year	282 students (62E, 220C)	2-5	Urban Washington State	CAT-Reading	Not stated	+0.22
Bass, Ries, & Sharpe, (1986)	Matched (S)	1 year	2 schools (1E, 1C) 145 students (73 E, 72 C)	5,6	High-poverty schools in rural VA	SRA/ Virginia Basic Learning Skills	30-min weekly	+0.18
Easterling (1982) (MicroSystem 80)	Randomized (S)	4 months	2 schools 42 students (21E, 21C)	5	Schools in suburban school district	CAT Reading Comprehension	2x15-min weekly	+0.01
Schmidt (1991) (Wasatch ILS)	Matched (L)	1 year	4 schools (2E, 2C) 1,224 students (646E, 578C)	2-6	Schools in Southern CA. 25% FL	CTBS	20-min daily	+0.04
Cooperman (1985)	Matched (L)	1 year	3 schools (1E, 2C) 470 students (204E, 266 C)	2-4	Students from 3 low to middle class schools. 86% W, 13% AA	CAT	10-min daily	-0.06
Bryg (1984)	Matched (S)	15 weeks	9 teachers (5E, 4C) 152 students (83E, 69C)	4	Large urban schools in Omaha, NE	CAT Reading Comprehension	not stated	+0.20

Study	Design Large/Small	Duration	N	Grade	Sample Characteristics	Posttest	Program Intensity	Overall ES
Roth & Beck (1987)	Matched (S)	1 year	6 classes (3E, 3C) 108 students (59E, 49C)	4	High-poverty low-achieving urban schools. 100% AA.	Woodcock Word Attack & CAT	3x20-min weekly	+0.38
Coomes (1985)	Matched (S)	1 year	4 schools 102 students (51E, 51C)	4	Middle class schools in TX. 90% W.	CTBS	30-min weekly	+0.02
Hoffman (1984)	Matched (S)	1 year	3 schools 96 students (51E, 45C)	3	Schools in suburban midwest 11% minority	Gates MacGinitie	10-min daily	-0.07
Levy (1985)	Matched post hoc (L)	1 year	4 schools 581 students (293E, 288C)	5	Suburban NY school district	SAT	3x20-min weekly	+0.19
SECONDARY								
Comprehensive Models								
Read 180								
White, Haslam, & Hewes (2006)	Matched (L)	1.5 years	1652 students (826E, 826C)	9, 10	Students with low reading scores in Phoenix, AZ	SAT-9 AIMS	90-min daily (20-min CAI)	+0.12
		1 semester	1630 students (815E, 815C)	9				
Papalewis (2004)	Matched (L)	1 year	1073 students (537E, 536C)	8 (mostly), retained	Low performing students in Los Angeles	SAT-9	90-min daily (20-min CAI)	+0.68
Mims, Lowther, Strahl, & Nunnery (2006)	Matched (L)	1 year	1000 students	6-9	Mostly African American students in Little Rock, AR	ITBS	90-min daily (20-min CAI)	-0.12
Interactive, Inc (2002)	Matched (L)	1 year	800 students (387E, 323C)	6-8	Two middle schools from each of Boston, Houston, Dallas, and Columbus	SAT-9	90-min daily (20-min CAI)	+0.24
Haslam, White, & Klinge (2006)	Matched (L)	1 year	614 students (307E, 307C)	7,8	Low performing students in Austin, TX	TAKS	90-min daily (20-min CAI)	+0.18

Study	Design Large/Small	Duration	N	Grade	Sample Characteristics	Posttest	Program Intensity	Overall ES
Woods (2007)	Matched (L)	1 year	268 students (134E, 134C)	6-8	Low-performing mostly African American students in southeastern Virginia	DRP & STAR	90-min every other day	+0.43
Caggiano (2007)	Matched (S)	1 year	120 students (60E, 60C)	6-8	Low-performing mostly African American students in southeastern Virginia	Virginia SOL	90-min every other day	+0.01
Nave (2007)	Matched post hoc (S)	1 year	110 students (80E, 30C)	7	At-risk students in Sevier County, TN	TCAP	90-min every other day	+1.58
Scholastic Research (2008)	Matched (L)	1 year	570 students (285E, 285C)	6, 7, 9	Mostly ELL students in the Desert Sands Unified School District in CA	CST_ELA	90-min (20- min CAI)	+0.14
Lang et al (2010)	Randomized (L)	1 year	599 students (307E, 292C)	9	Struggling readers in a low SES school district	FCAT	90-min daily (20-min CAI)	+0.04
Voyager Passport								
Shneyderman (2006)	Matched (L)	1 year	8 schools (4E, 4C) 847 students (453E, 394C)	9, 10	Mostly Hispanic ESL students in Miami, FL	FCAT	Not stated	+0.17
Denson (2008)	Matched (S)	1 year	1 school 182 students (123E, 59C)	9	Mostly Hispanic students in a low SES urban high school	TAKS	Not stated	+0.38
Innovative Technology Applications								
Carry-a-Tune (CAT)								
Biggs et al (2008)	Matched (S)	16 weeks	1 school 46 students (24E, 22C)	7, 8	Mostly White students in a low SES rural middle school in Florida	Qualitative Reading Inventory	3x30-min weekly	+1.02
Computer-Managed Learning Systems								
Accelerated Reader								
Nurnery & Ross (2007)	Matched (L)	1 year	4 schools 848 students (400E, 448C)	8	4 middle schools in a suburban Texas school district	TAAS	portion of a daily 60-min reading program	+0.38

Study	Design Large/Small	Duration	N	Grade	Sample Characteristics	Posttest	Program Intensity	Overall ES
Supplemental CAI Programs								
Jostens								
Hunter (1994)	Matched (L)	28 weeks	6 schools (3E, 3C) 270 students (135E, 135C)	6-8	Schools in rural Jefferson County, Georgia	ITBS	30-min daily	+0.31
Computer Curriculum Corporation								
Liston (1991)	Matched post- hoc (L)	1 year	49 schools (26E, 23C) 4597 students (2,288E, 2,309C) in 2 cohorts	10	Remedial students in South Carolina; 72% African American and 28% White	South Carolina Exit Exam	Not stated	+0.06
Other Supplemental CAI								
Chiang, Stauffer, and Cannara (1978)	Matched (S)	1 year	8 schools (4E, 4C) 168 students (99E, 69C)	Junior high school	Special education students in Cupertino, CA	PIAT	33-min weekly	+0.14
Metrics Associates (1981)	Matched (S)	1 year	105 students (70E, 35C)	7-9	Two Massachusetts school districts	MAT reading	10-min daily	+0.56