

# The Impact of Sending Top College Graduates to Rural Primary Schools\*

Masyhur A. Hilmy  
Boston University

June 2022

## Abstract

Teacher quality is crucial to deliver good education. However, improving teacher quality in developing countries can be a tough problem. This paper investigates the impact of a teacher placement program that sends college graduates with a strong academic track record to teach in rural primary schools in Indonesia on student test scores. Using a difference-in-difference approach, I find that exposure to program teachers for a semester is associated with a 0.16 standard deviation increase in their students' average mathematics scores. The weakest students benefited more, with an increase in score by 0.20 standard deviation. Students receiving direct instructions from program teachers during scheduled classroom periods benefited even more. Attracting better talents to teach in rural schools could be an important pathway to improve the academic achievements of the weakest students at rural schools.

**Keywords:** education, alternative teacher placement, Indonesia

**JEL Codes:** I21, I24, I25, O15

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# 1 Introduction

Teacher quality is crucial to deliver good education (Chetty et al. 2014; Glewwe et al. 2013). However, rural schools often struggle to meet this promise (Chaudhury et al. 2006). Selection into teaching is a key issue—education majors in colleges and universities do not attract the brightest talents, and few of them relish the career prospect in rural schools. Teacher absenteeism is rampant. Even when the teachers are present, the students are still often left with teachers who do not master their lessons, or do not know how to teach, or both (Bold et al. 2019). To address these problems, governments and NGOs invest significant resources in a variety of interventions, but much remains unknown about their effectiveness (Evans and Popova 2016).

This paper studies a program that places college graduates with strong academic and leadership backgrounds to teach at schools in rural areas in Indonesia. In particular, I examine the Indonesia Mengajar program, which has placed hundreds of teachers in rural schools since 2010.<sup>1</sup> Indonesia Mengajar recruits graduates of top Indonesian universities, trains them for 6–8 weeks, and then sends them as teachers to primary schools across 17 districts. Very few (<10%) Indonesia Mengajar recruits have studied education majors in college. Most of them majored in engineering, natural and social sciences, or literature and the humanities. This contrasts with the regular teacher force in the program districts, of which 90% have an education major. Program recruits are assigned to specific schools just before deployment, and they take their placements as given.

The Indonesia Mengajar program shares characteristics with Teach for America (TFA) and similar programs in other countries, although Indonesia Mengajar is not an official member of its network (Teach For All 2021). Each Indonesia Mengajar teacher is contracted to teach for a year in rural Indonesia, but the school can host a succession of program teachers for up to five years. Headmasters in the program schools assign the teachers to either teach students as homeroom teachers (who teach multiple subjects for a particular grade), or as subject teachers (who teach specific subjects such as mathematics across grades). Indonesia Mengajar teachers live near their assigned schools, and the students in a treatment school regularly interact with them. The program may improve student outcomes because it exposes students to teachers with stronger academic backgrounds and who are more consistently present.

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\* This project benefited from discussions with Aisy Ilfiyah, Ajeng Tri Handini, Frina Lin, Marliyanti, and Patrya Pratama, as well as participants of the Development Reading Group in Boston University. I am grateful to Galih Ramadian Nugroho Putra, Hikmat Hardono, Lizara Patriona, Subhanudin Husen, and the leadership in Indonesia Mengajar for facilitating various data access. The views expressed in this paper are those of the author and should not be attributed to the various individuals and organizations acknowledged above. Contact: mhilmy@bu.edu

<sup>1</sup>Disclosure: I was a teacher in the Indonesia Mengajar program, cohort V (November 2012–January 2014).

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In this paper, I investigate the impact of this program using a difference-in-difference strategy between treatment and comparison schools. The treatment schools are schools where Indonesia Mengajar placed their first cohort of teachers in 2010. The comparison schools are schools where Indonesia Mengajar placed subsequent cohorts and other never-treated schools located in close proximity to the treatment school ( $<3$  km). The program's impact is identified under the assumption that outcome trends would be similar in both treated and comparison schools in the absence of treatment. I estimate the impact of the Indonesia Mengajar program on the students' mathematics scores using the Ministry of Education's 2008–2011 examination score database. Because the 2011 examination took place before the second cohort of Indonesia Mengajar teachers were deployed, students in comparison schools had not been exposed to the program during the examination. This allows a comparison to be made to estimate the program's impact. At the same time, students in the treatment schools had been exposed to Indonesia Mengajar teachers for half a year, which allows the resulting estimates to be interpreted as the program's short-term impact. The Ministry's dataset records each school's minimum, average, and maximum mathematics scores. This allows us to investigate how the program teachers may impact students with various ability levels.

The results of this study show that exposure to Indonesia Mengajar teachers is associated with higher average mathematics scores by 0.14 points at the 10% statistical significance level, which is equivalent to a 0.16 standard deviation. Indonesia Mengajar teachers seem to be particularly more effective in teaching the weakest students, and they raise the minimum score by 0.20 points. Meanwhile, the estimated effect on the maximum examination score is positive, but it is lower than the effect on the average score and is not statistically significantly different than zero.

These estimates line up with the most recent randomized evaluation of Teach for America (TFA) in the US. Students of TFA teachers in grades 1-2 perform significantly better in mathematics by 0.16 standard deviations (Clark and Isenberg 2020). However, the TFA evaluation measured the impact to students after a longer exposure than the Indonesia Mengajar teachers in this study (i.e., a two-year tenure for TFA fellows vs. a half-year exposure to Indonesia Mengajar teachers at data collection). Suppose students benefit from more exposure to teachers with a stronger academic ability. In this case, the estimated short-term impact of the program may understate the total learning gains that the students received from the entire duration of the program.

These effects are driven by classroom instructions from Indonesia Mengajar teachers. To separate the effect of direct instruction from other changes (e.g., increased supervision) from the sub-district superintendents that the program's high-visibility status may have brought to treatment schools, I use Indonesia Mengajar organizational reports that record the teaching assignments for all of the first cohort teachers. I find that the mathematics score was higher for students with scheduled classroom instructions from Indonesia Men-

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gajar teachers: their mathematics classes are associated with 0.40 points higher scores.

The weakest students appear to benefit more from Indonesia Mengajar teachers' Indonesian and science classes than the mathematics classes. The estimated effects are 0.74 and 1.04 points for Indonesian and science classes, respectively. These results suggest that the students benefited both from the use of mathematics concepts in science lessons and from more intensive use of the national language. Although school examinations are written in the Indonesian language, most of the population speak local languages at home. Thus, comprehension problems may underlie the students' poor mathematics scores, and instructions that improve comprehension can boost performance.

The analysis in this paper contributes to several strands of literatures. First, I present new evidence of a Teach for America-style program from a developing country, where expanded schooling access in recent decades has typically led to universal enrollment with low learning levels. To the best of my knowledge, this study is the first evaluation of such a program outside the US and the UK. Since TFA's inception in 1990 and its first expansion to the UK as Teach First (TF) in 2003, this scheme has spread globally under the Teach for All (TFAll) network with affiliated programs currently operating in 60 countries, which include India, Peru, Nigeria, and many others (Teach for All, 2021). This figure excludes programs that are not officially part of the TFAll network but share similarities, such as the Teach First Norway and the Indonesia Mengajar program in Indonesia, which adds to the global influence of the TFA idea. Despite the rapid expansion, there is little empirical research on the impact of the TFAll programs outside of the two original countries (Thomas et al. 2021; see e.g., Clark and Isenberg 2020 and the references therein for TFA and Allen and Allnutt 2017 for TF).

This paper also adds evidence to the literature of interventions that send educated individuals to areas with a low level of learning. Two recent papers are related to this paper. Chen et al. (2020) evaluated the impact of the send-down movement in the 1960s People's Republic of China and found that exposure to educated urban youths affected by the mandate to resettle in the countryside increased rural children's educational achievement. In the Gambia, Eble et al. (2021) show that a bundled para-teacher intervention program modeled from a similar program in India (Lakshminarayana et al. 2013) led to a dramatic improvement in children's literacy and numeracy test results. This literature suggests that an effective intervention at a low baseline setting could lead to large gains in educational achievements.

More broadly, this paper also connects to the literature on the personnel economics of the state. This literature connects governance in developing countries with the public employees who perform government functions (Finan et al. 2017). Frontline service providers (e.g., teachers and nurses) play an instrumental part in the development process. The setting of this paper exemplifies the impact that talented individuals with prosocial

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leanings can have when they provide public good in remote areas (Ashraf et al. 2020).

I organize the remainder of this paper as follows. Section 2 describes the context of the program implementation. Section 3 outlines the empirical strategy. The results are described in Section 4. Finally, Section 5 concludes.

## 2 Context: The Indonesia Mengajar Program

### 2.1 Background and Recruitment Process

The *Indonesia Mengajar* program (literal translation: Indonesia Teaches) sends top university graduates to teach for a year in rural elementary schools across Indonesia. To become a teacher with the program, individuals apply through their website during the recruitment period. Applicants need to provide academic background information, complete essay prompts, and supply references. This initial screening will shortlist applicants based on academic strength. Shortlisted applicants are then invited to the interview rounds to participate in individual interviews, group discussions, and classroom simulations. The later-stage screening further selects on prosocial motivations and behaviors. Depending on the cohort, Indonesia Mengajar admits 33–75 individuals to participate in its pre-deployment training camp. With thousands of applicants per cohort, this translates to a highly selective admission rate of under one percent (Gozali 2020).

Indonesia Mengajar regularly attracts college graduates from top Indonesian universities. A college degree is required by Indonesian law to teach in primary schools. However, in practice 32% of primary school teachers in the 17 districts where the program operated did not meet this standard (Table 1, panel A). Whereas more than 90% of primary school teachers in these districts majored in education, Indonesia Mengajar teachers typically did not graduate from an education major. None of the teachers that made up its first cohort had an education degree. Among the teachers that it recruited until 2015, 1 in 10 held an education major (panel B). The majority of these teachers instead have degrees in various engineering and science fields, or in literature and the humanities. Meanwhile, the origin universities of Indonesia Mengajar recruits are highly placed in the national ranking, with the top 10 universities contributing more than half of its total teachers (Table 2).

Primary school teachers who graduated from the same universities as Indonesia Mengajar teachers scored higher on the nationwide competency test that the Ministry of Education held in 2015 than teachers in districts where the Indonesia Mengajar program operated. The Ministry’s threshold for the pass rate was 55/100, and the national average score was 53. Across Indonesia Mengajar operational districts, teachers score 48.6 on average,

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which is lower than both the passing threshold and the national average. In contrast, teachers who were educated in top universities, where 75% of the Indonesia Mengajar teachers graduated from, performed better in the test with a weighted average score of 74.4 (Table 3), even though most did not graduate from an education major.<sup>2</sup>

The Indonesia Mengajar program shares characteristics with Teach for All affiliate programs in various countries. It attracts applicants with strong academic leadership backgrounds, runs a highly selective screening process, trains recruits without formal education degrees, and contracts them to teach in low-income schools for a short period. The program was launched in 2010, which was a period of rapid expansion for the Teach for All network (Thomas et al. 2021). Nevertheless, Indonesia Mengajar is not an official member of the Teach For All network (Teach For All 2021). Instead, recruitment materials and other organizational publications refer to a send-down program that deployed college students from Java to teach high schools in the outer islands between 1951–1962 as its origin.<sup>3</sup>

## 2.2 School Selection

Between 2010–2015, Indonesia Mengajar sent teachers to 17 districts across Indonesia. These districts (Figure 1) agreed to receive Indonesia Mengajar teachers<sup>4</sup> and they are typical of less-developed districts that routinely suffer a high rate of teacher absenteeism. These include border districts, areas nearby Java with poor performance, and other remote districts.<sup>5</sup>

To select the target schools within the district, Indonesia Mengajar looked for schools with demonstrable needs. These schools often lack (permanent) teachers due to their

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<sup>2</sup>This unintuitive relationship between low teacher competency score and their education degree could be driven by several characteristics of the higher education system in Indonesia. First, education college degrees are predominantly offered by private institutions, which on average are of lower quality than public universities. Wicaksono and Friawan (2011) noted that about 75% of PhDs in Indonesia are concentrated in just four public universities (UI, ITB, UGM, and IPB, which are all located in Java and are major contributors to Indonesia Mengajar teacher recruits). Another factor is student sorting. High school graduates with a high ability sort into top universities and lower quality students sort into education majors, which have a less strict screening process. The sorting effect may also be exacerbated by the differential survival rates of education majors by ability. A high-performing college student with an education major may choose to exit the field for a better paying job than a low-paying entry-level teaching job (Chang et al. 2014).

<sup>3</sup>*Pengerahan Tenaga Mahasiswa/College Student Send-down.*

<sup>4</sup>Agreement by the district depended on the cooperation of the district’s education office but in early cohorts the district head/Bupati and the head of district education office would be honored with a reception at the Vice President’s office before the deployment of the Indonesia Mengajar teachers to the destination districts. Then Vice President Boediono was a personal supporter of the program.

<sup>5</sup>Initially, there were 14 districts in the first year (2010–2011). However, conflict between the state military and the Aceh separatist movements forced the program’s relocation from Aceh Utara to Musi Banyuasin and Muara Enim in South Sumatera. In November 2012, Indonesia Mengajar re-added Aceh Utara and added Banggai to its program districts, bringing the total to 17 districts.

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location in remote areas (e.g., in a small island or mountain range beyond the electricity grid and cell coverage). Within a district, Indonesia Mengajar also considers the geographical spread. A local contact listed prospective schools that program officers visited from Jakarta before finalizing the school selection. Every year Indonesia Mengajar sends teachers to 4–10 schools per district, and each target elementary school receives one Indonesia Mengajar teacher.

Indonesia Mengajar send teachers to a school for up to five years. However, because each teacher is only contracted to teach for a year, the school will receive a new Indonesia Mengajar teacher every year for the duration of the program. The target schools take teachers placements from Indonesia Mengajar as given, but the headmasters have discretion in assigning teaching duties to the Indonesia Mengajar teachers.

### **2.3 Teacher Preparation, Assignment, and Deployment**

Indonesia Mengajar sends two cohorts per year: one in November–December and another in July. The organization views them as equivalent. The staggered timing happened because the recruitment drive for the first cohort was so unexpectedly successful, with more than 1,300 completed applications for just 51 places that the organization saw it fit to expand its operation into two recruitment-deployment cycles per year (Gozali 2021).

Indonesia Mengajar prepares the teachers that they recruited with a 6–8 week intensive preparation camp. During this pre-deployment camp, the teachers receive pedagogy training from education experts, study the national curriculum standards for grades 1–6, take part in classrooms practicums, and participate in leadership exercises.

The assignment of teachers to program districts and individual schools is conducted in the latter half of the training camp. The aim is to achieve a balance in the following dimension across districts: gender, religion, and STEM/humanity majors. The majority of teachers come from Java. However, for those who are not from Java, the program favors teachers from eastern Indonesia for assignments in the western region, and vice versa. Indonesia Mengajar does not take the teachers' personal assignment preferences into account, and the teachers take their district and school assignments as given.

Headmasters in the program schools assign the teachers to either teach students as home-room teachers or across grades as subject teachers. In the afternoon, many give extra lessons to students, teach at nearby secondary schools, or hold Quran reading classes. During their yearlong tenure at the assigned school, the organization also charges individual teachers to provide training to other teachers and engage in education advocacy with local stakeholders.

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Table 4 shows that half of the first cohort teachers were homeroom teachers, while the other half teaching as subject teachers. While Indonesia Mengajar teachers had frequent contacts with students of all grades, their interactions with the sixth grade students merit further details. Indonesia Mengajar teachers who taught across grades were often assigned grade 6 for the specific subjects that they were teaching, while homeroom Indonesia Mengajar teachers for grades 1–5 often teach multiple classes simultaneously (including grade 6) because they substitute absent teachers. Beyond regular school hours, many Indonesia Mengajar teachers also provide afternoon lessons for grade six students in preparation for the exit examination. Overall, more than three-fifths of them interacted with students in grade six during scheduled instruction time, but a higher proportion could impact these students in practice.

### 3 Empirical Strategy

#### 3.1 Regression Specification and Data

I estimate the impact of the Indonesia Mengajar program using a difference-in-difference approach. Essentially, I compare treated and control schools before and after program implementation. The identification in this approach relies on the assumption of parallel trends (i.e., that outcome trends would be similar in both treated and comparison schools in the absence of treatment). The treated group consists of schools receiving the first cohort of Indonesia Mengajar teachers. The control group is a mixture of schools that will receive Indonesia Mengajar teachers after the first cohort and other primary schools near the treated school that did not receive Indonesia Mengajar teachers.

The empirical strategy leverages the unsynchronized timing between primary students' grade 6 exit examination and the program teacher deployments. Indonesian primary school students sit for an exit examination at the end of their sixth grade, which usually took place in May. In 2011, this examination took place two months before the second Indonesia Mengajar deployment in July, and grade 6 students in comparison schools where Indonesia Mengajar was to send the second cohort remained unexposed to program teachers. Meanwhile, students in the treatment schools had been exposed to the program since November 2010, which allows us to interpret the resulting estimates as the program's impact after six months.<sup>6</sup>

The basic regression specification is

$$Score_{st} = \alpha + \sum_t \beta_t IM_s \times year_t + \gamma IM_s + \sum_t \delta_t year_t + \varepsilon_{st}, \quad (1)$$

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<sup>6</sup>While a longer term evaluation with a panel data that extends beyond 2011 would also be of interest, I do not have access to this dataset.



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where  $Score_{st}$  is the school  $s$ 's examination score in year  $t$ ,  $IM_s$  is a dummy variable for the treatment schools where Indonesia Mengajar sent their first cohort teachers, and  $year_t$  is a set of year dummy with 2010 as the omitted year. Our coefficient of interest is  $\beta_{2011}$ , which represents the impact of exposure to Indonesia Mengajar teachers at program schools.

The dataset for this analysis comes from the Indonesian Ministry of Education's 2008–2011 records. Because the dataset has a panel structure, I can estimate an alternate specification with fixed effects, as follows:

$$Score_{st} = \alpha + \sum_t \beta_t IM_s \times year_t + schoolFE_s + \delta_t + \varepsilon_{st}. \quad (2)$$

The inclusion of school fixed effects allows me to adjust for characteristics that do not vary with time but which could influence the outcomes, such as location-specific characteristics. The estimates from this equation will be my preferred specification throughout the analysis. The standard errors are clustered two-way at the school level and at the year level (Cameron et al. 2010).

The dataset recorded the scores for examinations that covered materials from grades 4–6. The examinations were not identical across regions because they were written by committees at the province level. In writing the examinations, provincial committees were required to use questions from the national test bank and locally written tests in a 25–75 proportion. Nevertheless, the mathematics examinations were likely to be comparable across regions for two reasons. First, the mathematics curriculum in grade 4–6 was structured with significant overlaps in topics across grades (e.g. fractions and integer operations are progressively covered every year in the January semester). This consolidates the possible range of topics for the examination to test at the examination into just several core topics. Furthermore, the committees were also bound by a legal guide in the form of a ministerial decree that explicitly stipulates the competencies to include in the examination (see, e.g. Education Ministry Decree No.2/2011). These provided assurances on the comparability of the mathematics examinations across regions and years.<sup>7</sup>

The Ministry dataset records the minimum, average, and maximum mathematics scores for each school. These scores should reflect the ability of the weakest student in class, the average student, as well as the strongest student. These details allow an investigation of the impact of program teachers on students with various ability levels.

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<sup>7</sup>The comparability is harder to establish for examinations in other subjects such as the Indonesian language and science. The 2011 Ministerial Decree listed 34–43% more competencies to cover in the examination for the subjects of Indonesian language and science (30 and 26, respectively, compared to 17 for mathematics). These stemmed from heavier loads in its grade 4–6 curriculum with 24 and 27 competencies to cover for Indonesian and science without overlaps across grades, whereas mathematics only has 21 competencies with significant overlaps.

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## 3.2 Classroom Instructions

If there are other changes to treatment schools concurrent with the program implementation, then this would undermine the interpretation of the estimated coefficient of interest as the impact due to the Indonesia Mengajar teachers. Here I examine a possible scenario in which the program led to existing teachers increasing their efforts after the Indonesia Mengajar teachers arrived. This could be triggered by the program’s high-visibility status, which brought more awareness and supervision from the headmaster on other teachers or even from the subdistrict superintendents. In this case, the estimated effects are still arguably a result of the program, although these would be indirect effect instead of being directly due to the Indonesia Mengajar teachers.

To separate the effect of direct instruction, I use Indonesia Mengajar organizational reports that recorded the teaching assignments for all first cohort teachers. I estimate the coefficients for an alternate specification where I interact the Indonesia Mengajar exposure dummy variable with whether the Indonesia Mengajar teachers have a scheduled classroom instruction time on mathematics, Indonesian, or science (other two-way interaction terms that are collinear are collapsed).

$$\begin{aligned} Score_{st} = & \alpha + \sum_t \phi_t IM_s \times Y6subject_s \times year_t \\ & + \sum_t \beta_t IM_s \times year_t + schoolFE_s + \delta_t + \varepsilon_{st}. \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

In this specification,  $Y6subject_s$  is the dummy variable for scheduled instruction time for grade six in one of the three subjects. The variable  $Y6subject_s$  takes on a value of 1 if the Indonesia Mengajar teacher in school  $s$  is teaching mathematics either as a homeroom teacher or a subject teacher, and is 0 otherwise, and is reported in the regression table as  $Y6Math$ . Following this definition, about one third of the treated schools have a scheduled instruction time for mathematics (Table 4). Indonesian and science instruction are constructed in the same way, and are reported as  $Y6Indonesian$  and  $Y6Science$ , respectively. As before, the 2010 year is the omitted category for the year dummies.

The coefficient  $\phi_{2011}$  allows us to assess the effect of scheduled classroom instructions directly from Indonesia Mengajar teachers beyond the effect of being in a school where an Indonesia Mengajar teacher has been assigned. Specifically for mathematics instruction, I make an additional comparison between treated schools where the Indonesia Mengajar teacher is teaching mathematics and treated schools where the Indonesia Mengajar teacher is not teaching mathematics. The estimates that I recover will be equivalent to running the specification in equation (2) with the  $Y6math_s$  dummy in place of the  $IM_s$  for the sub-sample of treated schools, while avoiding the loss of precision from discarding observations in the study sample. The differential impact of scheduled instruction time

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is thus identified under the assumption of parallel trends for schools assigned Indonesia Mengajar teachers who taught mathematics and schools receiving Indonesia Mengajar teachers who did not teach mathematics. I describe the estimation results in the next section.

## 4 Results

### 4.1 Main Results

I find that exposure to Indonesia Mengajar teachers is associated with higher average mathematics score for their students: the coefficient  $\beta_{2011}$  for the mean score is 0.14 points, and is statistically different than zero at a 10% significance level (Table 5, column 1). Compared to the 0.9 points standard deviation of mean score among control schools in 2010, the estimated effect for mean mathematics score is equivalent to a 0.16 standard deviation.

Indonesia Mengajar teachers seem to be particularly effective in teaching the weakest students, raising the minimum score by 0.20 points (0.20 standard deviation, column 2). Meanwhile, the estimated effect on the maximum examination score is positive at 0.08 points, but is lower than the effect on the average score and not significantly different than zero (column 3).

The impact on mathematics scores for the Indonesia Mengajar program lines up with benchmark estimates from TFA, which is the most evaluated program of its kind (Turner et al. 2018). The most recent randomized evaluation of the program show that students of TFA teachers in grades 1–2 perform significantly better in mathematics by 0.16 standard deviations (Clark and Isenberg 2020). This finding is in line with earlier randomized evaluation results in Decker et al. (2004), which reports a better performance of TFA students in mathematics by 0.15 standard deviations. In middle and high school, Clark et al. (2013) reports that TFA teachers increased their students’ mathematics achievements by 0.07 standard deviations. In England and Wales, a difference-in-difference evaluation of Teach First shows positive and statistically significant improvements of the students’ General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) score by 0.05 and 0.08 standard deviations in year 2 and 3 of TF rollout (Allen and Allnutt 2017).

It is worth noting that the aforementioned TFA and TF evaluations measured the impact to students after a longer exposure than the Indonesia Mengajar teachers in this study. Fellows with the TFA and TF programs typically teach for a two-year period, while Indonesia Mengajar teachers are only contracted to teach for a year. In practice, for this study, the students were observed just six months after the start of Indonesia Mengajar

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teachers deployment to treated schools (November 2010–May 2011). Suppose that students benefit from more exposure to Indonesia Mengajar teachers who have a stronger academic ability. In this case, the estimates in this study may understate the total learning gains that the students in treated schools achieved during the entire duration of the program.

This was the case for an intervention in India that provided government schools with contract teachers (“balsakhi”) to work with students who are falling behind their peers. An evaluation of this intervention in Vadodara and Mumbai showed that the remedial education program increased average test scores in the treatment schools by 0.14 standard deviations in the first year, and 0.28 in the second year (Banerjee et al. 2007). More generally, McEwan’s (2015) meta-analysis for education interventions in developing countries highlighted the potential of using contract teachers to improve student achievements. In his review, he identified eight studies with a contract or volunteer teacher intervention, which have a mean effect size of 0.10 standard deviations on student achievements. However, he noted that these interventions often implied a reduction in class size, and it is still not clear whether smaller classes are a necessary condition for the effectiveness of contract teachers.

The program’s effects on the average student and the highest scoring student do not attain precision at the conventional statistical significance level of 5%, which may be caused by Indonesia Mengajar dummy variable recording student exposure with noise. While more than 60% of Indonesia Mengajar teachers had a class schedule with grade 6 students in any subjects, not all of them did.<sup>8</sup> The next subsection explores the role of scheduled classroom instructions.

## 4.2 Classroom Instructions

The estimated effects on the average and minimum mathematics examination scores appears to be driven by classroom instructions from Indonesia Mengajar teachers. Table 6 shows the estimated coefficients for the interaction with a dummy variable for mathematics instruction. The magnitude of the interaction terms’ coefficients suggests that classroom instructions drove the main result. The mean score increased by 0.25 points (significant at 10% level), the minimum score by 0.40 points (at 5% level), and the maximum score by 0.29 points (not statistically significant). For the weakest students, this is a meaningful increase. This increase may bring their score from an average of 3.7 to above

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<sup>8</sup>An ideal evaluation using the same difference in differences approach for this program would prospectively collect grade-level measures of academic ability using the same test for students in both treated and comparison schools. The econometrician could then estimate the program effect while taking into accounts the difference in teacher assignments across treated schools (cf. Banerjee et al. 2007). Unfortunately, the Indonesia Mengajar program did not embed such evaluation plan in their roll-out and the ministry only collected school-level statistics for the exit examination for grade 6.

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a 4.0 mark, which is the guideline threshold for graduation as outlined in the ministry regulation.<sup>9</sup>

The higher impact for the weaker student's test score is consistent no matter through which subject the Indonesia Mengajar teachers taught them. When the students were exposed to the Indonesia Mengajar teachers through classroom instruction in Indonesian, the minimum mathematics score increased by 0.74 points, which is higher than the estimated effect for mean score at 0.08 points (not significant, Table 7). For Indonesia Mengajar teachers teaching science (Table 8), the minimum mathematics score has the biggest estimated effect of all with an increase of 1.04 points, which is again higher than the mean score with an increase of 0.72 points. All of the estimated effects for minimum mathematics score are significantly different than zero at the 5% level. None of the estimates for maximum mathematics scores are statistically significant.

These results suggest the students benefited from the use of mathematics concepts in science lessons and more intensive use of the national language. Nationwide, only one in four individuals use Indonesian at home, and most of the population speak local languages at home. Because the examinations were written in Indonesian, this could suggest that comprehension problems underlie the students' poor mathematics scores, and instructions that improve comprehension can boost performance.

## 5 Conclusion

Does an alternative teacher placement program that sends college graduates with strong academic and leadership backgrounds to teach rural primary schools impact student outcomes? In this paper, I compare the mathematics score between program and control schools using a difference-in-difference strategy using the national exit examination dataset from the Ministry of Education. I find that teachers deployed by the Indonesia Mengajar program raised the mean score by a 0.16 standard deviation, which was significant at 10% level. The weakest students benefited most from exposure to the program, with an increase of 0.20 standard deviation, which is more precisely estimated at 5% level. The estimated effects are higher for the weakest students who had classroom time with program teachers, with bigger gains from Indonesian and science instruction of up to 1.04 points.

This study provides new evidence on programs that are modeled on a Teach for America program from a developing country. TFA-style programs have spread globally based on the idea that they are an effective intervention to address achievement gaps in rural

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<sup>9</sup>Education Minister Decree 59/2011 stipulated that secondary schools students can graduate if they score at least 4.0 in their final score in all of their examination subjects. The final score is a weighted average of the examination score (60%) and semester report cards (40%).

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or disadvantaged areas. However, virtually no rigorous evaluation has been done in countries other than the US and the UK. This study presents the first attempt to estimate the causal impact of such programs outside the original two countries. The findings from this evaluation suggest that especially for the weakest students in rural schools, improvements in their teacher quality may lead to meaningful academic improvements in their achievements. At the same time, the low level of baseline achievements may have been driving the positive results here. Finally, the education policy community would stand to benefit from more empirical studies on similar programs.

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Figure 1: Districts where Indonesia Mengajar sent teachers in 2010-2015 (Cohorts 1-10).

Table 1: Comparison of Indonesia Mengajar teachers and other teachers by education level and college majors

	IM Cohort 1		IM 2010-2015		Other teachers	
	N	percent	N	percent	N	percent
<b>Highest education level</b>						
High school or lower					10,274	21%
Associate degree					5,470	11%
Bachelor's degree or higher	51	100%	614	100%	32,323	67%
<b>College majors (for holders of associate degree or higher)</b>						
Education (primary school)			6	1%	23,251	62%
Education (other than primary school)			64	10%	10,787	29%
Engineering and Computer Science	12	24%	81	13%	44	<1%
Literature and Humanities	10	20%	68	11%	266	1%
Economics, Business, Management	4	8%	63	10%	146	<1%
Communications	2	4%	57	9%	13	<1%
Public Admin, Poli Sci, Intl Relations	6	12%	53	9%	66	<1%
Basic Sciences	3	6%	49	8%	343	1%
Psychology	6	12%	48	8%		
Forest, Marine, Agriculture	3	6%	35	6%	21	<1%
Medicine, Pharmacy, Health			34	6%	3	<1%
Law			19	3%	45	<1%
Architecture, Planning and Development	2	4%	17	3%		
Art and Design	1	2%	11	2%	36	<1%
Other	2	4%	9	1%	694	2%
N/A					2,078	5%
<b>Total</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>614</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>37,793</b>	<b>100%</b>

*Notes:* IM refers to Indonesia Mengajar. “IM 2010-2015” data includes the first ten cohorts of teachers. Statistics for “Other teachers” came from a subsample of primary school teachers who took the 2015 teacher competency test dataset and was teaching in one of the 17 program districts.

Table 2: Indonesia Mengajar teachers by origin universities

University name	IM teachers		Univ. rank	
	Cohort 1	2010-2015	Indonesia	world
UI/Universitas Indonesia	13	86	1	694
UGM/Universitas Gadjah Mada	7	78	6	1496
ITB/Institut Teknologi Bandung	14	62	2	896
UNPAD/Universitas Padjajaran	3	39	27	2986
IPB/Institut Pertanian Bogor	3	32	13	1972
UNDIP/Universitas Diponegoro	3	29	9	1753
UNAIR/Universitas Airlangga	5	23	7	1551
UNIBRAW/Universitas Brawijaya		21	3	1178
ITS Surabaya	1	15	4	1220
UNS/Universitas Sebelas Maret		12	10	1913
UPI Bandung		11	15	2178
UM/Universitas Negeri Malang		10	23	2839
UMM/Univ. Muhammadiyah Malang		10	34	3298
UNHAS/Universitas Hasanuddin	1	9	17	2550
USU/Universitas Sumatera Utara		8	8	1575
Universitas Paramadina	1	8	168	7816
UNP/Universitas Negeri Padang		7	25	2919
UNESA/Universitas Negeri Surabaya		7	40	3494
UNY/Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta		7	22	2772
Overseas		19		1606
Other		121	75	4659
Total IM teachers/average rank	51	614	25	2290

*Notes:* IM refers to Indonesia Mengajar. IM teachers 2010-2015 tabulated cohorts 1-10. University rank data from Webometrics, July 2020 ranking. Ranking for “overseas” and “other” categories are the mean of specific universities, rounded down to the nearest integer. See Table A1 for the full list of overseas and other universities.

Table 3: Average score from 2015 teacher competency test, by origin university and age

	Mean	std dev	N	Mean	std dev	N
	All nationwide			< 30 years		
UI	72.5	12.7	246	74.6	12.0	20
UGM	77.9	10.2	349	80.4	7.4	13
ITB	80.8	8.7	39	81.8	.	1
UNPAD	72.2	11.7	452	68.3	12.1	37
IPB	77.5	9.8	380	76.1	9.4	26
UNDIP	77.7	9.5	312	77.7	10.3	32
UNAIR	75.9	10.9	144	68.2	12.9	5
UNIBRAW	75.4	10.7	249	73.5	11.1	17
ITS	80.1	10.4	109	70.8	11.4	11
UNS	67.5	13.1	5,645	75.0	10.7	1,308
UPI	60.3	12.7	19,413	65.7	11.9	4,646
UM	68.9	12.7	3,368	74.2	11.1	983
UMM	64.1	12.1	1,273	67.1	11.9	166
UNHAS	61.9	12.4	180	59.6	15.1	12
USU	64.9	12.2	283	66.9	11.5	37
PARAMADINA	81.8	.	1			
UNP	58.3	12.0	8,282	63.0	12.4	2,057
UNESA	65.2	13.3	3,919	69.7	11.9	823
UNY	70.2	12.6	5,113	73.7	12.3	1,521
<b>Overall</b>	74.4	12.3	49,757	72.8	12.0	11,715
	All program districts			< 30 years		
<b>All edu levels</b>	48.6	11.3	48,067	50.3	11.4	7,417
Any college	49.5	11.3	37,793	51.2	11.6	4,511
Bachelor's and up	50.4	11.3	32,323	51.6	11.6	4,085
Open University	51.1	11.3	13,916	54.8	11.1	911
Other univ	49.5	11.2	17,159	50.4	11.5	3,014

*Notes:* Statistics from a subsample of all 1.3 million primary school teachers who took the 2015 teacher competency test and graduated from the 19 universities who contributed the most Indonesia Mengajar teachers. Teachers in this summary statistics are located in all 34 provinces. Of the 19 universities here, only UNS, UPI, UM, UNP, UNESA, and UNY are historical teacher colleges. The mean and standard deviation in the bottom row (overall) is an average of the origin university-level observation, weighted by the number of Indonesia Mengajar teachers it contributed to between 2010-2015. The national test average was 53/100 and the passing grade was 55/100.

Table 4: Indonesia Mengajar teacher activities, cohort 1

<b>Activities</b>	Cohort 1 IM teachers	
	Count	Percent
<b>Home teacher</b>	26	51%
Grade 2	3	6%
Grade 3	5	10%
Grade 4	5	10%
Grade 5	12	24%
Grade 6	7	14%
<b>Subjects teachers any grade</b>	25	49%
Any grade 6 subject	24	47%
Math grade 6	11	22%
Indonesian grade 6	4	8%
Science grade 6	6	12%
<b>After hours Grade 6 lessons</b>		
Grade 6 home teachers	1	2%
Non-grade 6 home teachers	4	8%
Subject teachers	7	14%
<b>Teachers capacity building events</b>		
Within school	14	27%
Subdistrict clusters	20	39%
<b>Teaching hours at non-program schools</b>		
Other elementary	3	6%
Junior high schools	2	4%
Senior high schools	3	6%
<b>Total cohort 1 IM teachers</b>	<b>51</b>	

*Notes:* Tabulation of cohort 1 Indonesia Mengajar teacher activities.  
Data from Indonesia Mengajar operation records.

Table 5: Impact of exposure to Indonesia Mengajar program on grade 6 mathematics exit examination score

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Avg math	Min	Max
IM x 2008	0.11 (0.16)	0.08 (0.16)	0.02 (0.18)
IM x 2009	0.06 (0.09)	0.16 (0.12)	0.04 (0.07)
IM x 2010	0.00 (.)	0.00 (.)	0.00 (.)
IM x 2011	0.14* (0.05)	0.20*** (0.02)	0.08 (0.13)
control mean	4.8	3.7	6.0
control SD	0.9	1.0	1.3
N	825	825	825

*Notes:* This table reports the estimates of equation (2) based on exit examination data from the Ministry of Education 2008-2011. The outcomes of interest are mean, minimum, and maximum mathematics score from the exit examination in a given year. Control mean and SD is the average score and its standard deviation among non-treatment schools in 2010. \*  $p < 0.1$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ . Standard errors clustered by school and year.

Table 6: Impact of Indonesia Mengajar exposure on mathematics score by classroom instructions in mathematics

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Avg math	Min	Max
IM x 2008	0.10 (0.18)	-0.01 (0.20)	0.15 (0.20)
IM x 2009	0.10 (0.13)	0.08 (0.15)	0.13 (0.09)
IM x 2010	0.00 (.)	0.00 (.)	0.00 (.)
IM x 2011	0.05 (0.07)	0.07 (0.04)	-0.01 (0.17)
IM x Y6 Math x 2008	0.05 (0.32)	0.28 (0.27)	-0.42 (0.34)
IM x Y6 Math x 2009	-0.11 (0.12)	0.27 (0.21)	-0.28** (0.05)
IM x Y6 Math x 2010	0.00 (.)	0.00 (.)	0.00 (.)
IM x Y6 Math x 2011	0.25* (0.10)	0.40** (0.12)	0.29 (0.27)
2010 control mean	4.8	3.7	6.0
2010 control std dev	0.9	1.0	1.3
N	825	825	825

*Notes:* This table reports the estimates of equation (3) based on exit examination data from the Ministry of Education 2008-2011 and Indonesia Mengajar operational records. The outcomes of interest are mean, minimum, and maximum mathematics score from the exit examination in a given year. Control mean and SD is the average score and its standard deviation among non-treatment schools in 2010. \*  $p < 0.1$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ . Standard errors clustered by school and year.

Table 7: Impact of Indonesia Mengajar exposure on mathematics score by classroom instructions in the Indonesian language

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Avg math	Min	Max
IM x 2008	0.15 (0.16)	0.02 (0.17)	0.18 (0.18)
IM x 2009	0.03 (0.09)	0.07 (0.13)	0.07 (0.08)
IM x 2010	0.00 (.)	0.00 (.)	0.00 (.)
IM x 2011	0.12 (0.06)	0.05 (0.03)	0.14 (0.14)
IM x Y6 Indonesian x 2008	-0.17 (0.45)	0.27 (0.40)	-0.78 (0.44)
IM x Y6 Indonesian x 2009	0.16 (0.23)	0.47 (0.31)	-0.15 (0.09)
IM x Y6 Indonesian x 2010	0.00 (.)	0.00 (.)	0.00 (.)
IM x Y6 Indonesian x 2011	0.08 (0.13)	0.74** (0.13)	-0.33 (0.36)
2010 control mean	4.8	3.7	6.0
2010 control std dev	0.9	1.0	1.3
N	825	825	825

*Notes:* This table reports the estimates of equation (3) based on exit examination data from the Ministry of Education 2008-2011 and Indonesia Mengajar operational records. The outcomes of interest are mean, minimum, and maximum mathematics score from the exit examination in a given year. Control mean and SD is the average score and its standard deviation among non-treatment schools in 2010. \*  $p < 0.1$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ . Standard errors clustered by school and year.



Table 8: Impact of Indonesia Mengajar exposure on mathematics score by science classroom instruction

	(1) Avg math	(2) Min	(3) Max
IM x 2008	0.26 (0.16)	0.23 (0.19)	0.05 (0.15)
IM x 2009	0.09 (0.10)	0.15 (0.12)	-0.00 (0.06)
IM x 2010	0.00 (.)	0.00 (.)	0.00 (.)
IM x 2011	-0.02 (0.06)	-0.03 (0.04)	-0.03 (0.17)
IM x Y6 Science x 2008	-0.64 (0.42)	-0.67 (0.29)	-0.12 (0.59)
IM x Y6 Science x 2009	-0.12 (0.19)	0.06 (0.36)	0.19 (0.18)
IM x Y6 Science x 2010	0.00 (.)	0.00 (.)	0.00 (.)
IM x Y6 Science x 2011	0.72** (0.16)	1.04** (0.18)	0.50 (0.27)
2010 control mean	4.8	3.7	6.0
2010 control std dev	0.9	1.0	1.3
N	825	825	825

*Notes:* This table reports the estimates of equation (3) based on exit examination data from the Ministry of Education 2008-2011 and Indonesia Mengajar operational records. The outcomes of interest are mean, minimum, and maximum mathematics score from the exit examination in a given year. Control mean and SD is the average score and its standard deviation among non-treatment schools in 2010. \*  $p < 0.1$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ . Standard errors clustered by school and year.

Table A1: Detailed Indonesia Mengajar teachers' origin university list

<b>Overseas universities</b>	
Region	Universities
U.S.	Cornell University, Texas A&M University
Australia	Univ. of Melbourne, Queensland University, Monash University, Swinburne
ASEAN	UT Malaysia, Singapore Management University
Other	Ritsumeikan, Suzhou Univ., Kyungsoong Univ, Jawaharlal Nehru University
<b>Domestic univ. with fewer than seven graduates in the IM program 2010-2015</b>	
Graduates	Universities
6	UIN Kalijaga Yogya, Univ. Parahyangan, UNNES Semarang
5	IT Telkom, Univ. Andalas, Univ. Bengkulu, UNJ Jakarta, Univ. Syiah Kuala
4	UIN Sunan Ampel Surabaya, UIN Syarif Hidayatullah Jakarta, UIN, UNM Makassar, Univ. Riau
3	UIN Ar-Raniry, UIN Maulana Malik Ibrahim, UNIKA Atma Jaya, UK Maranatha, UMY, UPH, Sanata Dharma
2	UAJY, Univ. Jambi, Unsoed, UK Petra, Unsrat, Unisri, Udayana
1	HELP University, IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon, LSPR Jakarta, ST Perikanan Jakarta, Budi Luhur, Uncen, Gunadarma, Haluoleo, Unisba, UIN Walisongo, Jember, Khairun, UKSW, Unlam, Mercubuana, Muhammadiyah Jakarta, UMN, UNM, Nusa Cendana, UPN Veteran, Siliwangi, UNTirta, Universitas Surabaya, Trisakti