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College Advising at a National Scale: Experimental Evidence from the CollegePoint initiative

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In-person college advising programs generate large improvements in college persistence and success for low-income students but face numerous barriers to scale. Remote advising models offer a promising strategy to address informational and assistance barriers facing the substantial majority of low-income students who do not have access to community-based advising, yet the existing evidence base on the efficacy of remote advising is limited. We present a comprehensive, multi-cohort experimental evaluation of CollegePoint, a national remote college advising program for high-achieving low- and moderate-income students. Students assigned to CollegePoint are modestly more likely (1.3 percentage points) to attend higher-quality institutions. Results from mechanism experiments we conducted within CollegePoint indicate that moderate changes to the program model, such as a longer duration of advising and modest expansions of the pool of students academically eligible to participate, do not lead to larger program effects. We also capitalize on across-cohort variation in whether students were affected by COVID-19 to investigate whether social distancing required by the pandemic increased the value of remote advising. CollegePoint increased attendance at higher-quality institutions by 3.2 percentage points for the COVID-19-affected cohort. Acknowledgements.

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Abstract

In-person college advising programs generate large improvements in college persistence and success for low-income students but face numerous barriers to scale. Remote advising models offer a promising strategy to address informational and assistance barriers facing the substantial majority of low-income students who do not have access to community-based advising, yet the existing evidence base on the efficacy of remote advising is limited. We present a comprehensive, multi-cohort experimental evaluation of CollegePoint, a national remote college advising program for high-achieving low- and moderate-income students. Students assigned to CollegePoint are modestly more likely (1.3 percentage points) to attend higher-quality institutions. Results from mechanism experiments we conducted within CollegePoint indicate that moderate changes to the program model, such as a longer duration of advising and modest expansions of the pool of students academically eligible to participate, do not lead to larger program effects. We also capitalize on across-cohort variation in whether students were affected by COVID-19 to investigate whether social distancing required by the pandemic increased the value of remote advising. CollegePoint increased attendance at higher-quality institutions by 3.2 percentage points for the COVID-19-affected cohort.

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I. Introduction

Federal and state education policy increasingly prioritizes college access for low-income student populations. This is most evident in the growing number of "free college" programs at the state level (e.g. Tennessee Promise) and the proposed expansion of free college nationally through the Biden Administration American Families Plan. Yet evidence suggests that financial barriers are not the sole driver of inequalities in completion by family income (Bulman et al., 2017). Informational barriers, complex college and financial aid application processes, and a lack of access to professional counseling can impede students from attending higher-quality institutions where they are more likely to earn a degree and from receiving financial aid for which they would qualify (Bowen, Chingos, and McPherson, 2009; Dynaski and Scott-Clayton, 2004; Hoxby and Avery, 2012).

Traditionally the strongest lever that communities and high schools have for overcoming these barriers is to provide students with in-person college and financial advising. In-person advising programs generally either place an advisor within a school or have an office in the community for students to visit and work with an advisor. Several experimental evaluations of in-person college advising and mentoring programs find large and, in some cases, sustained impacts on low-income students' college outcomes (Bettinger and Evans, 2019; Bos et al., 2012; Carrell and Sacerdote, 2017; Castleman, Page, and Schooley, 2014). Two recent experimental evaluations of intensive advising programs, which provide individualized advising starting in high school and continuing in college, find large impacts on persistence several years into college (Castleman, Deutschlander, and Lohner, 2020; and on degree attainment (Barr and Castleman, in progress).

While in-person advising programs can be successful they are difficult to scale and often do not serve areas with lower population density. In-person models rely on local relationships and individual agreements with high schools. Expanding to a new community requires relationship building, staffing, and other sources of infrastructure that may be difficult to develop in other communities. Organizations that operate outside of high schools face additional limitations to expansion. Since students travel to these advising organization, they locate near the students they plan to serve and in areas with many potential students. Because of the student density requirements, community-based advising organizations tend to locate in urban areas and have limited student draw areas. As a result, many regions of the country are too dispersed to support investment in a community-based college advising organization.

In the face of these scale challenges, there has been growing interest among policymakers and educators in the potential for remote advising models to provide a scalable strategy for supporting low-income and first-generation college students through the complexities of the college and financial aid application processes. Generally speaking, remote advising models use interactive technologies (phone, text messaging, video conference, screen sharing, and document collaboration) to facilitate sustained advising relationships between students and advisors even if they live far apart from each other. The main advantage of the remote model over the community-based model is the ability to reach students across the country with a limited geographic footprint. Therefore, the remote advising model could serve students from regions that are not dense enough

¹ As an indication of the scale challenges, even community-based advising programs with experimental evidence of large impacts on college enrollment and success have only scaled modestly. For instance, Bottom Line has operated for more than twenty years in Boston and Worcester, MA. Even with experimental evidence of large impacts on student outcomes, the program has only expanded to date to New York and Chicago.

to support a community-based organization while also increasing access to advising in densely populated areas because students no longer need to commute to receive advising.

In this paper, we present a comprehensive experimental evaluation of a nationwide, virtual college advising program. CollegePoint is a Bloomberg Philanthropies-funded national remote advising program that since 2014 has served tens of thousands of students. A consortium of four advising organizations provides advising to the high-achieving, low- and moderate-income high school seniors participating in CollegePoint.² The primary objective of CollegePoint is to increase the share of this population who enrolls at high-quality colleges and universities, which CollegePoint defines as institutions with graduation rates above 70 percent. Throughout the remainder of the paper, we refer to these institutions as "CollegePoint schools."

We conducted a multi-cohort randomized controlled trial (RCT) of CollegePoint. We randomly assigned eligible students who applied to participate in CollegePoint to either a treatment group who received advising or a control group that did not receive CollegePoint advising. Our experimental sample consists of approximately 25,700 students from the high school graduating classes of 2018 - 2020. To preview our results, we find that students assigned to CollegePoint advising were 1.3 percentage points (2.5 percent) more likely to enroll at CollegePoint schools. This impact is primarily driven by increasing the share of students who apply to and attend Barron's 1 colleges and universities—the most selective institutions in the country. The effect on

² CollegePoint defines high-achieving, low- and moderate income as students in the top 10 percent of the SAT distribution nationally, with family income under \$80,000

³ In a parallel qualitative study commissioned by Bloomberg Philanthropies, control group students reported little access to formal college advising and were largely independent in the college exploration and planning process. ⁴ Like Smith (2018), we proxy for college applications using SAT score sends. Smith (2018), Card and Krueger (2005) and Pallais (2015) argue score sends are a good proxy for student application patterns.

initial enrollment at Barron's 1 institutions persists into students' second year of college (for the students from cohorts 1 and 2) and into students' third year (for the students from cohort 1). That being said, treated students are no more likely to persist at CollegePoint schools overall or to remain continuously enrolled in college (either overall or at CollegePoint schools specifically).

Using additional sources of within-treatment experimental variation, we explore the impact of three potential mechanisms of CollegePoint's efficacy. First, capitalizing on random assignment to advising organizations for a subset of students, we observe larger impacts among the students assigned to an organization that used peer mentors with small caseloads than students assigned to an organization that used full-time recent college graduates with much larger caseloads. Second, we do not find evidence that a longer duration of engagement with CollegePoint advising increases the program's efficacy. Students randomly assigned to begin CollegePoint advising in the spring of their junior year were no more likely to enroll at a CollegePoint school than students assigned to begin CollegePoint advising at the start of their senior year in high school. Third, remote advising did not increase attendance at CollegePoint schools among a pilot cohort of students recruited from modestly lower in the academic distribution (the 85th - 89th percentile).

Our paper builds on to two other recent experimental evaluations of remote college advising programs. Our analysis of CollegePoint is similar to Phillips and Reber (2019)'s analysis of the V-SOURCE program in Los Angeles in our multi-cohort design, ability to measure impacts on persistence, and our investigation of mechanisms. We build on Phillips and Reber (2019) by investigating a national remote advising program and enhancing the investigation of key program components through within-CollegePoint experiments. Our paper is similar to Gurantz et al.

(2019) in our investigation of a national advising program but builds on this paper through our multi-cohort design, investigation of persistence impacts, and mechanisms experiments.

Our paper makes an additional unique contribution beyond prior studies of remote advising interventions: One of our experimental cohorts overlaps with the COVID-19 crisis. More specifically, students in the third experimental cohort were in March of their senior year of high school--and still part of the CollegePoint advising program--when the COVID-19 pandemic began. This enables us to compare CollegePoint's impact during the pandemic relative to cohorts enrolled in CollegePoint before the pandemic. The contrast between remote advising and students' next best alternative for college and financial aid planning support may have decreased during the pandemic since students did not have access to in-person supports from March of their senior year onward. While overall enrollment declined by approximately ten percent between the pre-COVID-19 and COVID-19-affected cohorts, we find that this decline appears to be driven by students who would have attended lower-quality institutions. The control group enrollment rate at CollegePoint schools overall, and specifically Barron's 1 and 2 institutions, was virtually the same for cohort 3 as for cohort 2. The treatment impact for cohort 3 was relatively larger than for cohort 2 (3.2 percentage points vs. 1.4 percentage points. As we discuss further below, the difference in magnitude of program impacts could be due to compositional changes in the experimental sample between cohorts.

The remainder of our paper is structured as follows. In Section II, we provide additional background about the CollegePoint initiative. In Section III, we describe our sample and the data. In Section IV, we describe our empirical strategy. We present our results, investigate mechanisms,

and conduct a cost-benefit analysis in sections V-VII, and conclude with a discussion of the importance of our findings and direction for future research and policy in Section VII.

II. CollegePoint

In this section, we detail CollegePoint's recruitment strategy, participating advising organizations, and student engagement with advising. Our focus is on students from the high school graduating class of 2018 through 2020, which we refer to as Cohorts 1, 2, and 3.

Recruitment

CollegePoint works with the College Board the ACT to identify HALIs and HAMIs and promote the opportunity to work with a CollegePoint advisor. CollegePoint uses an income cut-off of approximately \$80,000 and follows Hoxby and Avery (2013) in defining "high-achieving" students as those with a GPA of 3.5 or higher; and college entrance exam scores above the 90th percentile. Since the SAT and ACT offer their college entrance exam multiple times a year, CollegePoint receives several batches of students for recruitment as they become eligible. CollegePoint recruits eligible students via direct mail, email, and phone calls. Students outside of the universe identified by the ACT and College Board could sign up after verifying the eligibility, but very few students did.⁵ Approximately 33 percent of students recruited through the College Board signed up.⁶

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⁵ 4 percent of students from Cohorts 1 and 2 were not in the pool of potentially eligible students identified by the ACT and College Board.

⁶ We base this estimate on data from cohort 2, in which we had access to summary statistics on the full sample students who received outreach to participate in CollegePoint.

Students signed up for CollegePoint on a rolling basis over approximately nine months. Figure 1 shows that 20 percent of students signed up in March or April of their junior year. About 60 percent of students signed up from July through September, and roughly 20 percent of students signed up in October or November of their senior year. The take-up date patterns differed across cohorts, but the average start dates were similar (see Appendix Figure 1). Differences in when students sign up largely reflect when they became eligible for the program and CollegePoint's capacity for new students at a given time.

Advising Organizations

After signing up, students begin working with an advisor from a consortium of advising organizations—College Advising Corps, College Possible, Matriculate, and ScholarMatch. ⁸ Advisors proactively reach out to their students, but there is no set advising schedule, allowing students to interact with their advisor as much or as little as they need.

The advising organizations fall into one of two categories. College Advising Corps and College Possible employ recent college graduates who are full-time employees during a two-year AmeriCorps service commitment. Matriculate and ScholarMatch use volunteers who commit to working five hours a week. The full-time advisors work with 100 to 230 students, while the volunteer advisors work with 1 to 3 students. Given the higher student-to-advisor ratio, College Advising Corps and College Possible work with over 75 percent of CollegePoint students.

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⁷ The averages start date was mid-August for students from Cohort 1, and mid-July for students from Cohorts 2 and 3.

⁸ See https://www.matriculate.org/, https://advisingcorps.org/, <a href="https://advisingcorps.org/

⁹ Matriculate volunteers are current college students at nine colleges across the country and ScholarMatch volunteers span a wide range of ages, professions, but are concentrated in California.

Experience with CollegePoint Advising

To contextualize CollegePoint's remote advising model, we discuss the "dosage" of advising students received and their experience with advising. Using advisor-reported interactions and an end-of-year survey we administered to students, we find that a nontrivial number of students who signed up for CollegePoint had little or no interactions with their advisor. ¹⁰ Panel A of Figure 2 shows 26 percent of students who signed up for CollegePoint never interacted with their advisor, and 19 percent had 1 or 2 interactions. The distribution of interactions looks similar across cohorts (see Appendix Figure 2A-2C).

CollegePoint's lower engagement rate relative to some in-person advising models (e.g., Barr and Castleman, 2019; Castleman, Deutschlander, and Lohner (2020) could reflect differences in student recruitment strategy. CollegePoint proactively reached out through phone, email, and postal channels to students pre-screened as likely eligible and had a simple application process. In-person models like Bottom Line and College Forward conduct in-person recruitment events in schools and have lengthy application processes. Students who complete the application for these programs may be positively selected for active and ongoing engagement. In contrast, a greater share of CollegePoint students may initially express interest but then decide the program is not one they are interested in pursuing. It is also possible that students do not form as strong relationships through remote interactions with advisors as they do in person. Finally, the high-achieving students that CollegePoint targets may seek out or receive outreach from other college advising supports,

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¹⁰ We describe the survey in more detail in Section III.

so the "value-add" of CollegePoint advising may be lower than for more academically-mainstream student populations served by Bottom Line and College Forward.

To build intuition about the channels CollegePoint advising may operate through, we examine when interactions occurred. Panel B of Figure 2 plots the share of students who engaged by month and shows a general decline in engagement throughout the year. The decline in engagement across the program year is consistent across cohorts (see Appendix Figure 2D). The decline in engagement from 45 percent to 25 percent between the fall and spring suggests that students received more advising during the college application process (applications to selective institutions are typically submitted by January of senior year in high school) than during the enrollment decision process.

We complement our analysis of the frequency and timing of interactions by examining the topics covered during advising interactions. Table 2 presents the share of students who discussed a given topic based on advisor-reported data. Column 1 shows that 51 percent of students discussed the college application process, 56 percent discussed applying for financial aid, and 38 percent discussed their college enrollment decision. The difference in topics covered reinforces the conclusion that CollegePoint's influence mainly was on where students applied and less so on where they chose to enroll (from the choice set of schools to which they were accepted).

Thus far, the measures of engagement we presented focus on the number of interactions instead of how students experienced advising. To more fully examine the student experience, we surveyed students from Cohort 1 at the end of the program year. Roughly 70 percent of students responded

to the survey; respondents were significantly more likely to engage during the program year than non-respondents and therefore are more likely to have a favorable view of advising.¹¹

As we show in the bottom panel of Table 2, students were most likely to say their advisor helped them stay organized by informing them of a task and tracking deadlines. Relative to deciding where to apply and enroll, students were more likely to say their advisor was helpful in the financial aid process. Specifically, 72 percent and 64 percent of students said their advisor helped with applying for aid and understanding award letters, respectively. In comparison, 60 percent and 58 percent of students said their advisor helped expand their college list and decide where to enroll, respectively. While there were many aspects of advising that students found helpful, students said their advisor did not have much influence on where students enrolled. Only 22 percent of students said their advisor influenced their college decision, while 66 percent and 40 percent of students said their parent and school counselor were influential, respectively.

CollegePoint evaluation relative to other remote advising evaluations

To contextualize the contribution of our paper, we present in Table 1 a comparison of CollegePoint to other virtual college advising programs that we are aware of having been (1) implemented at scale and (2) experimentally evaluated. As we alluded to earlier, our experimental evaluation of CollegePoint presents a comprehensive investigation of a remote college advising program that (1) is national in scope; (2) examines impacts on both enrollment and persistence in college; and (3) investigates multiple mechanisms driving program impacts. Phillips and Reber (2019) conduct a multi-cohort RCT of VSOURCE, a remote advising program in Los Angeles. While VSOURCE

¹¹ For example, respondents had nearly twice as many interactions with their advisor compared to non-respondents.

provided advising remotely, it did so at the local level. It also recruited students using in-person school visits, which would be difficult to replicate in a state or national remote advising model. VSOURCE led students to apply to a broader range of four-year institutions but did not affect acceptances or enrollment. Gurantz et al. (2019b) evaluate a single-cohort remote advising intervention conducted by the College Advising Corps in collaboration with the College Board. The student population and advising approach were similar to CollegePoint, and the authors find a 2.7 percentage point increase in attendance at higher-quality institutions. But Gurantz et al. (2019b) do not investigate persistence impacts and have a minimal investigation of mechanisms or student engagement with advising.¹²

III. Experimental Design, Data, and Descriptive Statistics

Experimental Design

We implemented a randomized trial over three cohorts of CollegePoint students. As students signed up for CollegePoint, they completed a brief intake form to verify their eligibility. Based on the intake form, 22.5 percent of students were above the income threshold and ineligible for the program. We then randomized the remaining students using a 3-to-1 ratio into the CollegePoint treatment or control group. ^{13,14} Since recruitment was a continuous process, we randomized students within batches as they signed up. CollegePoint notified treatment students of their advisor assignment and told them to expect outreach from their advisor. CollegePoint told students in the

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¹² Avery et al. (2020) investigate a single-cohort national text-based advising program implemented by uAspire in collaboration with the College Board, but the program was substantially lower in intensity (primarily text-based advising; each advisor had a caseload of several thousand students) and served students much lower in the academic distribution (mean PSAT scores of 85). The authors estimate a slight negative impact on college enrollment.

¹³ CollegePoint contracted with Evaluation & Assessment Solutions for Education (EASE) to conduct the randomization and notify advising organizations when students were assigned.

¹⁴ We switched to a 2-to-1 ratio for part of Cohort 1 to increase power. The randomization in Cohort 3 began in June, so our analysis does not include students who signed up for CollegePoint prior to June 2020.

control group that they could not be paried with an advisor and were referred to several college planning materials. ¹⁵ Combined across cohorts, our analytic sample consists of 25,696 students (19,026 treatment and 6,670 control). We excluded the 194 students from our analysis because for whom we do not have baseline covariates because they were not recruited through the College Board or ACT.

Data Sources

Our baseline information on students comes from CollegePoint and its recruitment partners—the College Board and ACT. They provided student demographics, high school name, and college entrance exam scores at the individual level for cohort 1 and 2 students only and at the cohort level for students from cohort 3. CollegePoint collected minimal demographic information when students signed up. Students verified they met the income threshold and provided their college entrance exam scores and high school names. We matched high schools to the Common Core of Data from the National Center for Education Statistics to observe high school characteristics and location.

The advising organizations track their interactions with students and provided the date and topic(s) of each interaction. We conducted a post-intervention survey and used advisor-reported data to measure students' engagement and experience with advising. We sent the survey to all CollegePoint students from cohort 1 and a random sample of approximately 1,000 students from cohort 2. The survey focused on students' college decision process and experience with advising. NORC at the University of Chicago administered the survey to all students and

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¹⁵ Students were told to check out Khan Academy's resources here: https://www.khanacademy.org/college-admissions, as well as College Board Opportunity Scholarships: https://opportunity.collegeboard.org/ and Better Make Room: https://www.bettermakeroom.org/up-next/.

included a \$15 incentive to complete the survey. The survey response rate was nearly 70 percent and consistent across cohorts.

We obtained administrative data from the College Board to measure college application outcomes. The College Board provided data on SAT score sends, which is often used to approximate application behavior but is not a direct measure for where students applied. These data are available for 57 percent of the treatment and control groups. ¹⁶ The majority of students from cohorts 1 and 2 (79 percent) without SAT score sends were recruited through the ACT. The lack of coverage for the full sample could potentially impact the generalizability of the result to the full sample if CollegePoint was differentially effective for students recruited through the SAT, but in section V we provide evidence that the SAT score send results generalize to the full sample.

College enrollment, our primary outcome of interest, comes from the National Student
Clearinghouse (NSC). The NSC reports a near-universal coverage of postsecondary enrollment,
allowing us to observe where treatment and control students enrolled. Our analysis focuses on
the characteristics of the schools where students chose to enroll. We examine enrollment at
CollegePoint schools since it was an emphasis of the program. We measure college quality
using college selectivity because colleges do not have a value-added score like in the K-12
educational setting. Our primary measure of selectivity comes from the Barron's College Guide,
which organizes schools into six selectivity tiers. A school's tier is a function of their acceptance

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¹⁶ The coverage differed across cohorts. SAT score send data were available for 71 percent of students from Cohort 1, 56 percent of students from Cohort 2, and 41 percent from Cohort 3.

¹⁷ There are approximately 300 schools on the CollegePoint list. Nearly 90 percent of schools with a Barron's ranking of 1 or 2 are on the list, and 36 percent of schools with a Barron's ranking of 3.

rate and the GPAs, entrance exam scores, and class ranking of their incoming students. ¹⁸ We also measure college quality using 6-year graduation rates from the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS).

Baseline Characteristics

Column 1 of Table 3 presents descriptive statistics for the students from cohorts 1 and 2. Consistent with the high academic eligibility requirements for CollegePoint, the average student scored above the 95th percentile nationally on either the SAT or ACT. Approximately 40 percent of the sample have a family income below \$40,000, and nearly 60 percent have a family income of \$40,000-\$80,000. Over 42 percent of the sample were white, 25 percent were Asian, 19 percent were Hispanic, 7 percent were Black, and 5 percent were of some other race or did not provide that information. Based on their high school location, 14 percent lived in a rural area, 48 percent lived in a suburban area, and 37 percent lived in an urban area. Figure 3 depicts the number of CollegePoint students by state and shows that 42 percent of students are from either California, Florida, New York, or Texas. While not presented in the table, CollegePoint served students from over 4,900 high schools in cohort 1, with nearly two-thirds of schools having only one student from the experimental sample. Appendix Table 2 shows that the demographics did not differ substantially across cohorts 1 and 2.

¹⁸ The University of Virginia, Stanford University, Oberlin College, and Rice University are examples of Barron's 1 institutions. The University of Florida, Texas A & M University, Kalamazoo College, and Babson are examples of Barron's 2 institutions. Auburn University, Michigan State University, DePaul University, and George Mason University are examples of Barron's 3 institutions.

¹⁹ https://collegereadiness.collegeboard.org/pdf/understanding-sat-scores.pdf

²⁰ Based on state population estimates from the Census, these states contain 33 percent of the population Age 17 and younger. Ideally, we would know the state of residence for all eligible students to examine if these states are over represented in our sample.

²¹ Brooklyn Technical, Stuyvesant, and Bronx Science were outliers and combined for nearly 3.5 percent of the cohort 1 sample.

To understand who is more likely to sign up for CollegePoint and whether they are positively selected, we compare the demographic characteristics and SAT score sends between takers and non-takers from a sample of nearly 12,000 eligible students from Cohort 2. Our analysis, which we present in Appendix Table 3 shows that, while student groups who traditionally undermatch were more likely to sign up for CollegePoint, they were also potentially more interested in attending a selective college. CollegePoint students had lower predicted family incomes and were significantly more likely to be Hispanic than non-takers. CollegePoint students assigned to the control group sent their SAT scores to 1.5 more schools on average and were significantly more likely to send the scores to Barron's 1 schools than non-takers.

The last column of Table 3 reports p-values for tests of the difference in the characteristics between the treatment and control students. Any difference in mean baseline observable and unobservable factors related to the outcome would bias our estimated treatment effects. We test whether the randomization produced two equivalent groups by examining differences in observable baseline characteristics. Column 7 shows no statistically significant differences between the treatment and control groups.²² The bottom of the table shows an F-test for balance across all variables in Table 3 and yields a statistically insignificant p-value of 0.93. Given the similarity of the groups on observable characteristics, we assume the groups are similar on unobservable characteristics and interpret any differences in outcomes as driven by assignment to CollegePoint.

IV. Empirical Strategy

²² Appendix Table 2 shows the balance tests by cohort.

The goal of our study is to evaluate the effect of CollegePoint on where students enroll. We estimate the treatment effects by comparing the average outcomes of students assigned to the treatment and control group with the following specification:

(1)
$$Y_{ib} = \alpha + \beta CollegePoint_{ib} + \delta_b + \epsilon_{ib}$$

where Y_{ib} is an outcome of interest of student i in batch b. The main outcomes are enrollment at a CollegePoint school and measures of college quality (e.g., graduation rate, median SAT score and instructional spending per student). The variable $CollegePoint_{ib}$ is indicates an individual's assignment to CollegePoint. Since we randomly assigned students to CollegePoint in batches on an ongoing basis, we include a batch fixed effect, δ_b To account for the randomization procedure. The coefficient of interest β r epresents the causal effect of assignment to CollegePoint. We include a limited set of baseline covariates available across all cohorts to increase the precision of our impact estimates. Identification in a randomized control trial relies on creating equivalent groups at baseline and differ on by only their treatment status. Based on the balance on baseline observable characteristics shown in Table 3, we argue that differences in outcomes between the treatment and control groups are due to random assignment to CollegePoint.

V. Results

Impacts on college applications

In Panel A of Table 4, we present estimates of CollegePoint's impact on students' college application behavior (proxied by SAT score sends). As we showed in Section II, most of the engagement with advising took place before college applications were due, and college applications were the most common topic of discussion between students and advisors. Therefore, increasing applications to higher-quality institutions is a likely channel through which

CollegePoint could influence students' enrollment options and outcomes. The experimental sample applied to numerous colleges (7.9 on average for the control group), and the vast majority of the sample (93.7 percent) applied to at least one CollegePoint school. CollegePoint had a slight (4 percent) positive effect on the total number of applications and did not affect whether students applied to CollegePoint schools. However, assignment to CollegePoint did lead to a 3.0 percentage point increase in the share of students who applied to at least one Barron's 1 institution (a four percent increase relative to the control) and a 1.5 percentage point increase in the share of student's who applied to at least one Barron's 2 institution (a two percent increase relative to the control).

Impacts on enrollment and enrollment quality

In Panels B of Table 4, we present the impacts of CollegePoint on whether and where students enroll. CollegePoint did not impact the overall share of students that enrolled in college, though overall enrollment rates are very high among this population—86 percent.²³ CollegePoint leads to a modest increase in the share of students attending CollegePoint schools. Students assigned to CollegePoint were 1.3 percentage points more likely to enroll at a CollegePoint school compared to a control group mean of 50.1 percent. This impact is primarily driven by increasing enrollment at Barron's 1 colleges and universities. Students assigned to CollegePoint were 1.1 percentage points more likely to attend a Barron's 1 institution, a five percent increase relative to the control. Increased enrollment at Barron's 1 corresponded with a decrease in enrollment at less-selective institutions (Barron's 3+ institutions).

²³ This is likely a lower bound for college enrollment, since some students block their records from being shared with the NSC while the NSC may not pick up other students' enrollment if they attend institutions that do not share records with the NSC.

In Panel C of Table 4 and Figure 4, we present the impact of CollegePoint on various measures of institutional quality. CollegePoint students attended institutions with slightly higher graduation rates than institutions attended by control students (73.1 percent vs. 72.5 percent), but were otherwise similar on average to institutions attended by control students. Figure 4 shows the distribution of graduation rates for the institutions attended by treatment and control groups. Consistent with a small difference in average graduation rate, the distributions are similar. The slight increase in the mass in the right tail is consistent with finding impacts on attendance at Barron's 1 institutions. We do not find significant differences in CollegePoint impacts across student sub-groups.²⁴

A unique feature of the CollegePoint RCT is that the first two cohorts preceded the COVID-19 crisis, while the COVID-19 pandemic began in March, towards the end of the program year for students from cohort 3. College enrollment declined substantially among low-income students across the country from the high school class of 2020 (Hoover, 2020), and as we show in Table 5, we do observe meaningful declines in overall enrollment for cohort 3 students relative to the prior cohorts. Whereas roughly 87 percent of the first two CollegePoint cohorts enrolled in college, 80 percent of the third cohort did so. That being said, this decline appears to be driven by students who would have attended lower-quality institutions. The control group enrollment rate at CollegePoint schools overall (specifically Barron's 1 and 2 institutions) was virtually the same for cohort 3 as for cohort 2 (preceding COVID-19). That being said, the control group mean enrollment rate at CollegePoint schools declined between the first and subsequent two cohorts: 52.5 percent of the first cohort control group enrolled at CollegePoint schools, compared with 48.9

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²⁴ Results available upon request

and 48.2 percent of the second and third cohorts. This decline would have been due to contextual factors preceding the COVID-19 crisis.

Table 5 also shows that the second and third cohorts primarily drive the modest positive effects of CollegePoint on attendance at CollegePoint schools for the pooled sample. The treatment impact was 1.4 and 3.2 percentage points, respectively. As we show in Appendix Table A1, students in the third, COVID-affected cohort had somewhat interactions on average (6.4 vs. 5.8 for cohort 1 and 5.1 for cohort 2) and more notably, were more likely to discuss their college transition (27.1 percent of students vs. 23.5 percent for cohort 1 and 18.8 percent for cohort 2). Higher rates of interaction and discussion of the college transition in the COVID-19 context could have led to the directionally higher impacts of CollegePoint for cohort 3. At the same time, students in cohort 3 were also more likely to discuss their college list with their advisor (48.9 percent vs. 40.8 percent for cohort 1 and 38.8 percent for cohort 2); these discussions would have preceded COVID-19 and could also have contributed to the modestly larger impacts for cohort 3. And as we show in Appendix Table 2, cohort 3 had a notably larger share of Hispanic students and a lower share of white students than the first two cohorts; these compositional changes in the experimental sample could also contribute to the modest difference in impacts across cohorts. It is also worth noting that the difference in CollegePoint impacts between cohort 2 and 3 is not statistically or practically significant to suggest that remote advising's value relative to the alternative increased substantially for high-achieving, low- and moderate-income students during the pandemic.

In Table 6, we present evidence of CollegePoint's impact on college persistence. Pooling across the first two cohorts, students assigned to CollegePoint were no more likely to be enrolled in college anywhere or at CollegePoint schools in the third semester following high school graduation. These general patterns of college persistence seem to hold through five semesters after high school among students from the first cohort. Students assigned to CollegePoint were no more likely to be enrolled anywhere or at CollegePoint schools or remain continuously enrolled in college, but were 1.7 percentage points (8 percent) more likely to enroll at a Barron's 1 institution.

VI. Discussion of Potential Mechanisms

In this section, we experimentally explore three potential mechanisms underlying the modest treatment effects presented above. First, some evidence-based advising programs like College Forward start working with their students earlier than CollegePoint; this longer duration of engagement could be important for program efficacy. We examine the effect of a longer program year by randomizing when students began advising. Second, the organizations delivering CollegePoint advising differ along several dimensions (See Section II), which could influence program efficacy. We use the random assignment of students to advising organizations to estimate differences in effects by organization. Third, programs like Bottom Line and College Forward work with students who are on the margin of going to four-year institutions, while CollegePoint works with students who, in the absence of advising, primarily attend at least moderately selective colleges and universities. College advising programs may be effective for more academicallymainstream students but less so for high-achieving students who have access to more college and financial aid planning alternatives. To understand if students with a different academic background would benefit from advising, CollegePoint conducted a pilot with students somewhat lower in the academic distribution.

Mechanism 1: Duration of Advising

Could CollegePoint be more effective if it started working with students earlier? Figure 1 shows that only 20 percent of students signed up for CollegePoint before May of their junior year of high school and that 60 percent signed up after the start of their senior year. Compared to programs like College Forward, which starts working with students at the beginning of their junior year in high school, CollegePoint students spent less time on average enrolled in the program. A longer program could allow advisors to form deeper relationships and cover more college and financial aid topics with students.

To examine the potential benefits of a longer program year, we randomized when students started advising. We conducted this RCT with the high school class of 2017, which preceded the three cohorts we include in the overall RCT of CollegePoint that we report on in this paper. Among students who signed up and were eligible for the program in the spring of their junior year of high school, we randomized students to one of two groups. Early starters started receiving outreach from their advisor in April, and late starters started receiving outreach from their advisor in September. Early starters received three additional months of advising because no advising occurs in July or August. The experiment consisted of 3,101 students randomized in equal proportion between groups. Appendix Table 4 shows the balance of baseline characteristics between the groups.

Beginning advising in April rather than September had significant impacts on levels of engagement but no effect on college enrollment outcomes. Panel A of Table 7 shows that early starters on average had 8.2 interactions with their advisor compared to 5.5 among late starters. Early starters

were also significantly more likely ever to discuss a variety of topics with their advisor. For instance, 42.6 percent of early starters reported discussing their college list with their advisor, compared with 29 percent of late starters. However, most of these differences in engagement occurred three months before the late starters began advising. Appendix Figure 3 shows that the monthly interaction rate did not differ from September through the end of the program year. The figure is consistent with our finding in Table 7 that early starters were no more likely to discuss their college enrollment decision with their advisor. Panel B and C show that starting earlier did not affect either college applications or college enrollment. While a substantially longer extension of the CollegePoint program model (e.g., to the start of junior year) could lead to larger impacts. The "early vs. late start" RCT results show that extending the duration of remote advising by several months (at least for high-achieving students) was insufficient to generate larger effects.

Mechanism 2: Variation in remote advising efficacy across organizations

The organizations providing advising through CollegePoint differ along important dimensions. Two of the organizations are large non-profit organizations that have operated for well over a decade and with numerous sites across the country where they offer in-person college advising to students. These organizations use full-time, recent college graduates as CollegePoint advisors and had larger caseloads (125-250 students per advisor). The other two organizations are comparatively smaller and newer non-profit organizations. One of the organizations uses current college students at selective institutions as mentors; the other relies on recent college graduates and adult volunteers. Both of these latter organizations' advisors have small caseloads (1-3 students per advisor). While we are not able to isolate the particular aspect of an organization that might contribute to larger or smaller impacts of remote advising, we nonetheless might expect

these differences in organizational approach to contribute to different magnitudes of program impact.

In Table 8 we present CollegePoint impacts separately by organization (pooling across all three experimental cohorts). Three of the four organizations increased the share of treated students that applied to Barron's 1 institutions, with impacts raning from 2.6 to 5.4 percentage points), though none of the organizations led treated students to apply to CollegePoint schools at significantly higher rates. One of the longer-standing organizations with full-time advisors and larger caseloads generated a modest increase (1.8 percentage points) in CollegePoint attendance, while the organization that uses current college students as peer mentors generated a 4.4 percentage point increase in CollegePoint attendance. This latter effect was driven entirely by increasing the share of students who attended Barron's 1 institutions.

The results by organization do not solely reflect differences in organizational effectiveness. As we show in Appendix Table 5, each organization's overall composition of students differs somewhat, owing to differences in when organizations enrolled students during the CollegePoint program year. For instance, organizations 3 and 4 (the newer organizations with smaller caseloads staffed by peer mentors (organization 3) or volunteers (organization 4) worked with larger shares of students from families making less than \$40,000 per year than organizations 1 and 2.

The differences in enrollment impacts by organization did not manifest themselves into differences in students' CollegePoint advising experience. As we show in Appendix Table 6, with the exception of organization 1, students assigned to the other organizations responded similarly to

questions about their advisor relationship and the helpfulness of advising. The main exception is with respect to influence in making a college enrollment decision.²⁵ Panel C shows that students assigned to organization 3 were over twice as likely to say their advisor influenced their college decision compared to students assigned to all other organizations. We unfortunately have limited data to assess how advisors from organization 3 had more influence in the college enrollment decision. Panels A and B show that the difference in influence is not due to a closer relationship or more helpful advising.

Given that organizations varied in the composition of students they served, we cannot disentangle for the overall CollegePoint population whether these differences in organization-level impacts are due to some aspect of the organizational model or due to differences in the students they worked with. In Table 9 we present impact estimates for a subset of the CollegePoint population in which students (N=4,013) were randomly assigned between organization 2 and organization 3. Among this subset both organizations generated a positive impact on enrollment at CollegePoint schools: 3.2 percentage points for organization 2; 4.8 percentage points for organization 3. Organization 3's impacts for this subset were again driven entirely by increasing enrollment at Barron's 1 institutions. The last column of Table 9 shows that some of the relatively larger impacts for organization 3 are statistically different from the impacts of organization 2, which provide suggestive evidence that some combination of advisors being current students at selective institutions and having smaller caseloads may have contributed to greater CollegePoint efficacy.

Mechanism 3: Academic profile of students in college advising programs

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²⁵ Organization 2 seems particularly strong in guiding students the financial aid process.

To investigate whether remote advising would be more effective for students with lower observed baseline academic achievement, CollegePoint conducted small pilots with cohorts 2 and 3 with students slightly lower in the academic distribution (at or below the 89th percentile of SAT scores) compared to their high-achieving peers. Borrowing from a College Board designation, CollegePoint referred to these students as "on-track." While students at this point in the academic distribution do not allow us to compare CollegePoint's student population to effective in-person models directly. The pilot nonetheless provides some evidence of whether CollegePoint's impacts are differentially effective for students at a modestly different point in the academic distribution.

Across the two cohorts, we randomized 3,394 on-track students to receive CollegePoint advising or to a business-as-usual control group. Programmatically, the only aspect of CollegePoint that differed for on-track students is when they started working with their advisor. On average, on-track students began two months after their high-achieving peers. Appendix Table 4 shows that on average, on-track students scored at the 89th percentile on the SAT, six percentiles lower than students in our main analytic sample. Compared to the main analytic sample, on-track students are more likely to be from low-income families and first-generation college students. Specifically, 69 percent are first-generation college students, which is still 12 percentage points lower than the population of students working with Bottom Line (see Table 1). On-track students were also more likely to be black or Hispanic and less likely to be white or Asian. By serving students with slightly lower SAT scores, CollegePoint recruited students based on demographics who could have less information about the college search process and could potentially benefit more from advising.

Overall, Table 10 shows little evidence that on-track students benefitted CollegePoint. However, we observe modest shifts in the quality of institution that students apply to and attend by virtue of assignment in CollegePoint. Consistent with the differences in baseline academic achievement, on-track students were significantly less likely than high-achieving students to apply to and enroll at the most selective schools. For instance, 74.8 percent of the high-achieving sample applied to a Barron's 1 institution compared to 61.7 percent of on-track students. And, 19.9 percent of the high-achieving sample enrolled at a Barron's 1 institution compared to 9.5 percent of on-track students. In Panel B, we show that on-track students in CollegePoint were no more likely to attend CollegePoint schools. Assignment to CollegePoint did increase on-track student attendance at Barron's 3 institutions by 2.7 percentage points (a 13 percent increase relative to the control), but this increase was offset by slight though non-significant declines in enrollment at Barron's 1 and 2 institutions. Panel C shows that this shift in composition did not result in significant mean differences in the quality of institutions treated on-track students attended. However, it is possible advisors and students were optimizing other preferences or considerations.

The on-track RCT suggests that remote advising is not likely to increase substantially in efficacy through modest changes to the academic profile of students recruited for the program. Moreover, the on-track student RCT does not directly address whether remote advising could generate larger effects for student populations on the margin of four-year attendance.

VII. Conclusion

Our paper demonstrates that remote college advising for high-achieving low- and moderateincome students leas to modest increases in the share of students that enroll and persist at higherquality institutions. Our mechanism experiments show that, at least for the high-achieving student population, the magnitude of remote advising programs' impact is unlikely to increase markedly by modest expansions to the duration of advising or to the academic eligibility thresholds for participating students. We moreover show that, despite that vast majority of the cohort 3 experimental sample not having access to in-person advising at their school or community from March of their senior year onward during the COVID-19 pandemic, the value-add of remote advising did not increase substantially.

CollegePoint cost \$562 per student served. A primary reason the costs are substantially lower than evidence-based in-person college advising models is that CollegePoint serves students for one year (or in some cases slightly more than a year) whereas intensive programs like Bottom Line and College Forward serve students for 5-6 years. To estimate CollegePoint's cost per student impacted by the program, we use enrollment at a CollegePoint school as a measure of enrollment quality. CollegePoint's cost per student induced to enroll at a higher quality institution is \$43,275. As we report above, we find that the this initial impact on enrollment at CollegePoint school fades out by students' second year out of high school—though we do find persistent impacts (~1.5pp) of attendance at Barron's 1 institutions. We do not know of prior empirical estimates of the economic return to attending a slightly higher quality institution, when the mean outcome for the control group is still attendance at institutions with quite high graduation rates. Even in the liberal scenario where there are modest gains to attending slightly higher quality institutions, it would likely be several years before the net present value of these earnings gains exceeded the costs of inducing students to attend Barron's 1 colleges and universities.

Given the informational and assistance barriers that low-income students in many communities face, there is still value in investigating remote college advising models, particularly for more academically-mainstream populations that have benefited substantially from community-based advising.

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Table 1
Comparison of Advising Organizations

	CollegePoint	College Forward	CAC/College Board	V Source	Bottom Line
Panel A: Program Featur	·es				
Virtual (Y/N)	Y	N	Y	Y	N
Start Date	Fall Senior Year	Jan. Junior Year	Spring Junior Year	March Junior Year	Summer Junior Year
End Date	End of HS	Through college	End of HS	End of HS	Max six years post HS
Geographic Focus	National	Austin and Houston	National	Los Angeles Area	Boston and NYC
Engagement with Advising	73.2% interacted; 5.7 interactions on avg	twice-weekly class, and 1- on-1 meetings	44% ever interacted. ¹	11 written interactions, 2 voice-to-voice	hourly every 3-4 weeks; avg of 13
Advisor Information	I	Full-time, AmeriCorps memb	College undergrads	Full-time, near-peer	
Student Academic Eligibility	Top 10% SAT/ACT, and 3.5 GPA	Top 60% of HS class	Top 10% SAT, and 3.5 GPA	No requirement; 75% above 3.0 GPA	2.5 GPA
Panel B: Demographic Cl	haracteristics of Sample				
% Parent w Bachelor	36	25 non first gen	39.5	14.8	19 (81% first gen)
% White	35.8	6.8	38.4	4.6	
% Hispanic	17	66.6	17.6	75.7	32.5
% Black	6.2	13.9	5.2	6	30.2
% Asian	22.2	3.6	32.7	10.9	24.6
Panel C: Impact					_
Enrollment Outcome	1.4pp (2.8%) increase in CP school enroll	7.5pp (12.9%) increase in college enrollment	2.7pp (5.4%) increase in CP school enroll	No effects on enrollment	7pp (8.5%) increase in college enrollment
	1.3pp (6.4%) increase in Barron's 1 attendance		1.7pp increase in Barron's 1-3 attendance		

Sources: Phillips and Reber (2019), Gurantz et al. (2019b), Castleman, Deutschlander, and Lohner, (2020), Barr and Castleman (forthcoming)

Notes: (1) Unlike CollegePoint, the CAC/CB study identified eligible students and assigned them to a treatment group before they had taken up the offer of virtual advising; CollegePoint students take up the offer and then are randomized, hence higher engagement rates.

Table 2
Intervention Dosage: Advising Usage and Experience

	Mean	N
	(1)	(2)
Panel A: Advisor Records		
% Ever Interacted	74.6	23990
Avg. Number of Interactions	5.7	23990
% Discussed College List	40.6	23990
% Discussed College Applications	51.4	23990
% Discussed Applying for Financial Aid	56.3	23990
% Discussed College Decision	37.7	23990
% Discussed College Transition	20.0	23990
Panel B: Student Survey		
% Said Advisor Helped Track Deadlines	74.3	5201
% Said Advisor Encouraged Expanding College List	60.3	5207
% Said Advisor Helped Complete Applications	61.6	5188
% Said Advisor Helped with Applying for Aid	72.4	5206
% Said Advisor Helped Manage Stress	66.0	5206
% Said Advisor Helped with Understanding Aid	63.8	5197
% Said Advisor Helped with College Decision	57.7	5201
% Said Advisor Influenced College Decision	22.0	5086

Notes: The table shows usage and experience of CollegePoint advising for students in the treatment group based on advisor records and student self-reports from a post-intervention survey. Panel A includes all students assigned to the treatment group. Panel B includes the students from cohorts 1 and 2 who responded to the survey. See section III for more details about the survey.

Table 3
Summary Statistics and Balance Tests for Students from Cohorts 1 and 2

	Pooled		Control		Treatment		P-Value for
	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	T-C Diff
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Percentile College Entrance Exam Score	95.4	21073	95.3	5531	95.5	15542	0.271
% Family Income < \$40,000	40.3	21073	40.4	5531	40.3	15542	0.309
% Family Income \$40,000- \$80,000	58.2	21073	58.1	5531	58.3	15542	0.351
% Family Income > \$80,000	1.5	21073	1.5	5531	1.5	15542	0.760
% Asian	25.4	20052	25.2	5265	25.5	14787	0.974
% Black	6.9	20052	7.4	5265	6.8	14787	0.244
% Hispanic	19.2	20052	18.7	5265	19.4	14787	0.452
% White	42.8	20052	43.0	5265	42.8	14787	0.791
% Other Race	5.6	20052	5.7	5265	5.5	14787	0.649
% Parents without a BA	52.5	19589	52.0	5132	52.7	14457	0.571
% Female	54.9	20382	55.3	5353	54.8	15029	0.676
% Urban High School	37.2	20793	37.7	5460	37.0	15333	0.304
% Suburban High School	48.3	20793	48.1	5460	48.4	15333	0.610
% Rural High School	14.4	20793	14.2	5460	14.5	15333	0.491
% Public High School	77.2	20671	76.8	5423	77.3	15248	0.374
% Private High School	7.4	20671	7.3	5423	7.4	15248	0.595
% Charter High School	4.2	20671	4.5	5423	4.1	15248	0.131
% Magnet High School	11.5	20671	11.7	5423	11.4	15248	0.501
% Low-Supply CP School State	13.3	21073	13.1	5531	13.3	15542	0.700
% Mid-Supply CP School State	23.4	21073	23.1	5531	23.5	15542	0.521
% High-Supply CP School State	63.3	21073	63.8	5531	63.2	15542	0.394
School Size	1673	20677	1685	5426	1668	15251	0.278
HS Student:Counselor Ratio	291	19142	294	5029	291	14113	0.139
% FRL	42.2	18782	42.3	4941	42.1	13841	0.454
HS Per Pupil Expenditure	15587	19143	15688	5030	15551	14113	0.193
F-Test	F-Stat	P-Value	N				
	0.424	0.968	21073				

Notes: This table presents baseline summary statistics for the students in the experimental sample from cohorts 1 and 2. Due to changes with a data provider, we lack detailed student-level data for students from cohort 3. We present cohort-level demographics in Appendix Table 2. We present means and counts for the full sample, and for the treatment and control groups separately. In Column 7, we show the p-value for a test of the difference between treatment and control group means, estimated by regressing the relevant baseline variable on the treatment group indicator and a randomization batch fixed effect. We report a joint balance test by regressing treatment status on all baseline variables in the table excluding high school characteristics. The bottom of the table contains the resulting F-statistic and p-value. All regressions use robust standard errors.* p<0.1, *** p<0.05, **** p<0.01

Table 4
Effect on College Applications & Enrollment

	Control	Treatment	SE	P-value
	Mean	Effect	SE	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Panel A: Score Send Outcomes				
Total Applications	7.9	0.4	(0.163)	0.031**
% Applied to CollegePoint School	93.7	0.3	(0.445)	0.519
% Applied to Barron's 1	74.7	3.0	(0.786)	0.000***
% Applied to Barron's 2	73.2	1.5	(0.811)	0.060*
% Applied to Barron's 3	57.0	-0.4	(0.928)	0.658
% Applied to Barron's 4+	62.1	-0.9	(0.913)	0.350
Observations:	14658			
Panel B: Enrollment Outcomes				
% Enrolled Anywhere	85.9	-0.3	(0.499)	0.513
% Enrolled at CollegePoint School	50.1	1.3	(0.689)	0.069*
% Enrolled at Barron's 1	20.1	1.1	(0.570)	0.065*
% Enrolled at Barron's 2	22.1	0.1	(0.584)	0.917
% Enrolled at Barron's 3	19.1	-0.5	(0.548)	0.317
% Enrolled at Barron's 4+	24.6	-0.9	(0.598)	0.132
Observations:	25696			
Panel C: College Characteristics				
SAT midpoint %tile	88.5	0.3	(0.174)	0.086*
Instructional expenditures per FTE (\$1,000s)	22.3	0.2	(0.327)	0.541
Graduation rate (%)	72.5	0.6	(0.280)	0.029**
Net price: Family Income 30-48k	12380	-78.69	(93.318)	0.399
Net price: Family Income 48-75k	16075	7.38	(97.058)	0.939
Observations:	22004			

Notes: This table reports the treatment effects of CollegePoint on students' application and initial college enrollment choices. Panel A presents the treatment effects on college applications as measured by SAT score sends. Panel B presents the treatment effects on whether and where students enroll. Panel C presents the treatment effects on a variety of college characteristics and is conditional on enrollment. The college characteristics come from IPEDS. We calculate treatment effects by regressing the relevant outcome variable on the treatment group indicator, a subset of covariates in Table 3, and a randomization batch fixed effect. Robust Standard errors are reported in parentheses. *<0.1, *** p<0.05, **** p<0.01

Table 5
Effect on College Applications and Enrollment by Cohort

		Co	ohort 1			C	ohort 2			Co	ohort 3	
	Ctrl Mean	Treat Effect	SE	P-val	Ctrl Mean	Treat Effect	SE	P-val	Ctrl Mean	Treat Effect	SE	P-val
_	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Panel A: Score Send Outcomes												
Total Applications	7.1	0.2	(0.131)	0.080*	8.5	0.6	(0.337)	0.064*	8.8	-0.1	(0.381)	0.754
% Applied to CollegePoint School	93.9	-0.2	(0.658)	0.768	92.7	1.1	(0.712)	0.140	96.5	-0.4	(1.076)	0.738
% Applied to Barron's 1	73.2	4.1	(1.167)	0.000***	75.1	2.5	(1.212)	0.037**	78.8	0.6	(2.220)	0.775
% Applied to Barron's 2	70.7	1.8	(1.234)	0.154	75.2	1.6	(1.221)	0.177	76.2	0.1	(2.294)	0.954
% Applied to Barron's 3	53.5	0.4	(1.384)	0.796	60.9	-1.3	(1.414)	0.351	57.2	-0.2	(2.687)	0.945
% Applied to Barron's 4+	59.7	-3.2	(1.378)	0.019**	63.9	1.7	(1.380)	0.230	65.3	-1.1	(2.599)	0.680
Observations:	6430				6350				1878			
Panel B: Enrollment Outcomes												
% Enrolled Anywhere	87.2	-0.6	(0.780)	0.457	87.1	-0.8	(0.728)	0.281	79.6	1.4	(1.347)	0.313
% Enrolled at CollegePoint School	52.4	0.3	(1.121)	0.814	48.9	1.4	(1.024)	0.174	47.5	3.2	(1.672)	0.057*
% Enrolled at Barron's 1	20.7	1.1	(0.945)	0.230	19.8	1.0	(0.841)	0.215	19.4	1.0	(1.365)	0.460
% Enrolled at Barron's 2	22.8	0.4	(0.972)	0.677	21.7	-0.3	(0.859)	0.687	21.4	0.4	(1.391)	0.752
% Enrolled at Barron's 3	19.2	-0.3	(0.895)	0.745	20.4	-1.1	(0.834)	0.204	15.5	0.2	(1.232)	0.897
% Enrolled at Barron's 4+	24.5	-1.8	(0.958)	0.054*	25.2	-0.4	(0.907)	0.641	23.3	-0.2	(1.422)	0.862
Observations:	9249				11824				4623			
Panel C: College Characteristics												
SAT midpoint %tile	88.7	0.3	(0.280)	0.243	88.4	0.2	(0.255)	0.338	88.4	0.4	(0.458)	0.355
Instructional expenditures per FTE (\$1,000s)	22.4	0.2	(0.521)	0.734	22.0	0.1	(0.481)	0.882	22.7	0.7	(0.853)	0.421
Graduation rate (%)	73.3	0.4	(0.447)	0.416	72.0	0.4	(0.414)	0.291	72.0	1.8	(0.720)	0.014**
Net price: Family Income 30-48k	12418	-77	(152.680)	0.612	12553	-215	(137.778)	0.118	11802	279	(228.218)	0.222
Net price: Family Income 48-75k	16131	-3	(158.195)	0.987	16218	-113	(143.283)	0.429	15529	350	(239.536)	0.144
Observations:	8043				10228				3733			

Notes: This table reports the impact estimates in Table 4 separately by cohort. Robust Standard errors are reported in parentheses. See Table 4 for further details. *<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01

Table 6
Effect on College Persistence

		Cohor	ts 1 and 2			Co	hort 1			Co	hort 2	
	Ctrl Mean	Treat Effect	SE	P-val	Ctrl Mean	Treat Effect	SE	P-val	Ctrl Mean	Treat Effect	SE	P-val
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Panel A: Term 3 Outcomes												
% Enrolled Anywhere	85.0	-0.7	(0.565)	0.224	85.5	-0.9	(0.826)	0.282	84.6	-0.5	(0.774)	0.490
% Enrolled at CollegePoint School	49.6	0.7	(0.740)	0.349	51.8	-0.1	(1.098)	0.903	47.6	1.4	(1.001)	0.149
% Enrolled at Barron's 1	20.2	0.9	(0.608)	0.123	20.7	1.3	(0.919)	0.152	19.8	0.6	(0.810)	0.454
% Enrolled at Barron's 2	21.4	0.2	(0.633)	0.702	22.3	0.1	(0.958)	0.898	20.7	0.4	(0.845)	0.640
% Enrolled at Barron's 3	19.0	-0.8	(0.596)	0.173	18.6	-0.8	(0.873)	0.336	19.3	-0.8	(0.816)	0.307
% Enrolled at Barron's 4+	24.4	-1.1	(0.644)	0.098*	23.9	-1.5	(0.937)	0.112	24.8	-0.7	(0.885)	0.414
% Continuously Enrolled	82.0	-0.6	(0.605)	0.322	82.7	-1.3	(0.885)	0.148	81.3	-0.1	(0.827)	0.931
% Continuously Enrolled at CP School	47.4	0.6	(0.742)	0.444	49.7	-0.2	(1.103)	0.851	45.4	1.2	(1.004)	0.214
Panel B: Term 5 Outcomes												
% Enrolled Anywhere					82.6	-0.8	(0.883)	0.348				
% Enrolled at CollegePoint School					50.3	0.1	(1.103)	0.918				
% Enrolled at Barron's 1					19.7	1.7	(0.907)	0.068*				
% Enrolled at Barron's 2					22.1	-0.3	(0.951)	0.726				
% Enrolled at Barron's 3					18.3	-0.8	(0.869)	0.377				
% Enrolled at Barron's 4+					22.4	-1.4	(0.917)	0.132				
% Continuously Enrolled					77.4	-1.2	(0.969)	0.204				
% Continuously Enrolled at CP School					46.7	-0.1	(1.107)	0.920				
Observations:	21073				9249				11824			

Notes: This table reports the treatment effects of CollegePoint on persistence in college. Panel A reports the treatment effects on whether and where students are enrolled three semesters after graduating high school. Panel B reports the same effects but looking out five semester after high school graduation. Based on when students graduated high school, third semester outcomes are available for cohorts 1 and 2, and fifth semester outcomes are available for cohort 1. We calculate treatment effects by regressing the relevant outcome variable on the treatment group indicator, a subset of covariates in Table 3, and a randomization batch fixed effect. Robust Standard errors are reported in parentheses. *<0.1, *** p<0.05, *** p<0.01

Table 7
Effects of Starting CollegePoint Early

	Late Start	Early Start	SE	P-value
	Mean	Effect	SL	1 -value
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Panel A: Engagement in Advising				
Number of Interactions	5.5	2.7	(0.283)	0.000***
% Ever Interacted	79.2	9.3	(1.313)	0.000***
% Discussed Academic Prep	7.5	14.0	(1.239)	0.000***
% Discussed College Applications	34.1	11.8	(1.746)	0.000***
% Discussed College List	29.0	13.6	(1.704)	0.000***
% Discussed Financial Aid Applications	50.9	9.0	(1.774)	0.000***
% Discussed College Enrollment Decision	36.9	1.8	(1.740)	0.296
Observations:	3101			
Panel B: Score Send Outcomes				
Total Score Sends	7.7	-0.1	(0.195)	0.533
Score Sends to CollegePoint Schools	6.3	-0.1	(0.190)	0.492
Score Sends to Barron's 1 Schools	4.2	-0.1	(0.165)	0.758
Score Sends to Barron's 2 Schools	1.7	0.0	(0.063)	0.652
Score Sends to Barron's 3 Schools	0.8	-0.1	(0.042)	0.222
Score Sends to Barron's >3 Schools	1.0	0.0	(0.047)	0.860
Observations:	2690			
Panel C: Enrollment Outcomes				
% Enrolled in College	86.0	-1.1	(1.269)	0.374
% Enrolled at CollegePoint School	58.1	-1.9	(1.778)	0.289
% Enrolled at Barron's 1 School	27.8	-0.5	(1.603)	0.743
% Enrolled at Barron's 2 School	24.2	1.1	(1.545)	0.486
% Enrolled at Barron's 3 School	16.7	-2.3	(1.296)	0.078*
% Enrolled at Barron's >3 School	17.3	0.6	(1.367)	0.657
Observations:	3101			

Notes: This table reports the treatment effects of starting CollegePoint in the spring of junior year ("early starters") versus the fall of senior year ("late starters"). Panel A presents the treatment effects on engagement with advising. Panel B presents the treatment effects on college applications as measured by SAT score sends. Panel C presents the treatment effects on whether and where students enroll. The experiment occurred within the cohort prior to the main experimental sample. We calculate treatment effects of starting early by regressing the relevant outcome variable on the early starter group indicator, a subset of covariates in Table 3 and a randomization batch fixed effect. Robust Standard errors are reported in parentheses. *<0.1, *** p<0.05, **** p<0.01

Table 8
CollegePoint Impacts by Advising Organization

		C	Org 1	C	Org 2	(Org 3	С	rg 4
	Control Mean	Treat Effect	SE	Treat Effect	SE	Treat Effect	SE	Treat Effect	SE
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Panel A: Score Send Outcomes									
Total Applications	7.9	0.2	(0.223)	0.3	(0.205)	0.6	(0.292)**	0.7	(0.345)*
% Applied to CollegePoint School	93.7	0.2	(0.609)	0.1	(0.560)	0.6	(0.796)	0.8	(0.942)
% Applied to Barron's 1	74.7	2.6	(1.076)**	3.0	(0.990)***	5.4	(1.406)***	0.4	(1.663)
% Applied to Barron's 2	73.2	1.7	(1.111)	1.4	(1.022)	1.7	(1.452)	1.6	(1.718)
% Applied to Barron's 3	57.0	-0.3	(1.271)	-0.8	(1.169)	-1.3	(1.660)	2.2	(1.964)
% Applied to Barron's 4+	62.1	-0.3	(1.250)	-0.4	(1.150)	-2.6	(1.634)	-1.7	(1.932)
Observations:	14658								
Panel B: Enrollment Outcomes									
% Enrolled Anywhere	85.9	-1.0	(0.669)	-0.1	(0.620)	0.8	(0.948)	-0.6	(1.176)
% Enrolled at CollegePoint School	50.1	-0.3	(0.924)	1.8	(0.856)**	4.4	(1.309)***	-0.5	(1.624)
% Enrolled at Barron's 1	20.1	0.2	(0.765)	0.6	(0.709)	4.9	(1.084)***	0.9	(1.345)
% Enrolled at Barron's 2	22.1	-0.5	(0.783)	1.1	(0.726)	-2.0	(1.110)*	-0.2	(1.377)
% Enrolled at Barron's 3	19.1	-0.6	(0.735)	-0.6	(0.681)	0.5	(1.041)	-1.5	(1.292)
% Enrolled at Barron's 4+	24.6	-0.1	(0.802)	-1.2	(0.743)*	-2.6	(1.136)**	0.3	(1.410)
Observations:	25696								
Panel C: College Characteristics									
SAT midpoint %tile	88.5	0.0	(0.236)	0.3	(0.216)	0.8	(0.330)**	0.1	(0.414)
Instructional expenditures per FTE (\$1,000s)	22.3	-0.3	(0.441)	-0.1	(0.404)	2.1	(0.622)***	0.6	(0.780)
Graduation rate (%)	72.5	0.0	(0.378)	0.7	(0.346)*	2.0	(0.533)***	0.3	(0.668)
Net price: Family Income 30-48k	12380	-127	(125.909)	17	(115.358)	-356	(177.518)**	25	(222.550)
Net price: Family Income 48-75k	16075	-50	(130.957)	97	(119.984)	-213	(184.576)	88	(231.426)
Observations:	22004								

Notes: This table reports the impact estimates in Table 4 by advising organization. Each row contains the output from a single regression. Instead of including a single treatment group indicator, we included indicators for assignment to the four advising organizations. Robust Standard errors are reported in parentheses. See Table 4 for further details. *<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01

Table 9
Differences in Organizational Effectiveness

		О	rg 2	O	org 3	F-test p-
	Control Mean	Treat Effect	SE	Treat Effect	SE	value
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
% Enrolled Anywhere	86.1	0.6	(1.335)	0.8	(1.423)	0.907
% Enrolled at CollegePoint School	51.8	3.2	(1.903)*	4.8	(2.029)**	0.405
% Enrolled at Barron's 1	22.5	1.4	(1.667)	4.8	(1.776)***	0.042
% Enrolled at Barron's 2	22.5	2.1	(1.626)	-1.0	(1.733)	0.065
% Enrolled at Barron's 3	17.5	-0.9	(1.443)	0.0	(1.538)	0.563
% Enrolled at Barron's 4+	23.6	-2.0	(1.576)	-3.1	(1.679)*	0.496
Observations:	4013					

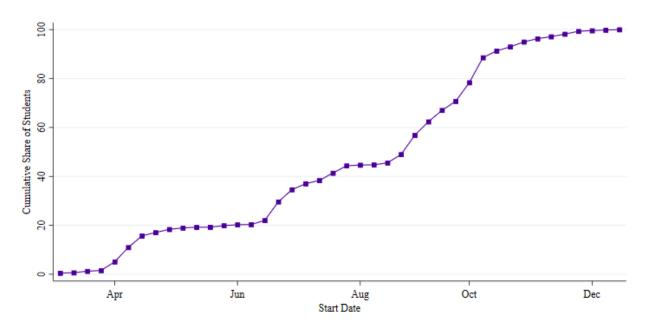
Notes: This table reports the impact estimates in Table 4 for the subset of students who were randomized between organizations 2 and 3. Each row contains the output from a single regression. Instead of including a single treatment group indicator, we included indicators for assignment to the two advising organizations. The last column reports the p-value for the joint test of equality between the organizations effects. Robust Standard errors

Table 10
Effect on College Applications & Enrollment for On-Track Students

	Control Mean	Treatment Effect	SE	P-value
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Panel A: Score Send Outcomes				
Total Applications	7.9	-0.1	(0.291)	0.782
% Applied to CollegePoint School	89.8	0.2	(1.381)	0.892
% Applied to Barron's 1	61.7	0.4	(2.237)	0.850
% Applied to Barron's 2	73.4	-4.5	(2.082)	0.031**
% Applied to Barron's 3	65.8	6.4	(2.132)	0.003***
% Applied to Barron's 4+	77.9	-1.3	(1.937)	0.496
Observations:	1877			
Panel B: Enrollment Outcomes				
% Enrolled Anywhere	82.8	0.6	(1.283)	0.640
% Enrolled at CollegePoint School	36.7	0.5	(1.615)	0.764
% Enrolled at Barron's 1	9.5	-0.7	(0.984)	0.492
% Enrolled at Barron's 2	18.0	-1.0	(1.286)	0.449
% Enrolled at Barron's 3	20.6	2.7	(1.412)	0.055*
% Enrolled at Barron's 4+	34.7	-0.5	(1.620)	0.777
Observations:	3394			
Panel C: College Characteristics				
SAT midpoint %tile	84.1	-0.3	(0.500)	0.518
Instructional expenditures per FTE (\$1,000s)	16.0	-0.3	(0.463)	0.457
Graduation rate (%)	65.7	0.1	(0.743)	0.890
Net price: Family Income 30-48k	13024	-310	(227.124)	0.173
Net price: Family Income 48-75k	16523	-297	(231.084)	0.198
Observations:	2821			

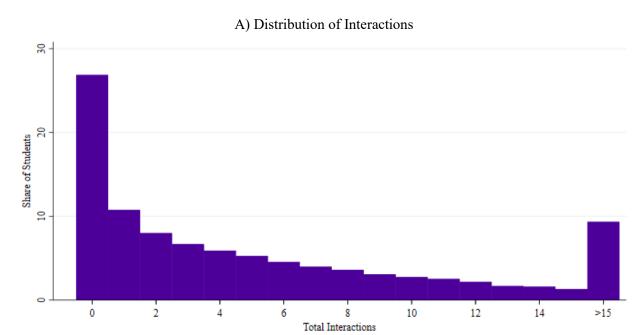
Notes: This table reports the impact estimates in Table 4 from a pilot of CollegePoint with on-track students. Robust Standard errors are reported in parentheses. See Table 4 for further details. *<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01

Figure 1: CollegePoint Start Date



Notes: The line plot shows the cumulative share of students who signed up for CollegePoint by week. The vertical dashed line represents the average start date.

Figure 2: Interactions with Advisor







Notes: The distribution in Panel A shows the total number of interactions that students in the treatment group had with their advisor. The line plot in Panel B shows the share of treatment students who interacted with their advisor by month. We exclude students who have not yet signed up by that month from the interaction rate.

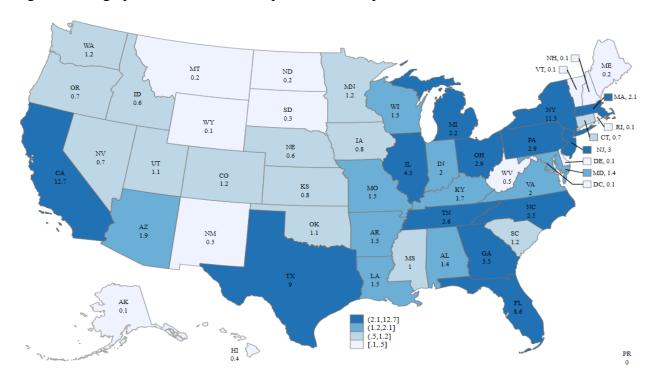
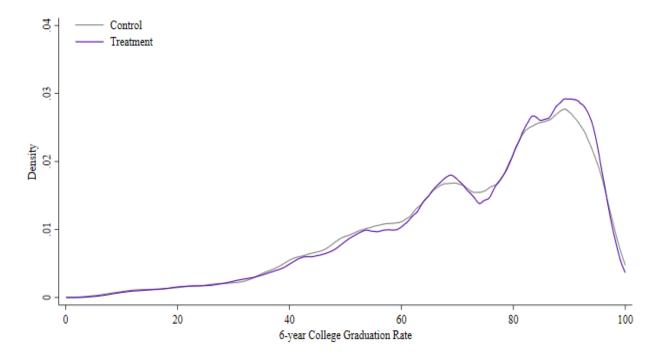


Figure 3: Geographic Distribution of Experimental Sample

Notes: The map shows the share of students in the experimental sample by state.





Notes: The figure plots the distribution of 6-year college graduation rates at the schools to which students in the control and CollegePoint treatment groups enrolled following high school. We restricted the sample to students who enrolled the semester following high school.

Appendix Table 1
Intervention Dosage: Advising Usage by Cohort

	Coho	ort 1	Coh	ort 2	Cohort 3	
	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
% Ever Interacted	77.7	6672	70.7	10198	72.3	4019
Avg. Number of Interactions	5.8	6672	5.1	10198	6.3	4019
% Discussed College List	40.9	6672	38.7	10198	48.7	4019
% Discussed College Applications	57.6	6672	48.9	10198	56.1	4019
% Discussed Applying for Financial Aid	60.1	6672	54.4	10198	55.6	4019
% Discussed College Decision	39.0	6672	36.5	10198	38.4	4019
% Discussed College Transition	23.5	6672	18.8	10198	26.8	4019

Notes: The table shows usage of CollegePoint advising by cohort for students in the treatment group based on

Appendix Table 2
Summary Statistics and Balance Tests for Students by Cohort

		Cohort 1			Cohort 2	2		Cohort 3	3
	Poo	led	T-C	Poc	oled	T-C	Poo	oled	Т-С
	Mean	N	P-Val	Mean	N	P-Val	Mean	N	P-Val
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Percentile College Entrance Exam Score	95.2	9249	0.162	95.6	11824	0.994			
% Family Income < \$40,000	41.6	9249	0.837	39.3	11824	0.120	42.7	4623	0.136
% Family Income \$40,000- \$80,000	57.2	9249	0.908	59.0	11824	0.173	57.3	4623	0.136
% Family Income > \$80,000	1.2	9249	0.715	1.7	11824	0.475			
% Asian	26.9	8908	0.238	24.3	11144	0.246	26.5	3818	
% Black	7.7	8908	0.085*	6.3	11144	0.907	9.9	3818	
% Hispanic	19.3	8908	0.198	19.1	11144	0.867	27.4	3818	
% White	40.7	8908	0.391	44.5	11144	0.241	30.1	3818	
% Other Race	5.3	8908	0.591	5.8	11144	0.898	6.1	3818	
% Parents without a BA	53.8	8759	0.966	51.5	10830	0.413	50.2	3832	
% Female	54.1	9044	0.457	55.6	11338	0.909	57.3	3876	
% Urban High School	38.4	9151	0.736	36.2	11642	0.276	39.1	4467	0.540
% Suburban High School	48.6	9151	0.942	48.2	11642	0.531	47.4	4467	0.530
% Rural High School	13.0	9151	0.704	15.6	11642	0.561	13.5	4467	0.959
% Public High School	77.4	9111	0.967	77.0	11560	0.245	76.0	4444	0.526
% Private High School	6.7	9111	0.593	7.9	11560	0.809	6.0	4444	0.137
% Charter High School	4.0	9111	0.719	4.4	11560	0.093*	4.7	4444	0.507
% Magnet High School	12.1	9111	0.700	11.0	11560	0.574	13.5	4444	0.819
% Low-Supply CP School State	11.0	9249	0.667	15.1	11824	0.387	11.1	4623	0.692
% Mid-Supply CP School State	21.7	9249	0.965	24.7	11824	0.369	21.5	4623	0.454
% High-Supply CP School State	67.3	9249	0.740	60.3	11824	0.145	67.4	4623	0.352
School Size	1710	9111	0.645	1644	11566	0.060*	1686	4446	0.841
HS Student:Counselor Ratio	289.83	8501	0.746	292.79	10641	0.025**	290.7	4179	0.170
% FRL	42.8	8333	0.568	41.6	10449	0.122	45.6	4096	0.134
HS Per Pupil Expenditure	15765	8501	0.528	15444	10642	0.239	15678	4179	0.610
F-Test									
	F-Stat	P-Val	N	F-Stat	P-Val	N	F-Stat	P-Val	N
	0.743	0.732	9249	0.685	0.791	11824	2.783	0.025	3477

Notes: This table presents baseline summary statistics for the students in the experimental sample by cohort. Due to changes with a data provider, we lack detailed student-level data for students from cohort 3. We present cohort means and counts for each cohort separately. In Column 3, 6, and 9 we show the p-value for a test of the difference between treatment and control group means, estimated by regressing the relevant baseline variable on the treatment group indicator and a randomization batch fixed effect. We report a joint balance test for each cohort by regressing treatment status on all baseline variables in the table excluding high school characteristics. The bottom of the table contains the resulting F-statistic and p-value. All regressions use robust standard errors. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.05, *** p<0.01

Appendix Table 3
Summary Statistics: Takers vs Non-Takers

	Non-Taker Mean	Taker Diff	SE	P-Value
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Panel A: Demographic Differences	, ,	, ,	, ,	, ,
Percentile College Entrance Exam Score	95.6	0.4	(0.101)	0.000***
Predicted Income	60160	-20389	(634.299)	0.000***
% Asian	36.3	0.5	(0.977)	0.585
% Black	5.9	1.6	(0.464)	0.001***
% Hispanic	23.6	6.9	(0.850)	0.000***
% White	29.5	-8.6	(0.943)	0.000***
% Other Race	4.3	0.1	(0.426)	0.872
% Parents without a BA	70.2	3.0	(0.928)	0.001***
% Female	50.5	6.8	(1.019)	0.000***
% Urban High School	46.7	4.8	(1.017)	0.000***
% Suburban High School	42.0	-2.8	(1.009)	0.006***
% Rural High School	11.0	-1.1	(0.641)	0.077*
% Low-Supply CP School State	7.8	-0.5	(0.586)	0.430
% Mid-Supply CP School State	22.0	2.6	(0.841)	0.002***
% High-Supply CP School State	70.2	-1.2	(0.944)	0.188
% HS Offers AP Courses	94.6	0.4	(0.549)	0.438
HS Student: Counselor Ratio	301.0	-28.9	(5.239)	0.000***
% HS Receiving FRPL	46.9	1.9	(0.466)	0.000***
HS Per Pupil Expenditure	16605	1698	(150.009)	0.000***
Observations:	11950			
Panel B: Score Send Differences				
Total Applications	8.5	1.5	(0.256)	0.000***
% Applied to CollegePoint School	92.7	2.8	(1.052)	0.009***
% Applied to Barron's 1	78.9	11.0	(1.646)	0.000***
% Applied to Barron's 2	74.2	2.4	(1.745)	0.166
% Applied to Barron's 3	56.7	0.4	(1.972)	0.852
% Applied to Barron's 4+	61.3	-3.8	(1.934)	0.052*
Observations:	9457			

Notes: This table compares the students who were recruited by CollegePoint but did not sign up ("non-takers") to students who signed up ("takers"). Panel A presents differences in baseline demographics and includes all non-takers and takers. Panel B presents differences in SAT score sends and includes non-takers and the control group takers. We estimate difference between takers and non-taker group means by regressing the relevant outcome variable on the take-up indicator. All regressions use robust standard errors. See Section III for more details. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01

Appendix Table 4
Summary Statistics and Balance Tests for Supplemental RCTs

	C	n-Track Sa	ample	E	arly-Start S	ample
	Po	oled	Т-С	Po	oled	T-C
	Mean	N	P-Value	Mean	N	P-Value
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Percentile College Entrance Exam Score	88.8	2965	0.359	95.3	2798	0.945
% Family Income < \$40,000	46.0	3394	0.648	27.4	3101	0.994
% Family Income \$40,000- \$80,000	53.9	3394	0.623	52.5	3101	0.226
% Family Income > \$80,000	0.1	3394	0.566	20.0	3101	0.127
% Asian	19.3	1915	0.147	41.7	3039	0.802
% Black	10.3	1915	0.763	5.7	3039	0.996
% Hispanic	35.8	1915	0.005***	21.1	3039	0.094*
% White	28.7	1915	0.332	25.8	3039	0.369
% Other Race	5.9	1915	0.277	5.8	3039	0.479
% Parents without a BA	69.0	2158	0.745	40.0	3011	0.248
% Female	59.2	1936	0.223	47.9	3081	0.221
% Urban High School	35.1	3323	0.200	46.7	3026	0.386
% Suburban High School	49.9	3323	0.272	43.6	3026	0.108
% Rural High School	15.0	3323	0.870	9.8	3026	0.222
% Public High School	78.6	3305	0.615	72.9	3010	0.382
% Private High School	6.3	3305	0.367	6.0	3010	0.199
% Charter High School	5.3	3305	0.634	5.3	3010	0.215
% Magnet High School	10.0	3305	0.775	16.1	3010	0.348
% Low-Supply CP School State	12.0	3393	0.330	11.0	3101	0.099*
% Mid-Supply CP School State	23.5	3393	0.806	23.7	3101	0.763
% High-Supply CP School State	64.5	3393	0.645	65.4	3101	0.398
School Size	1606	3307	0.710	1914	3011	0.983
HS Student:Counselor Ratio	299	3097	0.841	330	2402	0.257
% FRL	48.3	3028	0.320	46.3	2720	0.399
HS Per Pupil Expenditure	14952	3097	0.309	14341	2400	0.663
F-Test						
	F-Stat	P-Value	N	F-Stat	P-Value	N
	1.06	0.390	2965	0.558	0.888	2798

Notes: This table presents baseline summary statistics for the students in the supplemental experiments reported in section VI. We present sample means and counts for each experiment separately. In Column 3 and 6 we show the p-value for a test of the difference between treatment and control group means, estimated by regressing the relevant baseline variable on the treatment group indicator and a randomization batch fixed effect. We report a joint balance test for each experiment by regressing treatment status on all baseline variables in the table excluding high school characteristics. The bottom of the table contains the resulting F-statistic and p-value. All regressions use robust standard errors.

^{*} p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01

Appendix Table 5
Summary Statistics by Advising Organization

	Org	g 1	Org	g 2	Org	g 3	Org	g 4
	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Campaign 1 Recruitment	0.9	4370	27.8	7890	76.3	2139	3.3	1143
Campaign 2 Recruitment	31.2	4370	0.0	7890	5.8	2139	84.1	1143
Campaign 3 Recruitment	68.0	4370	72.2	7890	17.9	2139	12.6	1143
Percentile College Entrance Exam Score	95.2	4370	95.5	7890	95.6	2139	95.6	1143
% Family Income < \$40,000	36.5	4370	38.0	7890	51.8	2139	48.7	1143
% Family Income \$40,000- \$80,000	61.3	4370	60.7	7890	47.5	2139	50.8	1143
% Family Income > \$80,000	2.3	4370	1.4	7890	0.7	2139	0.4	1143
% Asian	22.9	4155	24.5	7454	32.1	2062	29.9	1116
% Black	7.8	4155	6.0	7454	7.3	2062	7.3	1116
% Hispanic	18.6	4155	18.2	7454	22.3	2062	24.1	1116
% White	45.1	4155	45.3	7454	33.9	2062	34.2	1116
% Other Race	5.6	4155	6.0	7454	4.4	2062	4.4	1116
% Parents without a BA	49.2	4006	51.3	7241	64.2	2085	52.9	1125
% female	58.1	4229	52.6	7579	55.6	2093	55.5	1128
% Urban High School	35.7	4307	36.4	7769	41.0	2121	39.0	1136
% Suburban High School	50.0	4307	47.5	7769	47.9	2121	49.6	1136
% Rural High School	14.3	4307	16.1	7769	11.0	2121	11.4	1136
% Public High School	76.3	4287	78.5	7726	74.9	2107	77.6	1128
% Private High School	8.1	4287	7.5	7726	6.4	2107	7.0	1128
% Charter High School	4.6	4287	3.8	7726	4.4	2107	3.5	1128
% Magnet High School	11.3	4287	10.4	7726	14.6	2107	12.4	1128
% Low-Supply CP School State	14	4370	15	7890	11	2139	7	1143
% Mid-Supply CP School State	22.8	4370	24.0	7890	25.2	2139	19.4	1143
% High-Supply CP School State	64	4370	61	7890	63	2139	74	1143
School Size	1608	4288	1648	7728	1820	2107	1753	1128
% FRL	42	3850	41	7025	45	1942	42	1024
HS Student:Counselor Ratio	289	3941	293	7150	291	1973	276	1049
HS Per Pupil Expenditure	15506	3941	15392	7150	15634	1973	16646	1049

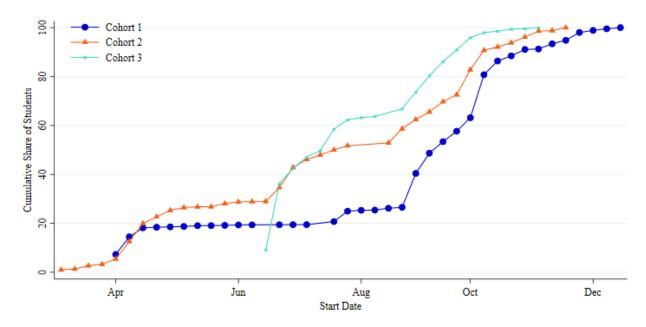
Notes: This table presents baseline summary statistics for CollegePoint students by advising organization. We present means and counts for each organization separately.

Appendix Table 6 Student Experience with Advising by Organization

	Or	g 1	Or	g 2	Or	g 3	Org	g 4
	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Panel A: Advisor Relationship								
I wish my advisor knew me better	59	1425	46	2696	59	670	52	408
I feel close to advisor	28	1423	46	2696	48	671	50	405
When I'm stressed, I contact my advisor	16	1425	29	2696	30	669	31	407
My advisor is easy to talk to	71	1418	85	2696	81	670	81	407
My advisor really listens to me	70	1415	85	2689	82	666	82	406
My advisor cares about me	70	1415	85	2687	80	663	79	404
Panel B: Advisor Helpfulness								
Advisor helped complete a task	62	1431	78	2700	78	668	76	409
Advisor informed of a task	69	1431	83	2705	80	669	77	407
Advisor helped track deadlines	65	1428	79	2696	76	669	75	408
Advisor helped with where to apply	52	1429	72	2699	73	669	68	407
Advisor helped complete applications	50	1427	66	2690	67	665	67	406
Advisor helped with college essays	46	1426	63	2695	67	667	70	407
Advisor helped with applying for aid	64	1431	78	2700	70	669	66	406
Advisor helped expand college list	45	1430	66	2703	66	666	62	408
Advisor helped manage stress	55	1432	71	2698	68	668	68	408
Advisor helped with family issues	34	1425	53	2690	50	665	47	407
Advisor helped with understanding aid award letters	55	1427	71	2697	59	665	53	408
Advisor helped with college decision	46	1430	64	2696	62	667	53	408
Panel C: Advisor Influence								
Advisor influenced college list	32	1422	49	2683	50	669	46	404
Advisor influenced college decision	22	1399	17	2627	44	659	17	401

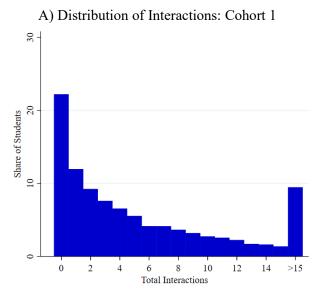
Notes: The table shows experience of CollegePoint advising for students in the treatment group by organization based student self-reports from a post-intervention survey. The sample includes students from cohorts 1 and 2 who responded to the survey. See section III for more details about the survey.

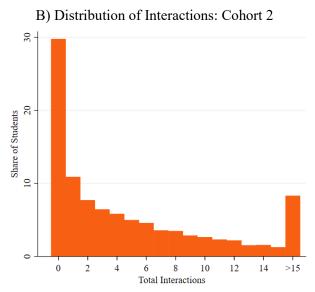
Appendix Figure 1: CollegePoint Start Date by Cohort

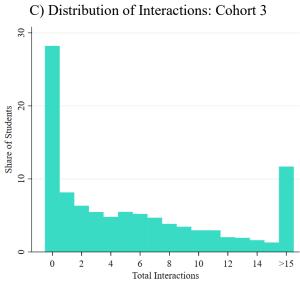


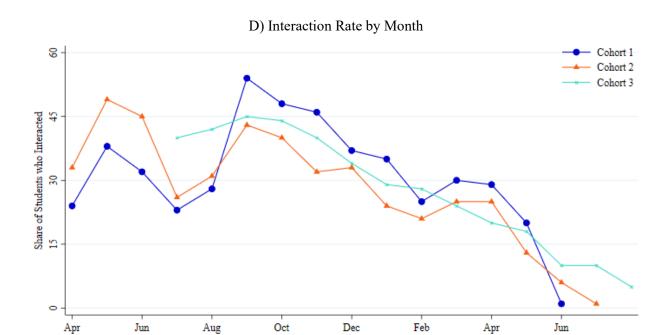
Notes: The line plots show the cumulative share of students from a given cohort who signed up for CollegePoint by week. The vertical dashed lines represent the average start date for students from a given cohort.

Appendix Figure 2: Interactions with Advisor by Cohort



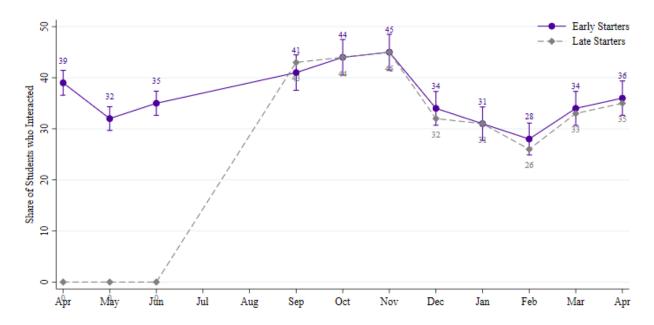






Notes: The distributions in Panel A-C show the total number of interactions that students in the treatment group had with their advisor by cohort. The line plots in Panel D shows the share of treatment students from a given cohort who interacted with their advisor by month. We exclude students who have not yet signed up by that month from the interaction rate.

Appendix Figure 3: Effect of Starting Early on Monthly Interaction Rate



Notes: The figure presents the share of students who engaged by month. The grey dashed line plots late-starters and the purple line plots sum of the late-starters and estimated early-late difference. The error bars indicate 95 percent confidence intervals.