DIGITAL INCENTIVES IN SURVEYS:
RESPONSE RATES AND SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC EFFECTS IN
A LARGE-SCALE PARENTAL NUDGE INTERVENTION

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ABSTRACT

This study examines how digital incentives influence survey participation and engagement in a large randomized controlled trial of parents across seven Texas school districts. We test how incentive amount and information about vendor options affect response behavior and explore differences by language background. Incentivized parents were more likely to start and complete surveys and claim gift cards, though Spanish-speaking parents exhibited distinct patterns—greater completion rates but lower redemption rates, often selecting essential-goods vendors. Increasing incentive value and providing advance information both improved engagement. Findings inform the design of equitable, effective digital incentive strategies for diverse populations.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Parents in the U.S. represent an increasingly heterogeneous population. Diversity in racial, ethnic, and linguistic backgrounds has continued to expand within the U.S. schooling system. For instance, the share of Hispanic students in public schools increased from 24% in the 2012-13 school year to 29% in 2022-23 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2024). There has also been a modest increase in the share of children who speak a language other than English at home— from 18% in 2000 to 22% in 2024 (The Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2025). A growing body of program evaluations has examined low-cost text message (SMS) interventions designed to promote parental engagement in children's learning and development (e.g., Bergman and Chan, 2017; Kraft and Monti-Nussbaum, 2017; York, Loeb, and Doss, 2018). While evidence suggests that such interventions are particularly effective for parents of students from disadvantaged backgrounds (Cortes et al., 2021; Cortes et al., 2023), these programs also face challenges in sustaining participation and engagement—from reading the messages to completing follow-up surveys.

Incentives are a widely used strategy in experimental research to promote effort, engagement, and accurate responses (Plott, 1986; Svorenčík and Maas, 2016), yet questions remain about their effectiveness across subgroups and the design features that shape individual behavior. Incentives are frequently employed to boost participation in survey-based research, helping to mitigate nonresponse, which can be costly and introduce bias through differential attrition and response rates across subgroups (Dutz et al., 2021; MaCurdy, Mroz, and Gritz, 1998). For these reasons, incentives have become a well-established tool for improving data quality (Charness, Gneezy, and Halladay, 2016). Despite this body of work, less is known about how individuals from different backgrounds respond to incentives—for example, whether language moderates the effects of

incentives on outcomes of interest—particularly in light of the persistent digital divide, or sociodemographic disparities in access to technology and information (Warschauer, 2010). Moreover, specific incentive features, such as the monetary amount or whether participants are informed about the available reward options, may also influence response rates and help reduce nonresponse bias across subgroups, potentially narrowing the lingering effects of the digital divide.

We analyze a large-scale randomized controlled trial of an SMS-based nudge intervention with middle school parents across seven school districts in Texas to examine (1) the impact of incentives on program engagement and (2) how changes in incentive amount and information provision affect behavior. We also explore language differences, given the growing linguistic diversity in American schools. Our findings reveal meaningful variation in how parents respond to incentives. Overall, incentivized parents are more likely to engage with the program—from starting and completing the survey to claiming a gift card. However, Spanish-speaking parents exhibit distinct patterns of engagement: they are more likely to start and finish the survey but less likely to claim a gift and more likely to select an essential-goods gift card. We also find that increasing the incentive amount and providing advance information about vendor options both enhance program engagement. While the effects of incentivization are largely consistent across language groups, Spanish-speaking parents appear slightly less responsive to the monetary incentive when claiming a gift, yet more responsive to advance information about available vendor options. These results contribute to a growing understanding of how individuals respond to digital incentives and provide practical insights for researchers and practitioners designing and implementing incentive programs for diverse populations in program evaluations.

II. THE PROGRAM, RANDOMIZATION DETAILS, DATA, AND SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

This paper is part of a larger multi-year randomized controlled trial project called *Texts4Teens*, a parenting intervention that uses weekly text messages to provide facts and tips on how parents can support their child's academic trajectory and social and emotional learning development as they transition from middle school to high school.

To improve end-of-year survey response rates during the 2021-22, 2022-23, and 2023-24 school years, a subset of parents was offered small monetary incentives in the form of gift cards upon survey completion. Parents were assigned to incentive and non-incentive conditions using blocked randomization. Those assigned to the incentive condition were informed of the incentive when notified about the survey and were directed to the incentive platform's website, where they entered their email address—a requirement for receiving the gift card. They subsequently received an email confirmation and a link to select a gift card from one of six vendors: Amazon, CVS Pharmacy, Kroger, Starbucks, Target, or Walmart. Depending on the school year, parents had one to two months to complete the survey and claim their incentive. In 2021-22, 20% of parents were randomized to receive a $5 incentive, whereas in 2022-23 and 2023-24, 50% were randomized to receive $10 incentives. In 2023-24, parents were additionally notified of the six vendor options in the survey reminder text message; in prior years, these options were disclosed only upon survey completion and at the incentive platform's website.

Data were drawn from the 2021-22, 2022-23, and 2023-24 school years and multiple sources: parent- and child-level sociodemographic information provided by school districts, response data from a 10-minute end-of-year parent survey, and administrative records from the incentive platform. The analytic sample includes 30,455 parents and students (Incentivized: N = 10,963; Non-Incentivized: N = 19,492) across seven Texas school districts. Table 1 presents summary

statistics and covariate balance tests comparing the incentivized and non-incentivized groups. More than two-thirds of children in the sample are Hispanic, and just over two-fifths of parents have children eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL). Additionally, 25% of parents opted to receive Spanish-language messages. Covariate balance was achieved across all observed characteristics, including child age, gender, race/ethnicity, FRPL eligibility, messaging language, and *Text4Teens* treatment group.

III. EMPIRICAL STRATEGY

We estimate a series of linear probability models to assess the effects of being incentivized and other parent and child characteristics on six measures of parent engagement. The regression specification is given by:

$$Y_{isgt} = \beta_1 \cdot Incentive_{isgt} + \beta_2 \cdot X_{isgt} + \theta_{sg} + \psi_t + \varepsilon_{isgt} \quad (1)$$

where Y_{isgt} is a binary engagement outcome for parent *i* in school *s*, grade *g*, and year *t*. The six outcomes are defined as follows: *Start Survey* (=1 if the parent began the end-of-year follow-up survey), *Finish Survey* (=1 if the parent completed the survey), *Email Delivered* (=1 if the parent provided a functioning email address to the incentive platform and was sent an incentive email), *Email Open* (=1 if the parent opened that email), *Gift Claimed* (=1 if the parent visited the incentive platform website and claimed the gift card), and *Essential Goods* (=1 if the parent selected a gift card from a vendor selling essential goods and services—Amazon, CVS Pharmacy, Kroger, Target, or Walmart—rather than nonessential goods, such as Starbucks). $Incentive_{isgt}$ is an indicator equal to one if the parent was randomly assigned to the incentivized group. X_{isgt} represents baseline covariates (child age, gender, race/ethnicity, FRPL eligibility, parent texting language, and *Texts4Teens* treatment group). θ_{sg} captures school-by-grade fixed effects, ψ_t

captures year fixed effects, and ε_{isgt} is the regression error term. Standard errors are clustered at the school-by-grade level to account for arbitrary correlation in ε_{isgt} within clusters.

Leveraging variation across years, we test how increasing the incentive amount from \$5 to \$10 and providing advance information about vendor options affect engagement rates. These analyses shed light on how both the design and delivery of digital incentive structures—including their magnitude, framing, and informational transparency—can influence participation and engagement in program evaluations.

Lastly, we estimate alternative specifications in which the incentivized indicator, $Incentive_{isgt}$, in Equation (1) is interacted with texting language to examine whether the impact of being assigned to receive an incentive varies by parents' language preference.

IV. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Table 2 presents the baseline regression results predicting the probability of parents' program engagement across various outcomes: starting and finishing the survey (columns (1)-(2)), email delivered and opened (columns (3)-(4)), gift claimed (column (5)), and whether the gift claimed was from an essential-goods merchant (column (5)). The main predictors shown in columns (1)-(6) are whether parents were incentivized (=1/0) and whether they received texts in Spanish (=1/0). All models control for children's age, gender, race/ethnicity, free and reduced-price lunch status, program treatment status, school-by-grade fixed effects, and year fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered at the school-by-grade level.

A. Main Incentive Results

As shown in columns (1)-(2) of Table 2, we observe, in general, that parents who were incentivized are 12 percentage points *more likely* to start the survey (118% of the non-incentivized mean: 0.10), and 11 percentage points *more likely* to finish the survey (145% of the non-

incentivized mean: 0.07). On face value, it seems that offering parents a small dollar token—either a $5- or $10-dollar gift—increased survey participation substantially. We also observed that incentivized parents were *more likely* to have their email delivered, open the email they received, and claim their gift. In contrast, they were less likely to choose an essential-goods gift card.

While we observe that parents who received texts in Spanish are *more likely* to start and finish the survey than English-speaking parents, they are less likely to open their email and claim their gift card. For example, parents who received the texts in Spanish are 3.0 percentage points more likely to finish the survey than parents who received the texts in English (41% of the non-incentivized mean) but are 0.7 percentage points less likely to claim their gift. Interestingly, Spanish-speaking parents are 0.5 percentage points more likely to redeem a gift card from an essential goods-merchant. These disparities highlight potential challenges and opportunities when conducting research and outreach with individuals from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

B. *Raising Incentives: Increasing the Dollar Amount from $5 to $10*

Panel A of Table 3 shows results from specifications assessing whether increasing the incentive amount from $5 to $10 impacts program engagement. For these models, we limit the sample to the 2021-22 and 2022-23 school years—in the former year, we provided incentive parents a $5 incentive, while in the latter year, we provided a $10 incentive. We leverage this between-year variation in the following model:

$$Y_{isg} = \beta_1 \cdot Incentive_{isg} + \beta_2 \cdot TenDollar_{isg} + \beta_3 \cdot Incentive_{isg} \cdot TenDollar_{isg}$$
$$+ \beta_4 \cdot X_{isg} + \theta_{sg} + \varepsilon_{isg} \quad (2)$$

where Y_{isg} is a binary engagement outcome for parent i in school s, and grade g. The key coefficient of interest is the interaction between $Incentive_{isg}$ and $TenDollar_{isg}$, which tells us how

increasing the incentive amount for incentivized individuals affects program engagement outcomes.

The first row of Panel A shows positive effects on most outcomes. For example, we find a 5.3 percentage-point impact on finishing the survey (61% of non-incentivized mean). We also find a smaller but positive 3.1 percentage-point effect on claiming a gift, although there appears to be no economically significant impact of choosing an essential-goods merchant. Similar to Table 2, we find that Spanish-speaking parents behave in different ways than English-speaking parents. While they are, again, more likely to start and finish the survey, they are less likely to redeem a gift and more likely to choose an essential-goods vendor.

C. *Highlighting Options: Providing Information about the Incentive Options*

Panel B of Table 3 presents results from models that show whether providing parents advance information about the incentive options affects program engagement outcomes. In these specifications, we restricted the sample to the 2022-23 and 2023-24 school years. In 2022-23, parents did not receive details about the gift card vendor choices until they completed the survey and visited the website of the incentive platform. In 2023-24, parents knew the vendor choices in advance—in each text message that reminded parents to complete the survey, the six options were listed.[1] Basically, we altered the timing of when parents became aware of which vendors they could choose from—from the gift claiming stage to the survey start stage. In both years, incentivized parents were promised $10 gift cards. Using the variation across years, we estimated the following model:

$$Y_{isg} = \beta_1 \cdot Incentive_{isg} + \beta_2 \cdot Information_{isg} + \beta_3 \cdot Incentive_{isg} \cdot Information_{isg}$$

$$+ \beta_4 \cdot X_{isg} + \theta_{sg} + \varepsilon_{isg} \quad (3)$$

[1] For example, one reminder text message stated: "Dear ${m://FirstName} Parent: We want to know what you think about our Texts4Teens texts! After you complete our 10-minute survey at the following link, you'll get a $10 gift card (Amazon, CVS, Kroger, Starbucks, Target, or Walmart): ${l://SurveyURL}."

where Y_{isg} is a binary engagement outcome for parent i in school s, and grade g. The key covariate is the interaction between $Incentive_{isg}$ and $Information_{isg}$, which indicates whether providing advance information about the incentive options for incentivized parents affects their outcomes.

In the first row of Panel B, we see a 4.5 percentage-point effect on starting the survey (49% of non-incentivized mean) and a 3.0 percentage-point effect on finishing it (46% of non-incentivized mean). While these results are positive, they are slightly smaller than the analogous results in Panel A, which examined the effects of increasing the incentive dollar amount. Interestingly, there are no positive impacts on other program engagement outcomes. It is possible that the positive effect of receiving advance information about vendor options was sufficient to prompt parents to begin and complete the survey, but not strong enough to motivate them to enter their email address to claim the gift card or otherwise engage with the incentive platform. Despite these differences, we still find variation by texting language. Spanish speakers were more likely to start and finish the survey, less likely to redeem a gift, and more likely to choose an essential-goods vendor.

D. Heterogeneous Effects by Texting Language

So far, we have found that incentives, in general, yield positive effects on program engagement outcomes, with some variation by design features such as dollar amount and advance information. Moreover, we also show that parents who received the texts in Spanish engage with the program in different ways from English-speaking parents. Consistently, they are more likely to start and finish the survey, less likely to claim a gift, and more likely to choose an essential-goods merchant. Given this variation, we address whether Spanish speakers react to the increased dollar amount and the advance information options differently from English-speaking parents. We accomplish this by incorporating interactions into Equations (1)-(3)—we interact a binary indicator for

Spanish with our incentivized indicator and, when examining the increased incentives and advance information, we incorporate three-way interactions (e.g., incentive-by-ten dollar incentive-by-Spanish).[2] To ease interpretation, we graph these results in average marginal effects in Figure 1.

Broadly, the main incentive effect—shown in the first set of bars within each plot—for both English- and Spanish-speaking parents is generally positive (or, in the case of essential goods, negative), mirroring the results presented in Table 2. However, there is little evidence that the impact of incentives varies by language, as the confidence intervals for the two groups are often overlapping. The one exception is for claiming a gift. While both English- and Spanish-speaking parents exhibit positive effects on claiming a gift, the effect is significantly smaller for Spanish-speaking parents.

For most outcomes, we observe positive effects of increasing the incentive dollar amount (the second set of bars) for English and Spanish speakers, although the confidence intervals for Spanish speakers are relatively imprecise and lie close to zero for some outcomes, indicating suggestive rather than statistically robust effects. Yet there are no statistically discernible differences between language groups, as the confidence intervals across bars overlap.

The effects of providing advance information (the third set of bars) are statistically insignificant for both groups across outcomes ranging from claiming a gift to choosing an essential-goods vendor. The effects on starting and finishing the survey are positive only for Spanish-speaking parents, and there is evidence that the effect on starting the survey differs significantly by language. Broadly, there are few differential effects of incentivization by language, although overall rates of program engagement still vary, as shown in Tables 2-3. This suggests that while incentives may not automatically eliminate subgroup disparities in response

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[2] Full results from these models are available in the Appendix.

rates, tailoring incentive structures to specific populations could further enhance engagement and reduce differential response.

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Given the growing diversity of U.S. schools, it is essential that researchers understand which strategies best engage parents from different backgrounds. Incentives are one promising approach, as they can improve data accuracy in survey-based program evaluations (Dutz et al., 2021). While our findings show that incentivized parents were more likely to engage with the program, the design features of the incentives accentuated their effects. Thus, our study offers insights for field experiments in the digital era, revealing how incentives can address challenges related to participation and engagement.

Moreover, we find variation in program engagement by language preference, such that the positive association between Spanish speakers and starting and finishing the survey shifts to null or smaller associations in later stages. This pattern may reflect a *digital divide by language*—perhaps the platform was less receptive to Spanish-speaking users, or linguistic minorities faced greater challenges navigating unfamiliar technologies. While our study cannot offer concrete explanations for these differences, they highlight a new axis of inequality that should be considered in experimental design and the implementation of incentives.

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Table 1: Sample Summary Statistics
and Covariate Balancing Test among Incentivized and Non-Incentivized Groups

	Panel A: Overall Sample Mean	Panel B: Incentivized Mean	Panel C: Non-Incentivized Mean	Mean Difference	p-value
Age	12.373	12.320	12.403	-0.001	0.929
	(1.101)	(1.096)	(1.102)	[0.006]	
Female	0.494	0.497	0.492	0.004	0.533
				[0.007]	
White	0.204	0.183	0.216	0.000	0.904
				[0.004]	
Black	0.034	0.034	0.035	0.000	0.967
				[0.002]	
Hispanic	0.671	0.679	0.666	-0.001	0.808
				[0.004]	
Other Race	0.091	0.104	0.083	0.001	0.577
				[0.002]	
Free & Reduced-Price Lunch	0.406	0.434	0.390	0.004	0.361
				[0.005]	
Spanish-Language Texts	0.251	0.255	0.249	-0.001	0.738
				[0.002]	
Texts4Teens Program	0.500	0.500	0.501	0.000	0.920
				[0.001]	
Observations	30,455	10,963	19,492		

Sources: Data from Texts4Teens Middle School Texting Program.

Notes: Standard deviations are shown in parentheses for continuous variables. Standard errors are clustered at the school-by-grade level and are shown in brackets. + p<0.10, * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001 denotes statistical significance.

Table 2: The Effects of Providing Incentives on Program Engagement

|	(1) Start Survey	(2) Finish Survey	(3) Email Delivered	(4) Email Open	(5) Gift Claimed	(6) Essential Goods
Incentivized	0.118***	0.107***	0.160***	0.124***	0.106***	-0.021***
	(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.003)	(0.001)
Spanish-Language Texts	0.038***	0.030***	0.003	-0.004	-0.007**	0.005***
	(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.002)	(0.001)
Obs.	30,455	30,455	30,455	30,455	30,455	30,455
R^2	0.038	0.038	0.118	0.094	0.081	0.020
Non-Incentivized Mean	0.100	0.074	--	--	--	--
Student-Level Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
School-by-Grade FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Notes: Controls: children's age, gender, race/ethnicity, free and reduced-price lunch status, and program treatment status. Standard errors are clustered at the school-by-grade level (shown in parentheses). + $p<0.10$, * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$ denotes statistical significance.

Table 3: The Effects of Changing Incentive Designs on Program Engagement

	(1) Start Survey	(2) Finish Survey	(3) Email Delivered	(4) Email Open	(5) Gift Claimed	(6) Essential Goods
	Panel A: Increasing Dollar Amount from $5 to $10					
Incentivized × Ten Dollars	0.054***	0.053***	0.036***	0.031***	0.031***	-0.004
	(0.009)	(0.009)	(0.007)	(0.007)	(0.007)	(0.003)
Incentivized	0.074***	0.067***	0.138***	0.103***	0.085***	-0.018***
	(0.008)	(0.007)	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.003)
Ten Dollars (Year 2023)	-0.033***	-0.030***	-0.007***	-0.004*	-0.003+	0.002+
	(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.001)
Spanish-Language Texts	0.051***	0.039***	0.004	-0.003	-0.007**	0.005***
	(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.001)
Obs.	25,469	25,469	25,469	25,469	25,469	25,469
R^2	0.037	0.037	0.124	0.098	0.084	0.022
Non-Incentivized Mean	0.116	0.087	--	--	--	--
Student-Level Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
School-by-Grade FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Panel B: Dollar Amount at $10 and Providing Information Options					
Incentivized × Information Options	0.045***	0.030*	-0.003	0.005	0.010	-0.004
	(0.013)	(0.012)	(0.011)	(0.010)	(0.010)	(0.004)
Incentivized	0.128***	0.120***	0.173***	0.135***	0.115***	-0.022***
	(0.007)	(0.007)	(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.002)
Information Options (Year 2024)	-0.036***	-0.024***	0.009**	0.006*	0.005+	-0.000
	(0.008)	(0.006)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.001)
Spanish-Language Texts	0.023***	0.020***	0.003	-0.004	-0.008*	0.006**
	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.002)
Obs.	16,192	16,192	16,192	16,192	16,192	16,192
R^2	0.056	0.055	0.106	0.086	0.075	0.021
Non-Incentivized Mean	0.091	0.065	--	--	--	--
Student-Level Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
School-by-Grade FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Notes: Controls: children's age, gender, race/ethnicity, free and reduced-price lunch status, and program treatment status. Standard errors are clustered at the school-by-grade level (shown in parentheses). + $p<0.10$, * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$ denotes statistical significance.

Figure 1: Heterogeneous Effects of Incentives on Program Engagement for English and Spanish Speakers
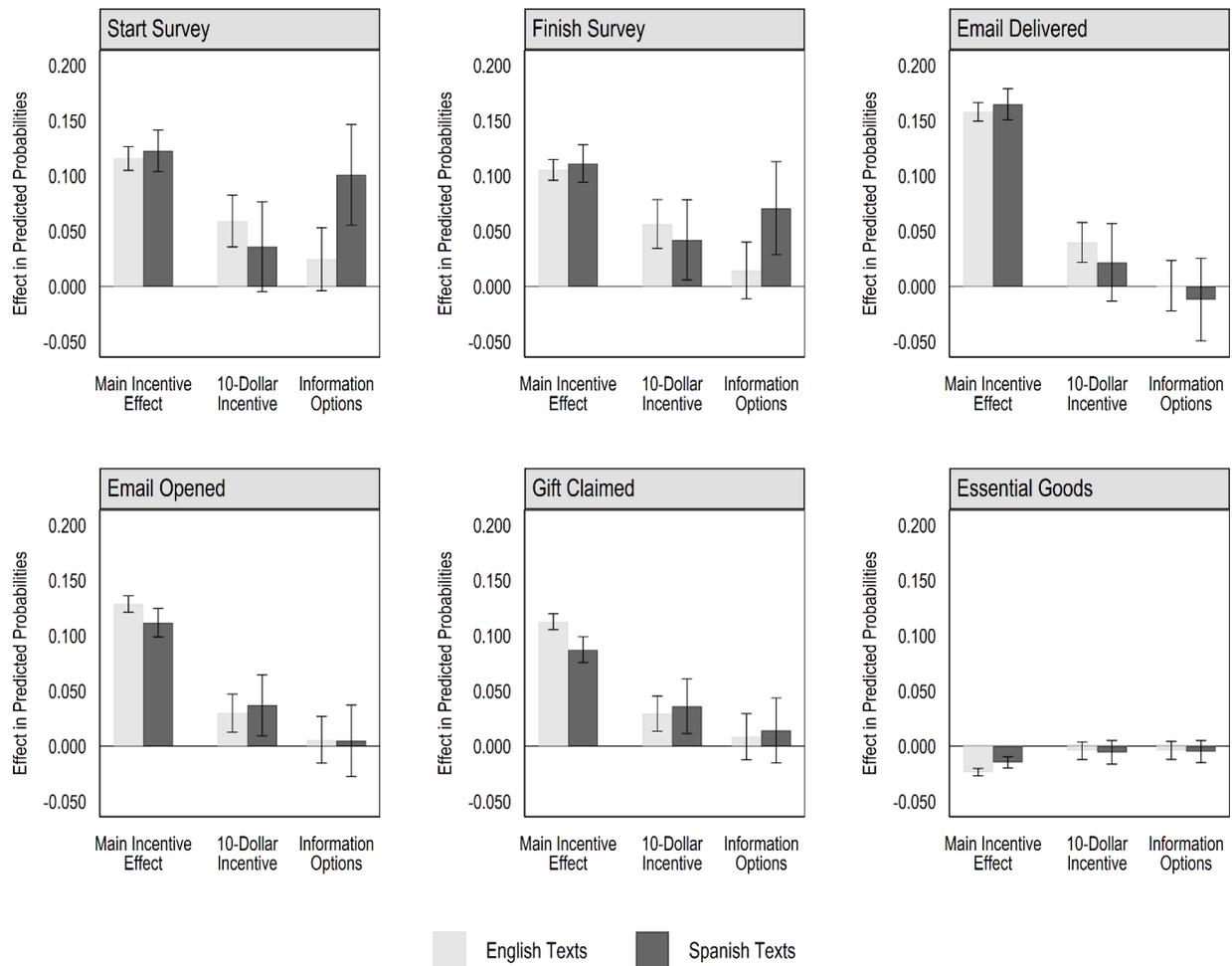
Notes: Results present average marginal effects (AMEs) of the effects of incentives, or contrasts of AMEs of the effects of increasing incentives and providing advance information on vendor choices. Controls: children's age, gender, race/ethnicity, free and reduced-price lunch status, and program treatment status. Standard errors are clustered at the school-by-grade level. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals.

Appendix Table 1: The Effects of Providing Incentives on Program Engagement by Texting Language

	(1) Start Survey	(2) Finish Survey	(3) Email Delivered	(4) Email Open	(5) Gift Claimed	(6) Essential Goods
Incentivized	0.116***	0.105***	0.158***	0.129***	0.113***	-0.024***
	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.002)
Spanish-Language Texts	0.035***	0.028***	0.001	0.003*	0.002*	0.001**
	(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.000)
Incentive × Spanish Language	0.007	0.006	0.007	-0.017*	-0.025***	0.009**
	(0.010)	(0.009)	(0.007)	(0.007)	(0.006)	(0.003)
Obs.	30,455	30,455	30,455	30,455	30,455	30,455
R^2	0.038	0.038	0.118	0.094	0.082	0.020
Non-Incentivized Mean	0.100	0.074	--	--	--	--
Student-Level Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
School-by-Grade FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Notes: Controls: children's age, gender, race/ethnicity, free and reduced-price lunch status, and program treatment status. Standard errors are clustered at the school-by-grade level (shown in parentheses). + p<0.10, * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001 denotes statistical significance.

Appendix Table 2:

The Effect of Increasing Dollar Amount from \$5 to \$10 on Program Engagement by Texting Language

	(1) Start Survey	(2) Finish Survey	(3) Email Delivered	(4) Email Open	(5) Gift Claimed	(6) Essential Goods
Incentivized	0.070***	0.064***	0.132***	0.109***	0.092***	-0.020***
	(0.009)	(0.008)	(0.007)	(0.007)	(0.006)	(0.003)
Ten Dollars (Year 2023)	-0.030***	-0.027***	-0.007**	-0.004*	-0.004*	0.001+
	(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.001)
Spanish-Language Texts	0.054***	0.043***	0.001	0.002	0.002	0.001*
	(0.009)	(0.007)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Incentivized × Ten Dollars	0.059***	0.056***	0.040***	0.030***	0.029***	-0.004
	(0.012)	(0.011)	(0.009)	(0.009)	(0.008)	(0.004)
Incentive × Spanish	0.019	0.013	0.023	-0.022+	-0.032**	0.010*
	(0.020)	(0.018)	(0.017)	(0.013)	(0.011)	(0.005)
Ten Dollars × Spanish	-0.010	-0.012	-0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	(0.015)	(0.011)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.000)
Incentive × Ten Dollars × Spanish	-0.023	-0.014	-0.018	0.007	0.007	-0.001
	(0.025)	(0.023)	(0.021)	(0.017)	(0.015)	(0.007)
Obs.	25,469	25,469	25,469	25,469	25,469	25,469
R^2	0.037	0.037	0.124	0.098	0.085	0.022
Non-Incentivized Mean	0.116	0.087	--	--	--	--
Student-Level Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
School-by-Grade FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Notes: Controls: children's age, gender, race/ethnicity, free and reduced-price lunch status, and program treatment status. Standard errors are clustered at the school-by-grade level (shown in parentheses). + $p<0.10$, * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$ denotes statistical significance.

Appendix Table 3:

The Effect of Providing Information Options on Program Engagement by Texting Language

	(1) Start Survey	(2) Finish Survey	(3) Email Delivered	(4) Email Open	(5) Gift Claimed	(6) Essential Goods
Incentivized	0.129***	0.121***	0.172***	0.139***	0.122***	-0.024***
	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.003)
Information Options (Year 2024)	-0.006	-0.003	0.010**	0.007*	0.006*	-0.000
	(0.008)	(0.007)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.001)
Spanish-Language Texts	0.049***	0.037***	0.003	0.006**	0.006**	0.002**
	(0.011)	(0.009)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.001)
Incentivized × Information Options	0.025+	0.014	0.001	0.006	0.009	-0.004
	(0.014)	(0.013)	(0.012)	(0.011)	(0.011)	(0.004)
Incentive × Spanish	-0.005	-0.002	0.005	-0.016	-0.026**	0.009*
	(0.016)	(0.015)	(0.011)	(0.010)	(0.009)	(0.004)
Information Options × Spanish	-0.112***	-0.078***	-0.003	-0.006*	-0.006*	-0.000
	(0.013)	(0.011)	(0.003)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.001)
Incentive × Information Options × Spanish	0.076**	0.056*	-0.013	-0.001	0.006	-0.001
	(0.026)	(0.023)	(0.020)	(0.017)	(0.016)	(0.006)
Obs.	16,192	16,192	16,192	16,192	16,192	16,192
R^2	0.059	0.056	0.106	0.086	0.076	0.021
Non-Incentivized Mean	0.091	0.065	--	--	--	--
Student-Level Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
School-by-Grade FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Notes: Controls: children's age, gender, race/ethnicity, free and reduced-price lunch status, and program treatment status. Standard errors are clustered at the school-by-grade level (shown in parentheses). + $p<0.10$, * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$ denotes statistical significance.