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#### ABSTRACT

This paper relates frequency of interstate migration and the likelihood of a child's being enrolled in school at the modal grade for age, controlling for socioeconomic status of the family. The 1970 Census of Population obtained information on school enrollment and current grade, state of birth, residence in 1965, and residence in 1970. A measure of relative progress in school was obtained by adjusting a child's age back to October 1, 1969 and comparing with grade of enrollment. The probability of a child's being enrolled below the modal grade for age is highly correlated with the various measures of socioeconomic status and family stability. This measure of relative progress in school was cross-tabulated with frequency of interstate migration. This indicator understates the actual amount of interstate migration, for some children could have moved several times between birth and 1965 and between 1965 and 1970, but in each case only one move would have been counted. Frequent interstate migration is found to be associated with an increased likelihood of being enrolled below the modal grade for age among children whose parents are not college graduates. For children of college graduates frequent interstate migration is associated with a reduction of grade skipping. Interstate migration is most likely to be undertaken by well-educated persons whose children tend to do well in school, and for this reason children who have made frequent interstate moves are less likely to be behind in school than less mobile children. (Author/JM)

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#### DOES MIGRATION INTERFERE WITH CHILDREN'S PROGRESS IN SCHOOL?

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by

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### DOES MIGRATION INTERFERE WITH CHILDREN'S PROGRESS IN SCHOOL?

### Abstract

Frequent interstate migration is found to be associated with an increased likelihood of being enrolled below the modal grade for age among children whose parents are not college graduates. For children of college graduates frequent interstate migration is associated with a reduction of grade skipping.

Interstate migration is most likely to be undertaken by well-educated persons whose children tend to do well in school, and for this reason children who have made frequent interstate moves are less likely to be behind in school than less mobile children. The overrepresentation of the highly educated among long-distance movers is offered as partial explanation of why growing communities tend to have children of above-average scholastic ability.

DOES MIGRATICN INTERFERE WITH CHILDREN'S PROGRESS IN SCHOOL?

Whether migration interferes with children's progress in school is a recurring question in popular family magazines (see the references to and discussion of this literature in Barrett and Noble, 1973) and in considerations of the benefits and costs of migration (Wolfle, 1971:151). Most of the evidence relating to this question has been impressionistic, and the few empirical studies which have been carried out often have methodological shortcomings (see the critique in Barrett and Noble, 1973) or have relied on small samples not representative of the population at large (e.g., users of moving companies).

Nor has there been any theory advanced to specify the conditions under which different types of migration might retard, advance, or have no effect on children's progress and performance in school. The lack of evidence on the mobility of children between schools and its effects has been noted by the Office of Education (1971:1 and 1973) and by Vance Packard (1972:252). The absence of cumulative findings on which theory might be based has been due in part to failure to consider the alternative types of migration (short-distance vs. long-distance, from rural areas to cities, from cities to suburbs, etc.), the frequency of migration, and the socioeconomic status of persons undertaking the different types of geographical mobility.

This paper relates frequency of interstate migration and the likelihood of a child's being enrolled in school at the modal grade for age, controlling for socioeconomic status of the family. Whether long-distance migration affects children's progress in school has important implications

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not only for families and children but for society as a whole. As will be demonstrated, there are important implications for educational institutions in all areas of the country gaining or losing population as a result of migration.

### DATA AND METHODS

The 1970 Census of Population (taken as of April 1) obtained information on school enrollment and current grade, state of birth, residence in 1965, and residence in 1970. A measure of relative progress in school was obtained by adjusting a child's age back to October 1, 1969 and comparing with grade of enrollment, assuming that a six-year-old child should be in the first grade, a seven-year-old child in the second grade, etc. This procedure is similar to that developed by Nam for the 1960 census (see Folger and Nam, 1957) and used by subsequent researchers (Conlisk, 1969; Masters, 1969) and in Current Population Survey reports on Lharacteristics of students (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1972:51-52). The probability of a child's being enrolled below the modal grade for age is highly correlated with the various measures of socioeconomic status and family stability (Folger and Nam, 1967:52-57; U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1973a:291-302, 1973b:32-36, 1973c:120-287).

This measure of relative progress in school was cross-tabulated with frequency of interstate migration, noting that a child who lived outside his state of birth in 1965 and in still another state in 1970 presented evidence of a high degree of interstate migration (having lived in at least three different states). In contrast, a child living in his state of birth in 1965 and 1970 apparently lived in only one state. In between were children who on these three dates lived in two states. This indicator

understates the actual amount of interstate migration, for some children could have moved several times between birth and 1965 and between 1965 and 1970, but in each case only one move would have been counted. Also, a child living outside his fate of birth in 1965 but back in his state of birth in 1970 would be counted with only one interstate move instead of two.

#### TESTS OF HYPOTHESES

Based on a review of the literature, Barrett and Noble (1973:181) state that:

Popular magazines, as well as scientific journals, suggest that a long distance move may affect children negatively. Often, parents are counseled to take special precautions or even to limit their moves to once in four or five years . . .

We will, accordingly, test the hypothesis that the greater the number of states that a school-age child has lived in, the greater is the likelihood of being enrolled below the modal grade for age.

The percent enrolled and, among the enrolled, the percent below, at, and above the modal grade for age is shown in Table 1 according to age of child, number of states lived in, and whether living with both parents. Not living with both parents is associated with an increased probability of a child's being enrolled below the modal grade (Folger and Nam, 1967:55).

### Table 1 about here

At first glance, the data appear to contradict the hypothesis that frequent moving is associated with enrollment below the modal grade. In



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fact, precisely the opposite is shown to be the case. Column 3 demonstrates that the children who are least likely to be below the modal grade are those who show evidence of the greatest amount of interstate migration. In every comparison, the children who have lived in three or more states are less likely to be enrolled below the modal grade than children who have lived in only one or two states.

As an example, consider children 12 to 15 years old. These children should be in the 7th, 8th, 9th, and 10th grades and are old enough for the effects of frequent migration to have cumulated during their school years but are still too young to drop out of school. Among 12-to-15-year-olds who lived with both parents, 17.3 percent of those having lived in only one state are enrolled below the mode, while 16.9 percent of those having lived in two states are below the mode, and only 15.4 percent of those having lived in three or more states are below the mode. The same pattern holds for children at this age who did not live with both parents; the percent enrolled below the mode, from 26.3 for those having lived in only one state to 20.7 for those who have lived in three or more states.

These differences may not seem great; but they are consistent and are in direct contradiction to what was hypothesized. Nevertheless, one should not reject the hypothesis stated previously. The data in Table 1 can be misleading because there are no controls for socioeconomic status of the family. Well-educated persons have the greatest propensity toward long-distance moving (see data in Long, 1973)--which means that they are overrepresented among interstate migrants. In addition, the well-educated are likely to have children who do well in school. Thus, it is possible

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that the better-than-expected performance of the children who have lived in three or more states can be accounted for entirely by the fact that they are most likely to be children of parents with better-than-average educational attainment.

For children living with both parents (the top panel of Table 1), an additional tabulation was made to control for father's educational attainment. This information is given in Table 2, which shows the percent of children enrolled below the mode in the top panel and the percent enrolled above the mode in the bottom panel.

### Table 2 about here

Except for children of college graduates, the conventional hypothesis is consistently supported by the data in Table 2, for increasing frequency of interstate migration is associated with increasing likelihood of a child's being enrolled below the modal grade.

As an example, again consider the 12-to-15-year-olds. Among children at this age whose fathers had not completed high school, 24.3 percent of those having lived in only one state were below the mode, compared to 27.8 percent of those having lived in two states and 29.0 percent of those having lived in three or more states. Similarly, among 12-to-15-year-old children whose fathers had completed high school (but had gone no further) the percent below the mode increases from 12.3 to 18.0 with increasing frequency of move. Among children whose fathers had completed one to three years of college, the percent below the mode increases from 10.4 to 13.6 with increasing frequency of move. But for children whose fathers were college graduates, increasing frequency does not appear to be consistently associated with a greater likelihood of being enrolled below the mode.

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Table 2 shows that not only does frequent interstate migration increase the likelihood that a child will be below the modal grade, but it decreases the likelihood that a child will skip a grade. In every case, the percent of children enrolled above the mode decreases with increasing frequency of interstate migration.

It is interesting to note in Table 2 that the percent of children below the mode demonstates much greater variability according to father's education than **does the percent above** the mode. The likelihood of being enrolled below the mode is consistently about three times as great for children whose fathers did not graduate from high school as for children whose fathers were college graduates. In contrast, the percent above the mode shows very little variation according to father's education, the children of college graduates being only a few percentage points more likely to be enrolled above the mode than children whose fathers failed to complete high school.

In every case, however, increasing education of the father is associated with an increased likelihood of a child's being enrolled above the mode. But it is important to note the ways in which these "advantages" of having a well-educated father can be partially nullified by frequent migration. Look first at children 8 to 11 years old enrolled above the mode. Among children of high school graduates, the percent enrolled above the mode is 15.9 for those who have lived in only one state--which is very nearly the same percent (15.6) above the mode for children with fathers having one to three years of college but who have



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lived in two states. Finally, this percent is very nearly the same as the percent (15.8) above the mode for children with fathers having four or more years of college but who had lived in three or more states. This pattern for children 8 to 11 years old also applies at ages 12 to 15 and 16 and 17.

The point here is that the children of college graduates who have lived in three states are no more likely to be above the mode than children whose fathers had one to three years of college but who lived in only two states and children whose fathers completed high school but who lived in just one state. In other words, increasing frequency of interstate migration could completely eliminate the "advantage" of having a father who was a college graduate insofar as skipping a grade is concerned. In this way, therefore, it appears that for children of college graduates the most important effects of frequent interstate migration may not be failure to make normal progress in school but a reduction in the likelihood of skipping a grade.

The differences in the percent below or above the modal grade according to frequency of interstate migration are relatively small but quite consistent. The size of the apparent effects of frequent migration on children's progress in school might be larger if more refined measures of these two variables were available. Except in rare circumstances, however, the effects of migratich on children's progress in school are always likely to be small in relation to such other variables as family structure and socioeconomic status. - 8 -

### IMPORTANCE OF FINDINGS FOR COMMUNITIES

Because migration tends to be a more important component of population change for local areas than natural increase (the excess of births over deaths), growing communities have a relatively high proportion of inmigrants in their population. The preceding findings revealed that children of interstate migrants were, in the aggregate, less likely to be below the modal grade in school than other children because of the overrepresentation of the highly educated among long-distance migrants. It follows, therefore, that in growing communities the children of highly-educated parents will be overrepresented and as a result scores of scholastic ability will be higher in growing communities than elsewhere.

Data from the National Center for Health Statistics (1971a and 1971b) provide a test of this hypothesis. During the period 1963-65, the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children and the Wide Range Achievement Test were administered to a nationwide representative sample of children 6 to 11 years old. Scores on these tests were cross-tabulated against characteristics of the child (sex, race, region, etc.), his parents (education, income, etc.), and population change in the place of residence during the preceding decade (1950-60). "Place of residence" referred to the Primary Sampling Units (PSU's) from which households were selected for inclusion in the sample. PSU's represent either a single metropolitan area or group of contiguous nonmetropolitan counties.

The rate of population change for each PSU during the preceding decade was classified as being negative (loss of population), below average growth, average growth, or above average growth with respect to

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population change in the region to which the PSU belonged. Scores of IQ and reading and arithmetic achievement according to rate of population change are shown in Table 3.

### Table 3 about here

The hypothesis is supported. Children in communities experiencing population loss consistently scored lowest in terms of IQ, while those in communities experiencing above average gain in population consistently scored highest. The children in declining communities tended to score around 98, while those in communities growing at above-average rates scored around 104--a difference of about four-tenths of a standard deviation. Similar differences prevail when one considers achievement test scores, with children in declining areas scoring lowest in both reading and arithmetic skills and children in areas experiencing above average gains scoring highest.

This explanation of the data in Table 3 is consistent with what is implied by Tables 1 and 2 and seems more plausible than a "community effects" explanation to the effect that growing communities have "healthy" economies while stable or declining areas do not. Research stemming from the Coleman report (Colemen, <u>et al.</u>, 1966) tends to downplay the role of schools <u>per se</u> in influencing the intellectual development of children and to emphasize instead the characteristics of children and their families. The explanation offered here for the findings from Table 3 is in line with this research, for it stresses that these community differences are likely to arise from the selectivity of migration, namely, the overrepresentation of the highly cducated among migrants. It is, of course, likely that other factors are involved, but it should be noted that the causal mechanisms have never been specified whereby the state of the community's economy or any other community-wide variable by itself brings about an influence on children's test scores.

The conclusion, therefore, is that even though frequent long-distance migration may interfere with children's progress in school, areas with high rates of inmigration tend to have children of above-average scholastic ability presumably because of the overrepresentation of highly-educated parents among migrants.

There are opvious <u>daveuts</u> in interpreting such statistics, and these should be clearly recognized. Extremely rapid population growth is almost certain to be associated with low levels of educational achievement. Extremely rapid growth is most likely to characterize "boom" towns or some type of frontier settlement--both of which are likely to have grossly inferior schools. There are no convenient guidelines as to where "healthy" growth ends and too rapid growth begins.

Furthermore, the adjustment problems of some groups of children moving to metropolitan areas should be emphasized. The measure of relative progress in school used in Tables 1 and 2 was tabulated according to region of birth and residence in 1965 for black children living in metropolitan areas in the North and West in 1970 (Manpower Administration, U. S. Department of Labor, 1974). These data revealed what has been the accepted view, demonstrating that: (1) southern-born black children in metropolitan areas in the North and West were less likely to be enrolled in school and, among the enrolled, were more likely to be below the modal grade than nonmigrant black children in the region of destination; (2) southern-born black



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children who had lived in the North or West for at least five years were more likely to be enrolled and more likely to be at the modal grade than were more recent migrants; (3) black children moving from nonnetropolitan parts of the South were less likely to be enrolled and, among the enrolled, more likely to be below the modal grade than black children moving from metropolitan areas of the South. These data demonstrate further the utility of the measures used in Tables 1 and 2 and point out some of the exceptions to the general conclusion of this section.

### IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY AND FURTHER RESEARCH

This paper has examined only one aspect of the larger question involving the effects of moving on children's progress and performance in school. Except among children of college graduates, frequent longdistance movement was found to be associated with an increased likelihood of enrollment below the model grade. But frequent short-distance movement may not have this apparent effect. Furthermore, some types of moves may affect children's progress and performance in school more than other types of moves. And all of these possible effects may vary according to the circumstances of the move, the socioeconomic status of the family, and the time of year when the move occurs. At present, there is not an adequate body of statistics to test for each of these considerations.

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It should be noted, however, that in both short- and long-distance movement families act as if they felt that geographical mobility interfered with children's progress in school. Enrollment of the first child in school has been found to be an important barrier to a family's further residential mobility (Long, 1972). This finding applies regardless of the age of the family head or the distance of the move. The most probable explanation as the why families with school-age children are less residentially mobile than families with school-age children is simply that the children do not want to move because of their friendships in school and the parents may not want to move because of friendships formed around activities of their school-age children (PTA, Little League, etc.). But one cannot rule out the possibility that the residential mobility of families is influenced by what parents perceive to be the effects of mobility on children's progress and performance in school.

Although frequent long-distance migration is associated with failure of children to make average or above average progress in school, the specific mechanisms which bring about this result are not entirely clear. Long-distance moving obviously requires a child to adjust to new teachers, schools, and curricula, and regardless of previous performance a child who moves is likely to be asked to "catch up" in at least some subjects. Some children are likely to be unable to catch up by the time of final exams and as a result are retained in the same



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grade for the next year. Also, because of different state practices, the new school may not recognize credits granted by the old school, thereby retaining in the same grade or not permitting grade skipping among some of the children who are interstate migrants. Finally, any difficulties in making friends in a new school and a new area of the country are likely to affect adversely a child's academic performance.

We are also left with the question as to why these factors which could impede school performance might affect children of college graduates less than other children. The most probable answer is simply that parents who are college graduates are more accustomed to long-distance migration, having engaged in it more often than other parents and thereby more easily make adjustments and accommodations to moving. College graduates are likely to have made long-distance moves as children and as a result of leaving home to attend college, and throughout life they are more likely to engage in migration than other persons (Long, 1973). When interstate moves occur, college-educated parents are more likely to know what to expect and how to ease their children's transition to a new school in a different area. Also, because the circle of friends among college graduates is less likely to consist of the immediate kin network and is more likely to consist of other college graduates, children of college graduates are likely to have continuing exposure to other people's mobility and as a result be less unsettled by their own mobility.

Previous research has been more successful in identifying the benefits of migration than the costs, for it is in some ways easier to conceptualize and measure the benefits or rewards of migration than the costs. For example, one can simply compute the discounted rate of return to migration

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by calculating expected lifetime income of migrants and nonmigrants; such calculations (Wertheimer, 1970) show a decided income advantage for migrants. In addition, Blau and Duncan (1967:250) concluded that "men who live outside the region of their birth tend to achieve higher occupational status than those who have remained in it."

In terms of income and occupational advancement, migration clearly "pays" for most individuals. The costs of migration are likely to fall on children, on wives whose careers are disrupted by the migration of their husbands, on those areas of origin which lose talented people through migration, and on selected areas of destination which must bear the costs of school construction. Careful quantifying of each of these costs is a task for further research.

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Table 1. CHILDREN 8 TO 17 YEARS OLD--PERCENT ENROLLED IN SCHOOL AND PERCENT ENROLLED AT, ABOVE, AND BELOW MODAL GRADE FOR AGE, ACCORDING TO AGE, WHETHER LIVING WITH BOTH PARENTS, AND NUMBER OF STATES LIVED IN: APRIL 1970

	Total	Percent	· Percent of enrolled:		
	number (000's)	enrolled	Below mode for age	At mode for age	Above mode for age
LIVING WITH BOTH PARENTS	• • •			•	
Children 8 to 11 years old Lived in one state Lived in two states Lived in three or more states	10,275 1,951 372	98.2 98.4 99.0	• 14.4 14.6 13.2	69.6 70.6 72.7	16.1 14.8 14.1
Children 12 to 15 years old Lived in one state Lived in two states Lived in three or more states	9,887 2,051 327	97.5 97.8 98.3	17.3 16.9 15.4	66.3 67.6 70.1	16.4 15.5 14.5
Children 16 and 17 years old Lived in one state Lived in two states Lived in three or more states	3,296 704 91	92.8 93.3 94.5	18.9 18.5 16.8	69.4 70.3 72.5	11.7 11.2 10.8
OTHER CHILDREN IN FAMILIES	•				•
Children 8 to 11 years old Lived in one state Lived in two states Lived in three or more states	1,833 370 53	95.6 94.8 95.4	20.6 19.6 17.0	59.5 62.8 66.1	19.9 17.6 16.9
Children 12 to 15 years old Lived in one state Lived in two states Lived in three or more states	1,967 448 50	94.0 93.5 94.6	26.3 24.3 20.7	56.0 58.7 62.2	17.7 17.0 17.1
Children 16 and 17 years old Lived in one state Lived in two states Lived in three or more states	1,755 393 39	81.9 82.3 83.9	21.5 20.8 18.7	65.5 66.7 70.2	13.0 12.5 11.2

Source: 1970 Census of Population, Lifetime and Recent Migration, Table 6.

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Table 2.

CHILDREN 8 TO 17 YEARS OLD LIVING WITH BOTH PARENTS--PERCENT ENROLLED BELOW MODAL GRADE FOR AGE AND PERCENT ENROLLED ABOVE MODAL GRADE FOR AGE, ACCORDING TO AGE, FATHER'S EDUCATION, AND NUMBER OF STATES LIVED IN: APRIL 1970

	Father not a high school graduate	Father a high school graduate	Father with one to three years of college	Father with four or more years of college
	PERCENT OF CHI	LDREN ENRO	LLED BELOW M	ODE FOR AGE
Children 8 to 11 years old Lived in one state Lived in two states Lived in three or more state	20.7 24.2	11.2 13.9 15.9	9.5 10,8 10.9	6.9 6.6 6.8
Children 12 to 15 years old Lived in one state Lived in two states Lived in three or more states	24.3 27.8 29.0	12.3 15.2 18.0	10.4 11.8 13.6	7.5 7.4 7.7
Children 16 and 17 years old Lived in one state Lived in two states Lived in three or more states	26.4 29.6 29.9	13.8 16.4 19.6	12.3 14.0 15.3	9.0 9.2 10.3
	PERCENT OF CHI	ILDRÉN ENROI	LLED ABOVE M	ODE FOR AGE
Children 8 to 11 years old Lived in one state Lived in two states Lived in three or more states	15.8 13.3 11.9	15.9 14.4 12.8	16.3 15.6 14.9	17.1 16.3 15.8
Children 12 to 15 years old Lived in one state Lived in two states Lived in three or more states	14.9 13.1 11.4	17.0 15.5 13.1	17.9 16.5 15.2	18.8 18.1 16.8
Children 16 and 17 years old Lived in one state Lived in two states Lived in three or more states	10.4 9.3 • • 8.1	12.3 11.3 9.8	13.1 12.1 10.6	13.9 13.1 12.6

Source: 1970 Census of Population, Lifetime and Recent Migration, Table 6.



# Table 3. CHILDREN 6 TO 11 YEARS OLD IN SCHOOL--IQ AND ACHIEVEMENT TEST SCOPES ACCORDING TO 1950-60 FOPULATION CHANGE IN PLACE OF RESIDENCE: 1963-65

• •	Rate of population change:				
•		Loss	Below	Average	Above
·			average	gain	average
			gain	0	gain
		IQ SCC	DRE (WECHSLER	INTELLIGENCE	SCALE)
6 years old		98 <b>.9</b>	99.3	98.2	104.8
7 years old	•	98.5	99 <b>.</b> 5*	98.3	104.4
8 years old	•	99.2	98.4	98.5	103.8
9 years old		97.4	100.4	98.6	104.5
10 years old		97.8	100.6	96.5	105.4
ll years old		96.7	100.3	-98.1	105.6
· · ·	READING	RAW SCO	ORE ON WIDE RA	INGE ACHIEVEME	NT TEST
6 years old		24.1	-26.0	26.2	26.7
7 years old		39.2	41.2	41.8	43.5
8 years old		51.3	52.4	51.9	53.7
9 years old		55.4	59.8	58.9	60.7
10 years old		62.2	64.7	63.2	67.3
ll years old		66.2	69.9	69.2	72.5
	ARITEMET	TC RAW	SCORE ON WIDE	E RANGE ACHIEV	EMENT TEST
6 years old		16.4	16.5	16.9	17.9
7 years old		21.1	22.0	22.3	22.8
8 years old		25.4	26.6	26.4	26.3
9 years old		28.6	29.6	29.7	30.1
10 years old		31.9	33.3	32.7	33.8
ll years old		36.3	37.3	37.6	38.7

Source: National Center for Health Statistics, <u>Intellectual Development</u> of <u>Children by Demographic and Socioeconomic Factors</u>, Table 20; and <u>School Achievement of Children by Demographic and Socioeconomic</u> Factors, Table 23.

