# The Negative Impacts of Starting Middle School in Sixth Grade

Philip J. Cook Robert MacCoun Clara Muschkin Jacob Vigdor

## Abstract

Using administrative data on public school students in North Carolina, we find that sixth grade students attending middle schools are much more likely to be cited for discipline problems than those attending elementary school. That difference remains after adjusting for the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of the students and their schools. Furthermore, the higher infraction rates recorded by sixth graders who are placed in middle school persist at least through ninth grade. An analysis of end-of-grade test scores provides complementary findings. A plausible explanation is that sixth graders are at an especially impressionable age; in middle school, the exposure to older peers and the relative freedom from supervision have deleterious consequences. These findings are relevant to the current debate over the best school configuration for incorporating the middle grades. Based on our results, we suggest that there is a strong argument for separating sixth graders from older adolescents. © 2008 by the Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management.

### INTRODUCTION

Is there a "best" grade configuration for schools that serve early adolescents? If so, what is it? Using past policy decisions as a guide, conventional wisdom on the answers to these questions has changed several times over the past century. At the beginning of the 20th century, school configuration in the United States began moving away from an 8-year primary and 4-year secondary model, toward a definition of secondary education as beginning in the seventh grade. At that time and continuing through mid-century, middle schools known as "junior high" (grades 7–9 or 7–8) were the norm (Goldin, 1999). This arrangement was intended to create a transitional period between the sheltered elementary school and the more demanding high school environment (Juvonen, Le, Kaganoff, Augustine, & Constant, 2004).

In recent decades, there has been a marked shift away from junior high school, toward the middle school configuration of grades 6–8, or occasionally 5–8. In the early 1970s, less than one-quarter of middle schools incorporated sixth grade; by 2000, three-quarters of all middle schools enrolled sixth grade students (see Figure 1). North Carolina's public middle schools, which form the basis for the analysis that follows, have led the national trend of incorporating sixth grade. In the 1999–2000 school year, more than 90 percent of the state's 379 middle schools served grades 6–8 (McEwin, Greene, & and Jenkins, 2001).<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> In 2000–2001, 46 North Carolina public schools were structured as K–8, or "elemiddle." We have not included these schools in our study, as our goal is to analyze the outcomes associated with middle school transition.

Journal of Policy Analysis and Management, Vol. 27, No. 1, 104–121 (2008) © 2008 by the Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management Published by Wiley Periodicals, Inc. Published online in Wiley InterScience (www.interscience.wiley.com) DOI: 10.1002/pam.20309





Figure 1. Percent of sixth graders attending middle schools—NC and national trends.

Why is the current generation of sixth graders attending middle school while preceding generations attended elementary school? The practical problem of dealing with swelling cohorts of students was a factor in promoting the shift in the 1970s, but there was also support from educators. In a survey of middle grade school administrators in 2000, 65 percent of respondents selected the grade 6–8 configuration as the "ideal" form of organization (Valentine, Clark, Hackmann, & Petzo, 2002). Grade span reconfiguration was part of a new paradigm for middle grade education that moved away from the "bridging" concept, toward focused consideration of the unique challenges faced by young teens (Juvonen et al., 2004; National Middle School Association, 1995). The debate over the proper configuration of grades has heated up again in recent years, with researchers and practitioners challenging the rationale of a separate middle school. One influential proposal has been to reduce the number of school transitions through a configuration that combines elementary and middle grades (Hough, 1997; Juvonen et al., 2004; Gootman, 2007a, 2007b; Zernike, 2007).

What has been for the most part lacking in this debate, and what we seek to provide, is direct evidence concerning what difference the grade configuration is likely to make for students.<sup>2</sup> Using unique data on disciplinary infractions and endof-grade (EOG) standardized test scores for North Carolina public school students, we exploit variation in grade configuration across and within the state's school

 $<sup>^2</sup>$  One exception is a study by Weiss and Knipes (2006) that examines academic outcomes and behaviors in middle schools, finding few differences among eighth graders in middle and K–8 schools. These results are based on survey data and refer to a single urban district that has implemented a policy of phasing out traditional middle schools. Of greater relevance to our project are the results of Bedard and Do (2005), who demonstrate using national data that moving to a middle-school configuration that includes sixth grade has the effect of reducing on-time high-school completion rates by approximately 1–3 percent).

districts. Specifically, we compare the behavioral and academic outcomes of students who attend different types of schools in sixth grade. Despite constituting a lowerrisk population along several observable dimensions, students who attend middle school in sixth grade are twice as likely to be disciplined relative to their counterparts in elementary school. These large differences persist beyond the sixth grade year. Sixth graders in elementary school also make gains in standardized test scores relative to their peers in middle school. The results suggest that exposing sixth graders to older peers has persistent negative consequences on their academic trajectories.

We begin by providing further background on middle schools. The next section motivates our analysis and describes several mechanisms by which grade configuration may influence students. We then characterize the data set and the procedure used to select schools to be included in the analysis. Subsequent sections provide results on infraction rates and EOG scores, followed by a concluding discussion.

#### THE MIDDLE SCHOOL DIFFERENCE

The middle school educational environment is different from the elementary school environment in several ways. A sixth grader in an elementary school will typically be assigned to one teacher and spend much of the day in that teacher's classroom with the same group of students. A sixth grader in middle school will typically be assigned to a team of teachers and move from classroom to classroom over the course of the school day, with somewhat different groups of students in each. Middle schools place greater emphasis on discipline and academic accomplishment (including greater use of between-classroom ability grouping), with less opportunity for close relationships to specific teachers (National Middle School Association, 2001; Mills, 1998).

The decision of whether to locate sixth grade in middle school or keep it in elementary school should take account of the behavioral and academic consequences for the sixth graders themselves, as well as for the younger grades in elementary school, and the older grades in middle school. It is a difficult time of life at best. Between the ages of 10 and 14, students typically must adjust to puberty, as well as to changes in social relationships with peers, family, and authority figures (Eccles et al., 1993; Elias, Gara, & Ubriaco, 1985; NMSA, 1995; Rudolph, Lambert, Clark, & Kurlakowsky, 2001). Research suggests that difficulties in coping with multiple transitions may underlie some of the negative effects that many students experience during the transition from elementary to middle school (Eccles et al., 1993). These effects include a decline in motivation and a loss of self-esteem, particularly when the transition occurs at younger ages (Rudolph et al., 2001; Simmons & Blythe, 1987); decline in academic achievement (Alspaugh, 2001; Alspaugh & Harting, 1995; Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2004); strains on interpersonal functioning (Barber & Olsen, 2004); and, in the long term, increased risk of dropping out of school (Alspaugh, 1998; Rumberger, 1995).

Perhaps the most important difference is that a sixth grader in elementary school is among the oldest students in the school; a sixth grader in middle school is among the youngest, with daily exposure to older adolescents. In terms of both the developmental changes experienced by early adolescents, and the social and academic challenges that they face in the middle school environment, the influence of the peer group on behavior is particularly important. Research on adolescent delinquency suggests a developmental pattern of delinquent peer influence: the influence of peers on behavior already is significant in early adolescence, peaks during middle adolescence, and then begins to decline (Jang, 1999). Peer influence may take a variety of forms, both direct and indirect. Direct influence may include bullying and initiation of fights, recruitment into delinquent gangs, an enhanced supply of drugs and alcohol, seduction and sexual importuning, an appreciative audience for rowdy behavior, companionship in truancy, and so forth. Indirect influence may occur through modeling illicit behavior (Reinke & Walker, 2006).<sup>3</sup>

School characteristics, including those that typically differ between elementary and middle schools, have been shown to influence peer effects on student behavior. The influence of peers on individual substance use tends to increase in schools with higher rates of substance use (Cleveland & Wiebe, 2003). School mobility rates can adversely affect achievement gains for students who themselves are new to a school, as well as for their school peers (Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2004). Other school context characteristics, including the size of the school population, racial composition, poverty levels, and levels of parental education also have been linked to peer influences on behavior (Ellickson, McCaffrey, Ghosh-Dastidar, & Longshore, 2003; Hardy, Bukowski, & Sippola, 2002; Teitler and Weiss, 2000).

#### CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In this study, we estimate the impact of school grade span on EOG test scores and on the prevalence and incidence of reported disciplinary infractions by North Carolina public school students. Our main interest is on the infractions data; the data on EOG test scores, although of intrinsic interest, serve here as a check on the validity of our findings concerning behavior. Research shows that disciplinary problems in school have a significant impact on academic achievement (Maguin & Lowber, 1996; South & Messner, 2000) as well as on late adolescent and adult outcomes (McLeod & Kaiser, 2004; Sampson & Laub, 1992).

We presume that the behavior of student *i* attending school *j* can be measured with a latent variable  $B_{it}$ . When this variable exceeds some threshold level, which we normalize to zero, a report of a negative behavior is filed ( $R_{ij} = 1$ ). Our conceptual model thus takes the form:

$$R_{ij} = 1 \quad \text{if } B_{ij} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X_i + \alpha_2 Z_j + \varepsilon_{ij} > 0 \tag{1}$$

where  $X_i$  denotes a vector of student-level characteristics and  $Z_j$  a vector of school characteristics. Our central hypothesis is that a particular school characteristic, the grade span, influences behavioral outcomes. The final term,  $\varepsilon_{ij}$ , is a residual reflecting unobserved individual and school-level characteristics that determine whether a report is filed, plus any true idiosyncrasies that operate in the report-generating process. There is a possibility that elements of  $\varepsilon_{ij}$  are correlated with observed schoollevel characteristics, in which case estimates of the coefficient vector  $\alpha_2$  will be biased. That problem is generic to this sort of nonexperimental analysis, arising most likely because of the possibility that unmeasured qualities of the students or their schools are important and distributed differently among the two groups of schools. One way in which we address this problem is by using a pseudo-longitudinal analysis. We discuss this approach in more detail in the subsequent section.

Why might school grade composition affect student behavioral outcomes? Based on the discussion in the previous section, we can identify at least three potential causal mechanisms.

a) Social control effects. The overall rate of behavioral problems in a school can be influenced by various features of the school environment. The degree of freedom accorded the students, the capacity of the faculty and administration to

<sup>3</sup> For an interesting discussion of peer influence in drug use in particular, see Jacobson (2004).

monitor and control behavior, and the composition of the student body are all plausibly important. Elementary and middle schools tend to differ in all these dimensions.<sup>4</sup>

- b) The transition effect. This mechanism suggests that student behavior will tend to deteriorate in the first year of exposure to a new school environment, particularly when that environment is less closely supervised than previously experienced, simply because it may take time to learn the rules and stay out of trouble in the new environment.<sup>5</sup> This mechanism predicts a spike in behavioral problems for sixth grade students entering middle school, followed by a reversion to the usual age-based trajectory as the student learns to meet the new expectations. Seventh grade students entering middle school for the first time should also exhibit a spike in behavioral problems.
- c) Deviant peer-influence effects. Sixth graders might also display elevated levels of behavioral problems if they are unduly influenced by older peers who act in a similar fashion. This is a true "social" effect (Manski, 1993): placement with a set of well-behaved older peers would not lead to increased behavioral problems. Deviant contagion effects could possibly lead to persistently elevated levels of behavior problems, to the extent that such behaviors are selfreinforcing.

In addition to these hypothesized causal mechanisms, it is possible that any correlation between school grade span and the measured infraction rate reflects nonrandom sorting of students. Parents may choose where to live or whether to keep their children in the public schools based, in part, on the configuration of grades. That sort of selection process may influence the characteristics of the student body in ways not necessarily reflected in observed indicators.

Yet another possibility is that the likelihood that student misbehavior will be reported by school officials differs between elementary and middle school. In the context of our model, variation in standards of reporting across schools is one component of the error term  $\varepsilon_{ij}$ . Thus a finding of higher rates of disciplinary infractions in these schools need not reflect any differences in actual student behavior during sixth grade. The finding may still be of interest, since at a minimum it tells us something about the likelihood that a student will acquire a "record." This concern is mainly relevant to the results for sixth grade *per se*, since by seventh grade all students in the sample are in middle school.

In addition to the analysis of student infractions, we estimate standard linear models for the determination of EOG test scores, incorporating the same covariates as in Equation (1). EOG tests are administered and scored the same for sixth graders whether they are in elementary or middle school. As a result, observed differences in performance in sixth grade are not an artifact of the measurement system.

<sup>5</sup> It is also typically the case that the sixth grade cohort is larger in middle schools than in the elementary schools from which they come, simply because several elementary schools feed into each middle school. A larger number of students may result in a dilution of control capacity.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> It should be noted that among the environmental attributes that distinguish the two types of schools, not all are intrinsic to the form. For example, if sixth grade teachers tend to prefer an elementary school environment to a middle school environment, then those who have a choice (including the teachers with most seniority) will tend to concentrate in elementary schools. In that case, the lower infraction rate in elementary schools would in part reflect the superior classroom-management ability of the teachers there. In that case, moving sixth grades into middle school would not have an effect on the average behavior of students in the state unless the most able teachers were induced to retire or leave the state as a result.

#### DATA AND SAMPLE TRIMMING PROCEDURE

Our analysis makes use of an administrative database covering all public schools and students in the state of North Carolina for a number of years. The data were provided by the North Carolina Education Research Data Center (NCERDC). Our outcome measures include both academic achievement measures (end of grade test scores) and behavioral problems. The indicators of behavioral problems are derived from a statewide database of disciplinary infractions recorded during the 2000–2001 academic year. Each disciplinary report reflects a decision on the part of a school official (usually a teacher) of whether to "write up" a student for misbehaving, and then a decision on the part of the principal of whether to report to the state. (Schools are required to report incidents in the event that they result in the out-of-school suspension of one or more students, or if the offense is severe enough to warrant the contact of law enforcement officials, but reporting is otherwise left to the discretion of school officials.)

In our statistical analysis we work with a subsample of all public school sixth graders for the 2000–2001 school year. We omit charter schools, and drop 11 of North Carolina's 117 school districts for which over 25 percent of the infraction reports had incomplete or inaccurate student identifiers, and therefore cannot be matched to students included in the NCERDC database. (For the remaining districts, about 85 percent of infraction reports were identified with a specific student.) An additional seven districts are dropped because all of the sixth graders are attending a K–8 school or some variant thereof, which is outside the scope of our analysis. The remaining 99 districts constitute our district sample. Of these, there are nine in which all sixth graders attend elementary school, eight in which schools differ with respect to grade configuration, and 82 in which all sixth graders attend middle schools. Here is a summary:

	Districts
All sixth graders in elementary school Sixth graders divided between elementary and middle All sixth graders in middle school	9 8 82
Subtotal districts in working sample	99
Incomplete data on infractions K–8 grade configuration	11 7
Total public school districts	117

In our statistical work, we used a sample-trimming procedure based on propensity scores to address the concern that the likelihood of sixth grade being placed in elementary school is far from uniform across districts. First, we ran a logit regression analysis on the 342 schools that included sixth grade (both middle and elementary schools) in our district sample to predict the likelihood that the school was a middle school on the basis of its locale, per-pupil expenditure levels, and student socioeconomic characteristics.<sup>6</sup> We then excluded schools where the imputed probability was very high (higher than for any of the elementary schools in the sample) or low (Crump, Hotz, Imbens, & Mitnik, 2006; Dehejia and Wahba, 1999). In our subsequent analysis, we experimented with two standards for this sample-trimming procedure. The "stringent" standard retained only those schools where the imputed

<sup>6</sup> Unfortunately, we do not have any direct knowledge of why some districts and some schools opted to keep sixth grade in elementary school.

	Coefficient	SE
School level		
% black	2.4263	0.9911
% Hispanic	9.5101	4.2418
% parents without HS diploma	-1.8795	2.0366
% students receiving free or reduced lunch	-1.0177	1.4583
District level		
Number of sicth graders	0.0012	0.0003
5-year growth rate in number of sixth graders	-0.2281	1.1842
% rural	-0.0789	0.7405
Per-pupil expenditure, local (\$000)	0.0026	0.0007
Per-pupil expenditure, federal (\$000)	0.0007	0.0013
Constant	-3.4368	1.6204
Ν	342	
Pseudo-R <sup>2</sup>	0.25	

**Table 1.** Logistic regression results for trimming procedure. Dependent variable: Indicator for sixth grade in middle school coefficient estimates and standard error estimates.

probability was between .6 and .9, leaving just 140 schools in the trimmed sample. The "loose" standard retained schools where the imputed probability was between .3 and .9, which retained 243 schools and a majority of the students. As it turns out, the two trimmed samples produce very similar results with respect to the effects of grade configuration on infractions and EOG scores. The results reported in subsequent sections are for the "loose" standard.

Table 1 reports the results of the logit regression analysis of the 342 schools. The specification includes both school- and district-level variables. The results suggest that the middle schools tend to have a higher concentration of blacks and Hispanics, and be located in larger, better funded districts. Rural concentration has little influence.<sup>7</sup> Based on this regression, Figure 2 depicts the distribution of imputed probabilities for the two categories of middle school.

The trimmed sample includes 243 schools with 44,709 sixth graders. Just 11 percent of the students in the sample are in elementary schools. Table 2 compares the sixth graders in elementary school with those in middle school along a number of individual-, school-, and district-level variables. The sixth grade students in middle schools are less likely to be poor (as indicated by qualification for a free lunch), are more likely to have a college-educated parent, and have somewhat higher endof-grade test scores in fifth grade. The sample trimming procedure has the effect of reducing differences between the two groups with respect to race, per-pupil expenditures, and size of the district.

#### ANALYSIS OF INFRACTION RATES

A total of almost 20,000 infractions by sixth graders were recorded in the trimmed sample during the school year 2000–2001. The statistics shown in Table 3 and Figure 3 demonstrate that whereas many of the infractions were for minor events or rowdiness, violence played a prominent role. The incidence for middle school

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> The schools included in this analysis include a range of locales, from rural to mid-size city. The largest city in North Carolina, Charlotte, is excluded from the analysis because of limitations of the infractions data for that district. Five schools in locales designated as "large towns" (more than 25,000 population but outside of a Metropolitan Statistical Area) were excluded because they all had the same configuration.



Source: Imputed values using equation from Table 1.

**Figure 2.** Predicted probability of sixth grade in middle school (vs. elementary school).



Source: See Table 3. Note that some students appear in more than one category.

Figure 3. Infraction prevalence—sixth grade.

#### 112 / The Negative Impacts of Starting Middle School in Sixth Grade

	Middle School	Elementary School	Difference
Number of students	39,596	5,113	
Individual level variables			
% Male	50.8	50.7	0.1
Race			
% White	67.6	65.8	1.8
% Black	25.1	23.5	1.7
% Hispanic	3.9	3.0	1.0
% Asian	1.2	2.1	-1.0
% other	2.2	5.6	-3.5
Parent's education			
% High school grad	46.5	48.6	-2.2
% Community college grad	14.6	15.9	-1.3
% Trade school grad	4.4	3.8	0.6
% 4-year college grad	19.0	15.1	3.9
% Reduced/free lunch	42.9	49.9	-7.0
% Old for grade	20.9	18.2	2.7
Avg. math EOG score, sixth grade <sup>a</sup>	263.4	293.0	0.4
Avg. Reading EOG score, sixth grade	156.7	156.9	-0.2
Avg. math EOG score, fifth grade	159.7	158.9	0.8
Avg. Reading EOG score, fifth grade	155.2	154.9	0.3
School level variables			
Number of grades	3.0	6.3	-3.3
Number of sixth graders	257	117	139
District level variables			
Per-pupil expenditure local <sup>b</sup>	\$1,271	\$1,146	\$125
Per-pupil expenditure federal	\$530	\$574	-\$44
% rural	47.5	53.6	-6.1
Number of sixth graders	1,045	781	264
5-year growth rate in number (%)	19.2	15.7	3.4

**Table 2.** Summary statistics for sixth graders, 2000–2001. North Carolina public schools in trimmed sample.

<sup>a</sup> The scale for math EOGs was changed in 2001.

<sup>b</sup> State funding is excluded.

students was .47, or about one infraction for every two students—although, in fact, infractions were quite concentrated, and only 16.5 percent of students appear in the infractions database. Most notable for our purposes is that both the incidence and prevalence rate for every type of infraction were considerably higher for sixth graders in middle school than for elementary school students. The overall incidence was three times as high for middle school students, and the prevalence rate twice as high.

The large differences in the infraction rate may actually *understate* the effect of sending sixth graders to middle school, since in our sample the middle school sixth graders are more privileged on average. We used regression analysis in an attempt to adjust for these remaining differences, and report the results in Table 4. The sample for this analysis consists of sixth grade students in North Carolina in 2000—1 that are in our trimmed sample. For columns 1–3, the results are from logistic regressions where the dependent variable indicates whether (1) the student appears in the infractions database; (2) the student appears in the database for a violent infraction; and (3) whether the student appears in the database for a drug-related

	Middle School Incidence	Elementary School Incidence	Middle School Prevalence*	Elementary School Prevalence*
Overall (count)	0.476 (18,833)	0.161 (824)	0.175 (6,943)	0.085 (437)
Violence	0.130	0.057	0.087	0.044
Drug	0.002	0.001	0.002	0.001
Weapon possession	0.003	0.001	0.003	0.001
Truancy	0.006	0.0002	0.005	0.0002
Rowdy behavior	0.147	0.064	0.066	0.034
Minor	0.170	0.034	0.088	0.026
Property	0.011	0.003	0.010	0.003
Sexual	0.002	0.0004	0.002	0.0004

Table 3. Infraction rates for sixth graders in trimmed sample, 2000–2001.

\* At least one infraction during the school year.

infraction. For column 4 the results are from a negative binomial regression where the dependent variable is the number of infractions of any sort.

The results confirm that attending middle school in sixth grade is associated with elevated odds of an infraction and of infraction rates. Our point estimates imply that other things equal, the odds of having at least one infraction in sixth grade are increased by a factor of 2.2 if in middle school; the odds of a violent infraction are increased by a factor of 2.1, and the odds of a drug infraction by a factor of 3.8. The results from the negative binomial regression indicate that the incidence of violations is also greatly elevated.

In these regressions, individual-level control variables include sex, race, parent's education and poverty status, old for grade, and preceding year's EOG scores. Most of these prove significant and quite influential for the prevalence and number of infractions. It is noteworthy that Hispanics tend to have lower infraction rates than non-Hispanic whites, other things equal. Also included are school- and district-level characteristics, although with a few exceptions they do not prove significant. In particular it is interesting that the size of the district (as indicated by the number of students in the sixth grade) has a negligible effect on infraction rates.

In results not shown here, we also assessed the possibility that the effect of placing sixth grade in middle school may have different effects on different demographic groups. We reran the "any infraction" logistic regression with the addition of three indicator variables capturing interactions between "in middle school" and each of the following: black, Hispanic, and male. The coefficient estimates of the interaction terms were small relative to standard errors, and inclusion of these variables had little effect on other coefficient estimates. We conclude that the proportionate effect of middle school placement on sixth grade infraction rates is more or less uniform.

#### Behavior before and after Sixth Grade

It would be informative to follow these students over several years of schooling before and after sixth grade. Infractions in fourth and fifth grade would provide an individualized baseline on misbehavior. Infraction rates after sixth grade would allow a check on whether the elevated rate for the middle-school sixth graders is simply the result of problems resulting from a transition to a new school, or rather

	1. Any Infraction <i>Logit</i>	2. Violent Infraction <i>Logit</i>	3. Drug Infraction <i>Logit</i>	4. Number of Infractions Negative Binomial
In middle school Male	<b>0.799</b> (0.195) <b>1.122</b> (0.043)	<b>0.730</b> (0.189) <b>1.231</b> (0.052)	<b>1.330</b> (0.654) <b>0.955</b> (0.279)	<b>0.919</b> (0.210) <b>1.247</b> (0.042)
Race (white omitted)		/>		
Black Hispanic Asian	<b>0.632</b> (0.050) -0.431 (0.081) -1.379 (0.245)	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{0.658} (0.070) \\ -0.478 (0.103) \\ -1.155 (0.278) \end{array}$	$-0.602 (0.358) \\ 0.045 (0.488)$	<b>0.619</b> (0.057) <b>-0.480</b> (0.092) <b>-1.444</b> (0.252)
Other	0.147 (0.115)	0.289 (0.150)	-0.409 (0.613)	0.178 (0.108)
Parent's education (high school grad omittee	d)			
High school dropout	<b>0.318</b> (0.044)	<b>0.298</b> (0.051)	<b>0.734</b> (0.309)	<b>0.306</b> (0.041)
Trade school Community college	-0.199 (0.085) -0.143 (0.059)	$-0.199 (0.103) \\ -0.132 (0.074)$	-0.214 (0.431)	-0.154 (0.121) - <b>0.222</b> (0.065)
4-year college Graduate degree	-0.489 (0.067) -0.865 (0.156)	-0.640 (0.081) -1.048 (0.207)	<b>-0.923</b> (0.450)	-0.563 (0.067) -0.923 (0.179)
Reduce/free lunch Old for grade Math EOG score, fifth grade Reading EOG score, fifth grade	<b>0.436</b> (0.043) <b>0.372</b> (0.044) − <b>0.211</b> (0.029) − <b>0.204</b> (0.028)	<b>0.408</b> (0.050) <b>0.329</b> (0.054) <b>−0.203</b> (0.038) <b>−0.141</b> (0.034)	0.505 (0.263) <b>0.535</b> (0.200) <b>-0.312</b> (0.157) -0.158 (0.143)	<b>0.499</b> (0.044) <b>0.406</b> (0.047) − <b>0.259</b> (0.032) − <b>0.192</b> (0.028)
School-level variables				
% reduced/free lunch	-0.615 (0.632)	0.050 (0.561)	-1.235 (1.777)	-0.866 (0.695)
% black % Hispanic % parents without HS diploma	0.850 (0.460) -0.527 (1.852) -0.300 (1.042)	<b>0.831</b> (0.407) -2.578 (1.584) 0.467 (0.984)	-1.109 (2.076) -2.774 (5.094) 0.453 (3.896)	<b>1.160</b> (0.528) -0.254 (1.653) 0.587 (1.195)
District level				
Number of sixth graders	-0.053 (0.112)	-0.068 (0.101)	-0.174 (0.305)	-0.023 (0.100)
Per-pupil expenditure, local	<b>0.572</b> (0.237)	<b>0.616</b> (0.231)	-0.052(0.602)	0.408(0.272)
Per-pupil expenditure, federal	-0.356 0.488	- <b>1.066</b> (0.541)	0.685 (1.343)	-0.532 (0.539)
Constant Sample size	<b>-3.806</b> 0.562 44,709	- <b>4.589</b> (0.527) 44,709	<b>-7.670</b> (1.513) 40,715	<b>-3.214</b> (0.593) 44,709

**Table 4.** The effect of school configuration on infractions. Trimmed sample, North Carolina sixth graders, 2000-2001. Coefficient estimates (standard error estimates).

*Note:* Bold font indicates that the coefficient estimate is significantly different from zero, p < .05. All standard errors are cluster corrected by school.

	Any Infraction Logit	Violent Infraction Logit	Drug Infraction Logit
Fourth graders: will attend sixth grade in middle school	- <b>0.446</b> (0.190)	- <b>0.606</b> (0.177)	-1.211 (0.927)
Fifth graders: will attend sixth grade in middle school	-0.223 (0.156)	<b>-0.381</b> (0.170)	-0.415 (0.688)
Sixth graders: attending sixth grade in middle school	<b>0.799</b> (0.195)	<b>0.730</b> (0.189)	<b>1.330</b> (0.654)
Seventh graders: attended sixth grade in middle school	<b>0.370</b> (0.166)	0.199 (0.139)	-0.482 (0.248)
Eighth graders: attended sixth grade in middle school	0.246 (0.162)	0.078 (0.142)	0.307 (0.267)
Ninth graders: attended sixth grade in middle school	<b>0.412</b> (0.178)	-0.022 (0.204)	<b>0.810</b> (0.324)

 Table 5. Pseudo-longitudinal analysis of school configuration on infractions. Trimmed sample, North Carolina, 2000–2001. OLS coefficient estimates (SE estimates).

*Note:* Each cell includes the coefficient and standard error (cluster corrected by school) from a separate regression. The coefficient in each cell is the estimated effect of an indicator of whether the student will attend sixth grade in middle school (for the fourth and fifth graders), is attending sixth grade in middle school, or did attend sixth grade in middle school (seventh and eighth grade); in every case the contrast is with attending sixth grade in elementary school.

Bold font indicates that the coefficient estimate is significantly different from zero, p < .05. All standard errors are cluster corrected by school.

sustained over time. As it turns out, we are only able to use infractions data for the single academic year (2000–2001), so it is not possible to follow the behavior of individual students over time.<sup>8</sup> However, we are able to perform a pseudo-longitudinal analysis of behavior based on the fact that our database, although only including 1 year of infractions data, does include a number of years' worth of data on other aspects of each student's career. In particular, we know in what sort of school the students who are in fourth or fifth grade in 2000–2001 are destined to spend sixth grade, and we know in what sort of school older students in that year did spend sixth grade. Using this information, we sort all students in grades 4–9 in 2000–2001 into two groups, which we identify as 6Es and 6Ms. For example, a ninth grader is a "6M" if she spent her sixth grade in middle school; a fourth grader is a "6E" if he subsequently attends sixth grade in an elementary school.

Figure 4 graphs the trajectories for the two groups with respect to probability of an infraction. These prevalence trajectories are computed for the same set of values for the regression covariates, shown in Table 5; the difference in trajectories reflects the proportional effect on the infraction probability estimated from the logistic regression, and the 95 percent confidence interval represents the uncertainty in that estimate.<sup>9</sup> We see that in the baseline period, grades 4 and 5, 6Es actually have a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Infractions data are available for later years, but changes in the reporting format of the data render it considerably more difficult to match these reports to student records.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> The values assumed for the covariates generally refer to an average male student. Parental education is specified as high school graduate, and the race variable is 25 percent black (in line with the sample). Any changes in these or other covariates would only serve to shift both lines either up or down by the same proportional amount. The key is the significant difference across the groups, holding all else equal.



*Source:* See Table 4. All points are fitted values from equation (1) for a male student with average characteristics. (See text for additional detail.)

Figure 4. Probability of at least one infraction.

slightly higher infraction rate than 6Ms.<sup>10</sup> But a large gap in the other direction opens up in sixth grade, when 6Ms have a much higher infraction rate than 6Es. The gap narrows a bit through eighth grade, at which point both 6Es and 6Ms are enrolled in middle school, but a statistically significant gap persists as far as the ninth grade. We find similar patterns in our analyses of violent and drug infractions.<sup>11</sup>

These results do not rule out the logical possibility that the observed differences in sixth grade are partly a result of differences in school reporting practices rather than in the actual behavior of the students. It seems reasonable to suppose that middle schools tend to be more formal and severe than elementary schools, which might explain the infraction gap between 6Es and 6Ms in sixth grade. However, it does not explain why that gap persists in seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, when all the students have moved on past elementary school. Hence, we believe that the observed behavior gap is not an artifact of different school reporting practices.

#### End-of-Grade Test Scores

We performed a similar pseudo-longitudinal analysis of standardized end-of-grade (EOG) test scores for math and reading, using the same sample and specification. The results are of interest in their own right, and serve as a generalized check on

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> It is possible that this difference reflects the presence of sixth graders in the school, who have a negative effect on younger students.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup>We do not trace this gap beyond ninth grade because students 16 years of age and older have the option of dropping out of school. Infraction rates decrease dramatically after ninth grade, presumably because students with the worst behavioral patterns are most likely to drop out.

the infractions results: In particular, the EOG scores have the advantage over infraction data of not being influenced by the standards or operating procedures of the school administration. Observed differences directly reflect differences in student performance.<sup>12</sup>

The EOG tests have been required by the State Board of Education for all public school students in grades 3–8 since 1992–1993. These multiple choice tests are administered during the final weeks of the school year. For students in third, fifth, and eighth grades, adequate performance on the reading and math EOGs is required for promotion.<sup>13</sup> For analysis purposes, we normalize the EOG test scores to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1.

As is evident in Table 6, the combination of sample trimming and regression adjustments leaves substantial differences in EOG scores between younger students destined to attend sixth in middle school, and those destined to attend sixth in elementary school. The former group has higher scores in both math and reading. We are inclined to interpret these differences as reflecting differences in characteristics of the students that are not captured by the covariates. Note that the coefficients on the indicator for sixth grade in middle school become negative in sixth grade and thereafter. The negative coefficients on the reading test are significantly different from zero at the 5 percent or 10 percent level for sixth through eighth grade. Compared with the coefficient estimates for fifth grade, there is a highly significant drop for both math and reading. A natural interpretation of this difference-indifference result is that the 6Ms as a group tended to have an advantage (even after adjusting for a variety of measured characteristics) that is evident in elementary

	EOG Math	EOG Reading
Fourth graders: will attend sixth grade in middle school	<b>0.103</b> (0.028)	<b>0.082</b> (0.022)
Fifth graders: will attend sixth grade in middle school	<b>0.046</b> (0.022)	<b>0.041</b> (0.016)
Sixth graders: attending sixth grade in middle school	-0.016 (0.028)	<b>-0.043</b> (0.017)
Seventh graders: attended sixth grade in middle school	-0.047 (0.030)	-0.041 (0.022)
Eighth graders: attended sixth grade in middle school	0.006 (0.039)	- <b>0.040</b> (0.020)

**Table 6.** Pseudo-longitudinal analysis of school configuration on EOG scores. Trimmed sample, North Carolina, 2000–2001. OLS coefficient estimates (standard error estimates).

*Note:* Each cell includes the coefficient and standard error (cluster corrected by school) from a separate regression. The regression specifications are the same as those in Table 4, except that the "EOG scores in fifth grade" are replaced with the 1-year lagged EOG scores. The coefficient in each cell is the estimated effect of an indicator of whether the student will attend sixth grade in middle school (for the fourth and fifth graders), is attending sixth grade in middle school, or did attend sixth grade in middle school (seventh and eighth grade); in every case, the contrast is with attending sixth grade in elementary school.

Bold font indicates that the coefficient estimate is significantly different from zero, p < .05. All standard errors are cluster corrected by school.

<sup>12</sup> Of course, this statement presumes that the school administrations do not exercise substantial discretion in how the tests are administered and do not cheat in the scoring. In fact, the administration of EOG tests is tightly regulated in North Carolina and there is no evidence of cheating, which has apparently occurred in other jurisdictions (Cook, 2003; Jacob & Levitt, 2003).

<sup>13</sup> For details, see "Assessment Brief: Understanding North Carolina end-of-grade testing" (March 1, 2004) at http://www.ncpublicschools.org/accountability/testing. The scores recorded here are the "developmental scale scores" minus 100.

school but negated by the "early" move to middle school. The move to middle school leads not only to behavior problems but also to reduced academic performance.<sup>14</sup>

The reading advantage lost by 6Ms when they move into middle school is about 10 percent of a standard deviation. The magnitude of this effect is substantial; the disadvantage associated with moving to middle school in sixth grade is roughly equivalent to the disadvantage associated with having an inexperienced rather than an experienced teacher for a year (Clotfelter, Ladd, & Vigdor, 2006).

#### DISCUSSION

Taken at face value, our results suggest that the odds of sixth graders incurring at least one infraction are 2.1 times as large if they are in middle school rather than in elementary school. At the sample mean, that is equivalent to an increase of nearly 80 percent in the probability of an infraction (from 16 to 29 percent). To the extent that the infraction rate is a good indicator of the general level of misbehavior and disruption in a school, this effect appears large enough to be worth taking seriously. That conclusion is reinforced by the evidence on EOG scores.

The causal mechanisms that account for the inter-grade patterns of infractions and EOG scores cannot be identified directly from our data. Several differences between elementary and middle school may be relevant. In comparison with elementary school, middle school provides students more freedom and lacks the continuity and close connection provided by having one primary teacher. Most obviously, middle school brings sixth graders into routine contact with older adolescents who are likely to be a bad influence: Older adolescents as a group are more rebellious and more involved in delinquency, sex, illicit drugs, and other activities that violate school rules. Of greatest concern is that the negative influence of middle school on sixth graders appears to linger through ninth grade.

Our results complement the recent finding that school systems that move sixth grade from elementary to middle school experience a 1–3 percent decline in on-time graduation rates (Bedard & Do, 2005). We conclude that placing sixth grade in middle school increases behavior problems and reduces academic performance, both in sixth grade and subsequently. It is entirely plausible that these effects could have the effect for some students of leading to retention in grade or dropout. Together these findings cast serious doubt on the wisdom of the historic nationwide shift to the middle school format.

Of course, the results reported here are not based on random assignment, which leaves open the possibility that the true causal process has not been adequately identified. (The consistency and strength of the findings suggests otherwise.) It also should be noted that the analysis is based on data that are limited in time and place, and in particular do not include any large cities.

Decades ago, the "middle school" movement was launched on the basis of plausible speculations concerning potential benefits but without much direct evidence on the effects on student behavior and performance. As it turns out, moving sixth grade out of elementary school appears to have had substantial costs. The best school configuration in which to incorporate the adolescent grades is now being reconsidered by policymakers and experts. Our results suggest that the middle school configuration that brings seventh and eighth graders into regular contact with sixth graders is problematic.

The implications of our research for the related debate over K–8 schools are less certain. As a school moves from a K–5 to K–6 configuration, sixth graders get one

<sup>14</sup> It should be noted that the specification reported here does not include fifth grade EOGs, for obvious reasons, but does include the previous year's EOGs instead.

more year of a "childhood" culture. But when a school moves from K–5 to K–8, it exposes all the younger ages to seventh and eighth graders who are entering adolescence. Whether the benefits to the sixth graders would be offset by the exposure effects on younger students is an open empirical question.

PHILIP J. COOK is ITT/Sanford Professor of Public Policy and Professor of Economics and Sociology, Duke University.

CLARA MUSCHKIN is a Research Scientist at the Center for Child and Family Policy, Sanford Institute of Public Policy, Duke University.

ROBERT J. MACCOUN is Professor of Public Policy and Law, University of California, Berkeley.

JACOB VIGDOR is Associate Professor of Public Policy and Economics, Duke University.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are grateful to Josh Kinsler for exceptional research assistance, to Camden Cook, Brad McMillan, and Allison Whitaker for briefing us on the decision-making process that produces the infractions data, and to Katherine Conner and participants of an APPAM conference session and several university workshops for useful suggestions. Three anonymous referees provided extensive guidance as well. This research is based on data from the North Carolina Education Research Data Center at Duke University, directed by Dr. Elizabeth Glennie and supported by the Spencer Foundation. We acknowledge the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction for collecting and providing this information. This research is supported by grants from the National Institute on Drug Abuse and the William T. Grant Foundation. Any views expressed in this paper are the authors' alone and should not be associated with any affiliated institution.

#### REFERENCES

- Alspaugh, J. W. (1998). The relationship of school to school transitions and school size to high school dropout rates. The High School Journal, 81, 154–160.
- Alspaugh, J. W. (2001). Achievement loss associated with the transition to middle school and high school. The Journal of Educational Research, 92, 20–25.
- Alspaugh, J. W., & Harting, R. D. (1995). Transition effects of school grade-level organization on student achievement. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 28, 145–149.
- Barber, B. K., & Olsen, J. A. (2004). Assessing the transitions to middle and high school. Journal of Adolescent Research, 19, 3–30.
- Bedard, K., & Do, C. (2005). Are middle schools more effective? The impact of school structure on student outcomes. Journal of Human Resources, 40, 660–682.
- Cleveland, H. H., & Wiebe, R. P. (2003). The moderation of adolescent-to-peer similarity in tobacco and alcohol use by school levels of substance use. Child Development, 74, 279–291.
- Clotfelter, C. T., Ladd, H. F., & Vigdor, J. L. (2006). Teacher-student matching and the assessment of teacher effectiveness. Journal of Human Resources, 41, 778–820.
- Cook, P. J. (2003). Comment on catching cheating teachers. In W. G. Gale & J. R. Pack (Eds.), Brookings-Wharton Papers on Urban Affairs 2003 (pp. 210–215). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.

- Crump, R. K., Hotz, V. J., Imbens, G. W., & Mitnik, O. A. (2006). Moving the goalposts: Addressing limited overlap in the estimation of average treatment effects by changing the estimand. NBER Technical Working Paper 330, Cambridge, MA.
- Dehejia, R., & Wahba, S. (1999). Causal effects in nonexperimental studies: Reevaluating the evaluation of training programs. Journal of the American Statistical Association, 94, 1053–1062.
- Eccles, J. S., Wigfield, A., Midgley, C., Reuman, D., MacIver, D., & Feldlaufer, H. (1993). Negative effects of traditional middle schools on students' motivation. The Elementary School Journal, 93, 553–574.
- Elias, M. J., Gara, M., & Ubriaco, M. (1985). Sources of stress and support in children's transition to middle school: An empirical analysis. Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 14, 112–118.
- Ellickson, P. L., McCaffrey, D. F., Ghosh-Dastidar, B., & Longshore, D. L. (2003). New inroads in preventing adolescent drug use: Results from a large-scale trial of Project ALERT in middle schools. American Journal of Public Health, 93, 1830–1836.
- Goldin, C. (1999). A brief history of education in the United States. NBER Historical Paper No. 119, Cambridge, MA.
- Gootman, E. (2007a). Trying to find solutions in chaotic middle schools. The New York Times, Jan. 3, A1.
- Gootman, E. (2007b). Taking middle schoolers out of the middle. The New York Times, Jan. 24, A1.
- Hanushek, E., Kain, J., & Rivkin, S. (2004). Disruption versus tiebout improvement: The costs and benefits of switching schools. Journal of Public Economics, 88, 1721–1746.
- Hardy, C., Bukowski, W. M., & Sippola, L. K. (2002). Stability and change in peer relationships during the transition to middle level school. Journal of Early Adolescence, 22, 117–142.
- Hough, D. (1997). A bona fide middle school: Programs, policy, practice, and grade span configurations. In J. L. Irvin (Ed.), What current research says to the middle level practitioner (pp. 285–294). Westerville, OH: National Middle School Association.
- Jacob, B. A., & Levitt, S. D. (2003). Catching cheating teachers: The results of an unusual experiment in implementing theory. In W. G. Gale & J. R. Pack (Eds.), Brookings-Wharton Papers on Urban Affairs 2003 (pp. 185–220). Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.
- Jacobson, M. (2004). Baby booms and drug busts: Trends in youth drug use in the United States, 1975–2000. Quarterly Journal of Economics, 119, 1481–1512.
- Jang, S. J. (1999). Age-varying effects of family, school and peers on delinquency: A multilevel modeling test of interactional theory. Criminology, 37, 643–685.
- Juvonen, J., Le, V., Kaganoff, T., Augustine, C., & Constant, L. (2004). Focus on the wonder years: Challenges facing the American middle school. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.
- Maguin, E., & Loeber, R. (1996). Academic performance and delinquency. In M. Tonry (Ed.), Crime and justice: A review of the research (pp. 145–264). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Manski, C. F. (1993). Identification of endogenous social effects: The reflection problem. Review of Economic Studies, 60, 531–542.
- McEwin, K. C., Greene, M. W., & Jenkins, D. M. (2001). Where do North Carolina's middle schools stand in the 21st century? A status report on programs and practices. Pinehurst, NC: North Carolina Middle School Association.
- McLeod, J. D., & Kaiser, K. (2004). Childhood emotional and behavioral problems in educational attainment. American Sociological Review, 69, 636–658.
- Mills, R. (1998). Grouping students for instruction in middle schools. Eric Digest, Report: EDO-PS-98–4.
- National Middle School Association. (1995). This we believe: Developmentally responsive middle level schools. Columbus, OH: Author.

- National Middle School Association. (2001). Grade configuration. NMSA Research Summary #1 (updated September 2001). Columbus, OH: Author.
- North Carolina Department of Public Instruction (2004). Last best chance 2004: Educating young adolescents in the twenty-first century. Middle Grades Task Force Report. North Carolina Department of Public Instruction and State Board of Education.
- Reinke, W. M., & Walker, H. M. (2006). Deviant peer effects in education. In K. A. Dodge, T. J. Dishion, & J. E. Lansford (Eds.), Deviant peer influences in programs for youth (pp. 122–140). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Rudolph, K. D., Lambert, S. F., Clark, A. G., & Kurlakowsky, K. D. (2001). Negotiating the transition to middle school: The role of self-regulatory processes. Child Development, 72, 929–946.
- Rumberger, R. W. (1995). Dropping out of middle school: A multilevel analysis of students and schools. American Educational Research Journal, 32, 583–625.
- Sampson, R. J., & Laub, J. H. (1992). Crime and deviance in the life course. Annual Review of Sociology, 18, 63–84.
- Simmons, R. O., & Blythe, D. A. (1987). Moving into adolescence. New York, NY: Aldin De Gruyter.
- South, S. J., & Messner, S. F. (2000). Crime and demography: Multiple linkages, reciprocal relations. Annual Review of Sociology, 26, 83–106.
- Teitler, J., & Weiss, C. (2000). Effects of neighborhood and school environments on transitions to first sexual intercourse. Sociology of Education, 73, 112–132.
- Valentine, J. W., Clark, D., Hackmann, D., & Petzo, V. (2002). Leadership in middle level schools, volume I: A national study of middle level leaders and school principals. Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.
- Weiss, C. C., & Knipes, L. (2006). Reexamining middle school effects: A comparison of middle grades students in middle schools and K-8 schools. American Journal of Education, 112, 239–272.
- Zernicke, K. (2007). The preteen: Betwixt and bedeviled. The New York Times, Jan. 7, 4:3.