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Educational, Occupational, and Residential Plans of Youth in South Dakota

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EDUCATIONAL, OCCUPATIONAL, AND RESIDENTIAL PLANS OF YOUTH IN SOUTH DAKOTA

BY

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This thesis is approved as a creditable and independent investigation by a candidate for the degree, Master of Science, and is acceptable for meeting the thesis requirements for this degree. Acceptance of this thesis does not imply that the conclusions reached by the candidate are necessarily the conclusions of the major department.

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CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

> Within our societies vertical circulation of individuals is going on permanently. But how is it taking place? ... Individuals have been speculating too much and studying the facts too little. It is high time to abandon speculation for the somewhat saner method of collecting facts and studying them patiently (Sorokin, 1959:414).

Since Pitirim Sorokin called practitioners[1] to action, scientific analysis of social mobility has proliferated. The puzzle-solving has led to the uncovering of various associated factors, as well as the development of status attainment models and theories. Certain observations and generalizations can be drawn from these works.

First, it became evident that there are critical periods in the life cycle when individuals develop, or reevaluate, their future educational, occupational, and residential plans, and decide on what else needs to be accomplished in order to attain them. Practitioners proposed this to be true and began to focus their attention on the high school years, especially on the senior year.

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[1] A practitioner is a researcher in a specific area; here it means those researchers practicing in the field of social mobility.

This period in the life cycle was focused on because after students graduate from high school they are expected to either enter the workforce, or to further their education to that end. Indeed,

> For some students, the twelfth grade marks the end of formal schooling and the beginning of the world of work; for others, it does little more than separate the elementary and secondary years from the college years. For all students who progress as far as twelfth grade, however, the year is one of decision. It is a year during which alternative educational and occupational careers must be considered, preferences established or crystalized, decisions made with respect to those preferences, and preparations made for their implementation (Rehberg and Rosenthal, 1978:172).

Accordingly, if intergenerational mobility is to take place, student's plans at this point will be a determining factor.

Secondly, researchers discovered that social origin variables are associated with future ambitions and attainments. As Sewell, Haller, and Strauss (1957) state, youth's levels of educational and occupational aspirations are attributable to the "educational and occupational values specific to the status milieu in which he is reared" (Sewell, Haller, and Strauss, 1957:68). Status measures such as father's occupational and educational prestige levels and socioeconomic status (SES) are especially important measures of status origins.

Thirdly, practitioners contend that social origin factors and aspirations/expectations are mediated by

educational achievement. In other words, those with the better grades and/or specialized school training are more apt to attend college and attain an occupation with a higher prestige level than those with low achievement.

As a fourth generalization, researchers maintain that attainment varies by sex. Various reasons have been proposed to explain the difference. Herzog (1982) maintains that occupational segregation of the sexes is due to the different work values held by male and female students. Females tend to value working with and helping others, while male students do not (Herzog, 1982:8). Furthermore, students attain statuses concurrent with their values.

Finally, researchers contend that residential plans are associated with educational and occupational attainments. In other words, if necessary a person will migrate in order to attain a desired status -- educational level and/or occupational position. For instance, a young adult from a collegeless town, who indeed wants to become a doctor, must migrate in order to receive the needed education. Also, the person might not be able to return to his/her community unless there are suitable occupational opportunities there.

From these generalizations it can be speculated that the structure of attainment for South Dakota youth would concur; however, Sorokin's advice should be followed:

Speculation ought to be abandoned in favor of scientific analyses. Indeed, this researcher is interested in uncovering factors associated with South Dakota youths' plans.

Research Problem

More specifically, this research is concerned with the following research problem.

To what extent are selected social factors associated with the educational, occupational, and residential plans of high school students in South Dakota?

Objectives of the Study

The research will attempt to distinguish:

1. Which of the selected social origin factors are associated with youth's educational and occupational plans.
2. Whether educational achievement factors mediate between social origins and plans.
3. To what extent plans vary by sex.
4. To what extent educational and occupational plans are associated with residential plans.

Discussion of the Problem

When talking about South Dakota youth it has been popular to contend that their future is the future of South Dakota. Furthermore, newspaper reporters, politicians, and others have contended that young men and women

would prefer to live in South Dakota, but that economic conditions push them to seek jobs in other states. It has also been proposed that many rural youth, though they would prefer not to, move to urban areas to seek a living. Even with these contentions, little objective research has been done to substantiate that a relationship exists between job seeking and migration for South Dakota youth. Accordingly, it would be appropriate to test the associations among status-seeking and residential plans of South Dakota youth.

An understanding of the migration patterns of young adults, and the reasons for their migration, will be helpful in dealing with the problems brought on by young adult migration. Sociologists, demographers, and others have insistently proposed that migration has a profound affect on both donor and acceptor communities. Among the effects on the donor are a decrease in tax revenue and a decline in both social and economic services. Contrary to this, the acceptor community can expect increased demands on their educational, governmental, and economic institutions. However, these communities can also expect to see increases in tax revenue. If patterns of migration are known, community influentials can compare them to the social and economic characteristics of their communities, and by doing so can determine how best to abrogate those problems brought on by

migration.

It might be noted that this research takes a different approach than most researchers. Instead of focusing on the characteristics of communities that push and/or pull migrants, the focus of this study is on the association between migration and personal characteristics of individuals. The personal characteristics of most concern are status-seeking plans and the factors associated with them.

In addition to these practical and methodological concerns there are theoretical considerations. Approaching migration at a micro level may result in articulation of related theoretical orientations in at least two ways:

1. The push-pull theory of migration assumes that patterns of migration are caused by characteristics of donor and acceptor communities, as well as by the economic structure of those communities and the surrounding regions. They also assume that migration and these characteristics are mediated by individual characteristics of the migrant (Lee, 1966:49-51). This research, however, takes the approach that migration is related to plans developed from individual's educational, occupational, and residential expectations. The emphasis is on characteristics of the individual rather on the characteristics of acceptor and donor communities. As a result, theory, theoretical concepts, and propositions will tend to be at a micro-level

rather than at a macro-level. Also, if there is indeed a strong association between status-seeking plans and residential plans, migration theory ought to account for it in this manner.

2. Traditionally status attainment researchers completely ignore the empirical generalization that status-seeking plans are associated with residential plans; accordingly, if the association is strong, status attainment orientations and subsequent research should account for residential plans as part of the process of social mobility. In sum, both migration and status attainment theories may need articulation if the results of this study prescribe it.

Concepts

There are a few concepts which sensitize further analyses with the research objectives. These concepts are plans, status, and migration. As these are essential concepts, lucid definitions will be beneficial in the formation of the chapters dealing with the review of literature, theoretical framework, and methodology.

Plans. A plan is a scheme arranged beforehand in order to realize a goal or set of goals. "Nancy has plans to graduate from college." In this sentence the plans refer to anticipated enrollment in college, taking the required

courses, and receiving passing grades in those classes. Plans are directed at fulfilling a goal, a goal that can be aspired to, or a goal one can expect to attain; however, one can aspire to a goal and still not expect to attain it. An aspiration is something a person would really like to attain if all restraints were abrogated. An expectation is something someone really expects to attain; expectations are developed with the full knowledge of structural restraints. Aspirations and expectations are related; if an individual feels strongly about his/her aspirations, and has the needed resources and required attributes, or is willing to do something to obtain them, he/she may really expect to attain his/her goal. Therefore, if Nancy has the resources and attributes to get into college, or is willing or able to obtain them, she may really expect to accomplish her goal of graduating from college. Accordingly, she will most likely apply for entrance into a college or university.

A person makes many plans in his/her life. Especially important among the many plans a person may make are plans directed at attaining a certain educational level and occupational position. The preeminent importance of these plans will become evident during the discussion of status. For the present discussion their importance will be assumed.

Not only are some plans more important than others, a decision made in reference to one goal is often made in concert with other decisions. For example, if Nancy wishes to become a doctor, she will need to attain the attributes that will allow her to gain admittance into that profession. This no doubt means that she will have to attend and graduate with a medical degree from college. In addition, if Nancy lives in an area which lacks adequate educational facilities and subsequent employment opportunities, she will have to make plans to migrate at least once.

Status. The practitioner who is doing his/her research in the area of what causes a person to attain a specific educational level and/or occupational position is attempting to articulate the meaning of the concept "status." A classical definition of status is: Status is "the position of an individual in his society," which is linked to a particular role or set of expectations for behavior (Linton, 1945:76-77).

Oftentimes the researcher divides society's members into status categories; for example, he/she might place members into upper class, middle class, or lower class. The researcher may even place them into categories prescribed by wealth, education, or occupation. The basis for placement is derived from each person's measured

wealth, power, and prestige, in relation to other members' measured wealth, power, and prestige. Five variables are most representative in measuring a person's status. These variables are:

1. property and income varaibles;
2. variables which measure political influence;
3. occupational prestige levels;
4. educational prestige levels;
5. socioeconomic status.

Socioeconomic status is a combined score of a person's measured wealth, education, and occupation. Socioeconomic status is important, but one practitioner, A.B. Hollingshead, uses only educational and occupational prestige levels as a measure of status. The preeminent importance of educational and occupational plans are now evident; once they are attained, they are important measures of status.

Through the process of normal science two derivatives emerged out of the status concept. These concepts are status attainment and status transmission. Status attainment is the process by which a person internalizes a status. When a person attains a status similar in prestige to his/her parent(s) it is refered to as status transmission (Haller and Portes, 1973). In other words, the value-configurations concurrent with a particular

status are transmitted from parent to child, usually resulting in the attainment of a similar status level.

Migration. Migration is the more or less permanent movement of an individual, or individuals, from one residence to another in a different geopolitical area. This geopolitical area may be a country, state, or town. In this study migration will be refered to as a move from one town to another. This might entail a move from one rural area to another, from one urban area to another, or any other combination thereof. A movement from one neighborhood to another, though it might reflect a change in status, is not usually considered as migration. Reasons given for migration range from expulsion to "wanderlust." It is proposed in this research that migration is related to status-seeking plans as well.

Organization of Thesis

This thesis is organized in the following manner.

1. Chapter I entailed the introduction, the research problem, the research objectives, the importance of the study, and definitions of sensitizing concepts.

2. A review of the literature is found in Chapter II.

3. Chapter III is made up of the theoretical framework, which includes theoretical orientations,

theoretical concepts, propositions, and hypotheses.

4. The research methodology is found in Chapter IV. It includes the units of analysis, sampling techniques, operational definitions, and the statistical techniques that are used.

5. An analysis of the data is presented in Chapter V.

6. Chapter VI encompasses a summary of the thesis, research conclusions, limitations of study, practical and theoretical implications, and suggestions for further study.

7. Following Chapter VI are references, a copy of the research instrument, and pertinent appendices.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Previous research on status attainment has been prolific, and it is not likely that practitioners will cease to propound theoretical questions and articulations. The study at hand attempts to clarify the process of attainment for South Dakota youth. Specifically, it is concerned with: (1) the factors associated with status-seeking plans of youth and young adults; (2) the extent that these factors and plans are associated with educational achievement; (3) the extent that plans vary by sex; and (4) the extent these plans are associated with residential plans. Studies from status attainment and migration literature that are pertinent to these concerns are reviewed.

An initial survey of the literature revealed that various factors are associated with youth's plans. For example, authors contend that various social origin variables, such as social status of parents, community or region of orientation, and the school district one attends, influence individual's educational and occupational ambitions. They also contend that achieved characteristics, especially educational achievement, have an

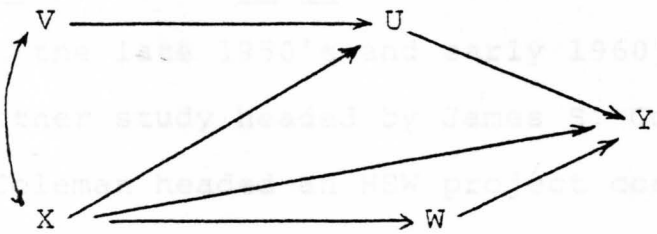
affect on status-seeking plans. Also, sex of the individual should not be overlooked; study after study reiterate that aspirations and expectations vary by sex. Finally, researchers maintain that educational and occupational plans are associated with plans to migrate. Person who cannot attain the desired educational training and/or occupational ambitions in their residential area will migrate. Therefore, studies focusing on these concerns are reviewed.

Social Origins

Numerous studies have concluded that social origins, especially family background, are significantly related to status-seeking plans and attainment. Blau and Duncan (1967) demonstrated that father's status is correlated with son's occupational attainment. Sewell, Haller, and Strauss (1957) concluded that parents' social status influences youth's occupational aspirations. Coleman et al (1966) clearly pointed out that schooling has no significant affect on academic achievement independent of youth's family background. Sewell and Shah (1967) revealed that parent's socioeconomic status is "positively, monotonically, and significantly related" to college plans, attendance, and attainment. The Wisconsin Model also reiterates the conclusions drawn by these practitioners. According to the Wisconsin Model, social

origins, especially parents' status and parental influence, are significantly related to youth's status-seeking plans and subsequent attainments.

Blau and Duncan Model. Blau and Duncan (1967) were concerned with the extent "circumstance of birth condition subsequent status," and to what extent status at one point in the life cycle affects status in subsequent years (Blau and Duncan, 1967:164). Specifically, they developed a model which takes into account: (1) father's occupation, X; (2) father's education, V; (3) respondent's educational attainment, U; (4) status of respondent's first job, W; and (5) status of respondent's occupation four years later, Y. The model is presented in the following schematic.



The Blau and Duncan model proposes that even while students tend to attain statuses similar to their fathers, educational achievement is a contributing factor. One aspect missing from their model, and which is key to this research, is a measure of student's status plans. Others', especially researchers from the University of Wisconsin

have added aspirations to the model.

Social status and occupational aspirations. Sewell, Haller, and Strauss (1957) state that researchers have attributed youth's level of educational and occupational aspirations to the "educational and occupational values specific to the status milieu in which he is reared," but few have empirically tested this relationship (Sewell, Haller, and Strauss, 1957:68). This became their research objective: to test the relationship of youth's occupational aspirations with the social status of their parents, while controlling for sex and intelligence. They concluded that even though intelligence plays an important role, social status "makes an independent contribution" (Sewell, Haller, and Strauss, 1957:73).

Coleman Report. Sewell et al and Blau and Duncan pioneered their work in the late 1950's and early 1960's. During that time another study headed by James S. Coleman was beginning. Coleman headed an HEW project concerned with, among other things, status achievement.

One of the researchers' concerns had to do with the effect unequal schooling has on status attainment. It was assumed that rich school districts have higher per pupil expenditures, and consequently provide their students with an excellent education. In comparison, poor school districts would have a lower per pupil expenditure rate, and

would provide their students with a substandard education. The researchers believed that the rate of per pupil expenditures, and concurrently, the quality of education, would have a direct effect on student achievement and subsequent attainments (Coleman, 1966:1-22).

The researchers also hypothesized that the two types of school districts would be characterized by different social classes. This was true in the large cities where rich school districts were attended largely by upper class white children, while the poor districts had a large percentage of lower class minorities (Coleman, 1966:1-22). If the two propositions are accepted, logic would dictate that lower class minorities would have less opportunities for upward mobility. They discovered that the type of school facilities did not affect the quality of education, nor did the quality of education affect academic achievement independent of family background. They concluded:

1. Family background is an important factor influencing achievements.

2. The affect that family background has on achievement stays with the child throughout schooling.

3. There is little school-to-school variation in school quality due to per pupil expenditures.

4. A composite score for the school of attendance

is more highly related to achievement independent of student's social origins.

5. The sense of having control over one's environment is more highly related to academic achievement than school-to-school variations (Coleman, 1966:325).

In sum,

> Taking all these results together, one implication stands out above all: That schools bring little to bear on a child's achievement that is independent of his background and general social context; and that this very lack of an independent effect means that the inequalities imposed on children by their home, neighborhood, and peer environment are carried along to become the inequalities with which they confront adult life at the end of school (Coleman, 1966:325).

This HEW report demonstrates, as do the previous studies, that social class origins are highly associated with youths' status attainments.

The Wisconsin Model. In addition to the work by Coleman, Blau and Duncan, and others, a major project was underway at the University of Wisconsin under the direction of William H. Sewell. Since 1962 Sewell has been the director of the University of Wisconsin project designed to uncover the psychological and sociological factors associated with student's educational and occupational attainments. In succession Sewell and company researched many theoretical questions and produced several articles and monographs on the subject of status attainment.

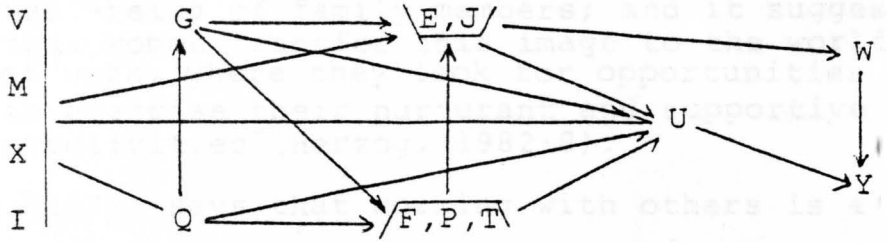
Sewell and Hauser (1975) state that the early works looked at the possibility that educational and occupational aspirations are mediating factors in the status attainment process. They also tested and demonstrated that social status of parents, community of orientation, and aptitude influence student's aspirations. Finally, they considered the extent that significant others influence youth's educational and occupational aspirations (Sewell and Hauser, 1975:5-10).

In 1971, Woelfel and Haller developed a model for educational and occupational plans of Wisconsin youth. They concluded that interpersonal relationships, relationships with significant others, social structural influences, and self-reflexive activities are all factors related to educational and occupational ambitions (Woelfel and Haller, 1971:74-87).

They reiterate that significant others are "mediators of culture," and that these others play an important part in influencing the "attitudes," "values," and "self-conceptions," for ego. Through socialization parents, relatives, teachers, counselors, and peers "convey substantial information" which direct ego to define himself/herself, others, social behavior, and physical objects. Significant others may also act as a "model" for behavior. Furthermore, the researchers mathematically

show that there is a direct relationship between significant others' influence on ego and ego's educational and occupational aspirations (Woelfel and Haller, 1971:74-77). Sewell and Hauser (1975) incorporate the significant other concept into their model in much the same way.

The Wisconsin model is now developed: social origins, high school grades, significant others' influence, and educational and occupational aspirations are related to educational and occupational attainments. The following schematic provides a visual representation of the model.



V = father's education
M = mother's education
X = father's occupation
I = parents' ave. income
F = friend's encouragement
P = parental encouragement
T = teachers' encouragement
G = high school grades
Q = mental ability
E = college plans
J = occupational aspirations
U = educational attainment
W = occupational status
Y = present earnings

(Sewell and Hauser, 1975:92; blocking mine)

Sex Differences

Study after study reiterate that educational and occupational attainments, and the reasons for attaining them, vary by sex. Blau and Hendrick (1979) maintain that

occupational segregation by sex is so great that "about two-thirds of all male (or female) job-holders would have to change their occupations in order to achieve equal occupational distributions..." (Herzog, 1982:1). Herzog (1982) maintains that occupational segregation of the sexes is due to the different work values held by male and female students:

> Female seniors emphasize much more strongly the importance of having contacts with others and helping others than do male seniors. This finding is consistent with the stereotype of the female role, according to which women as wife fulfills a primary supportive/emotional role by rearing children and attending to the well-being of family members; and it suggests that women transfer this image to the world of work, where they look for opportunities to exercise their nurturant and supportive proclivities (Herzog, 1982:8).

And Kohn (1977) says that working with others is a middle class or white collar trait; accordingly, it is expected that those females who aspire towards working outside the home will aspire towards white collar and professional occupations.

Males and females are going to college to acquire differential occupational attributes. Females are going to college to become teachers, nurses, social workers, and counselors, while males are aspiring toward more traditional male occupations such as engineering (Herzog, 1982:6).

Not only are male and female students aspiring toward different occupations, academic achievement and social origin variables are differentially associated with their educational plans. Sewell and Shah (1967) report that in all cases of socioeconomic status and/or intelligence levels, males are more likely to have college plans than are females. Also, if parents' SES score and intelli- level are inconsistent (one is high, the other is low), an anomaly seems to appear: College plans for males tends to be dependent upon intelligence, while college plans for females tend to be dependent upon family's socioeconomic status. Percentages of youth planning to go to college are presented in the following table.

ASSOCIATION BFTWEEN COLLEGE PLANS AND SES/INTELLIGENCE

SES AND INTELLIGENCE	COLLEGE PLANS	
	MALES	FEMALES
high SES	66.3%	29.5%
low SES	14.8%	7.9%
high intelligence	65.2%	53.3%
low intelligence	12.2%	10.5%
high SES, high intelligence	85.8%	72.7%
low SES, low intelligence	4.7%	2.7%
high SES, low intelligence	28.4%	30.2%
low SES, high intelligence	33.6%	26.1%

(Sewell and Shah, 1967:8-12)

Alexander and Eckland (1974) analyzed the data on

Socioeconomic status, intelligence, and college plans and they propose that the sex-role socialization concept may help in explaining the assumed anomaly. They state:

> Thus, female attainment appear to be more closely tied to the ascribed criterion of family background status; while those of males are more strongly related to the presumably functional criterion of academic ability. That these results were consistent for both goal orientations and attainment suggests the importance of sex role socialization in explaining at least a portion of these differences (Alexander and Eckland, 1974:669).

They also state that the effects that sex differences have on status attainment are asserted at the "point of transition from high school to college" (Alexander and Eckland, 1974:669). They therefore believe that other factors not found in traditional male orientated research should be incorporated into further research. Posible factors may included social structural restraints and marriage plans. Mother-daughter modeling may also be a factor.

Educational Achievement

Both the Blau and Duncan and the Wisconsin models of status attainment consider academic achievement a mediating factor between social origins and plans. There are several ways to measure educational achievement. Educational achievement of parents is measured by the number of years of school completed. Student's educational achievement, in comparison, uses grade point average dependent to a degree

upon aptitude as a measure of achievement (Sewell and Hauser, 1975:92).

School Track

Grade point average and aptitude are good measures of academic attainment, but they are not the only ones. Other practitioners (Goslin, 1966; Alexander and McDill, 1974; Alexander, Cook, and McDill, 1978) report that school tracking is also a good measure.

> In particular, tracking consistently affects educational goals, achievements, and goal-orientated behaviors...and is often the most important factor included in our model. Being in a college track increases the probability of applying to college and enhances one's prospects for being admitted. In these ways, sorting processes within the school may substantially affect latter socio-economic attainments (Alexander, Cook, and McDill, 1978:62).

Associations Among Status-seeking and Residential Plans

Researchers have noted that educational and occupational plans are indeed associated with plans to migrate. Rieger et al (1973) reported that finding work and getting a better education ranked one and two as reasons for migrating. West and Price (1979) also report that furthering education is a key factor influencing residential plans. And Lyson (1978) points out that plans to further education and residential plans are mediating factors in occupational attainment. Finally, Philblad and Gregory

(1957) maintain that emigration from rural areas of Missouri was related to the prestige levels of the migrants. Professional and highly skilled workers were the most likely migrants and they tended to migrate farther distances than semiskilled and unskilled workers.

Researchers have also uncovered that community of orientation is associated with individual's educational, occupational, and residential plans. A region or community is a "modality," a social context, within which individuals develop their status-seeking plans (Lyson, 1978:66). Moreover, plans may not concur with existing educational and occupational alternatives in the region or community.

Researchers have also observed that plans vary by rural-urban differences. In the past rural areas were viewed to have characteristics that pushed its residents in to migrating to urban areas. Urban areas, on the other hand, were seen to have characteristics which pulled people to migrate to them (Burchinal, 1962:19).

Summary

There are many factors associated with students' plans. Specifically associated with status-seeking plans are social origins, educational achievement factors, and sex-role socialization. Social origin variables include parental work values, parents' educational and occupational

prestige levels, and the social context of the community or region of orientation. Educational achievement factors include grade point average, class standing, and school track. It is said that educational achievement mediates between social origins and plans. Factors associated with residential plans are status-seeking plans, community or region of orientation, and place of residence (rural or urban).

Even though the literature indicates an association between status-seeking plans and residential plans, there is no indication that status attainment practitioners will incorporate residential decision making into their models. Migration researchers often fail to incorporate status-seeking plans into their orientations as well; they are preoccupied with characteristics of donor and acceptor communities which push and pull people into migrating. Accordingly, this research will address this gap in the research.

There are other gaps in the literature which need to be addressed. For example, mother's status is often neglected as an influence on youth's plans. Also, few recent studies have controlled for rural-urban differences. These concerns will also be addressed.

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Introduction

> It is a truism perhaps barely worth stating, that in our everyday life we attempt to describe and explain the world around us in terms of concepts; this is true both in the physical and social worlds. Science also uses concepts -- sometimes those we are familiar with, sometimes not -- but science is also characterized by systematic endeavour to relate these concepts into sets of interrelated propositions (Abel, 1971:1).

And as Merton says: "When propositions are logically interrelated a theory has been instituted" (Merton, 1949:87). Therefore, theory is a symbolic construction which describes, explains, and predicts phenomena (Kaplan,1964: 294-296).

The task here is to develop a theory that will describe, explain, and predict which factors (concepts) are associated with youths' plans. More specifically, the theoretical framework will be concerned with describing and explaining why certain factors are associated with status-seeking plans of youth and young adults, and to what extent these plans are associated with plans to migrate. The task will include a review of theoretical orientations dealing with status attainment and residential plans. And a theory will be developed on the basis of empirical generalizations, prior theory, theoretical concepts, and

propositions.

Status Attainment: Theoretical Orientations

Three general observations stand out in the literature. These generalizations are:

1. Youth's status-seeking plans can be attributed to the social milieu in which he/she is reared.

2. Social origin factors and plans are mediated by educational achievement.

3. Plans vary by sex.

Not too surprizing, two opposing theoretical orientations have been drawn upon to explain these observations. These are the socialization perspective and the allocation model.

Alan C. Kerckhoff explains the differences between the two approaches.

> ...a socialization model looks for the explanation of attainments in the analysis of the evolving characteristics of the individual actor, while an allocation model seeks an explanation through the examination of the mechanisms and criteria of control of the individual by social agencies (Kerckhoff, 1977:369).

He continues his explanation:

> A socialization model thus tends to view the individual as relatively free to move within the social system, his attainments being determined by what he chooses to do and how well he does it. In contrast an allocation model views the individual as relatively constrained by the social structure, his attainments being determined by what he is permitted to do (Kerckhoff, 1977:369).

The basic contrast is between freedom and constraint. The socialization perspective emphasizes the freedom of people to choose their subsequent occupations, and to set goals for their attainment. Furthermore, attainment is based on merit. The allocation theorists emphasize the processes in which social agencies limit peoples' choices and attainments on the basis of social class, race/ethnicity, or sex. Rehberg and Rosenthal (1978) dichotomize the approaches in a slightly different manner. They divide the orientations into the meritocratic thesis and the revisionist thesis. There are many similarities between the socialization perspective and the meritocratic thesis, as well as many similarities between the allocation model and the revisionist thesis. Both dichotomies emphasize the different focuses of the practitioners -- freedom versus constraint.

An alternative synthetic orientation has been developed by Alexander and McDill (1976), among others. The model considers problems and questions of both in developing a school process model of attainment. The socialization (meritocratic), allocation (revisionist), and the synthetic orientations are presented.

The Socialization Perspective. Socialization is the ongoing process whereby an individual learns and internalizes cultural imperatives through interaction with others.

These others are mediators of culture, who introduce people to the physical artifacts, language, customs, traditions, norms, ideologies, interests, values, and beliefs of their culture. These mediators may also act as models for children and youth to imitate (Woelfel and Haller, 1971: 74-75). These others are often refered to as particular others, or even more commonly, significant others.

During infancy and childhood these others are usually parents and siblings, and socialization is refered to as primary socialization. During primary socialization a child learns about norms, values, and roles. George Herbert Mead (1934) says that the child learns by playing out the roles of others, especially their particular others. For example, children often pretend to be a "mother" or a "father" and play "house." They may even play "doctor," pretending to be a nurse or a doctor. By playing at roles, children learn to see the world through a perspective other than their own. Even so, they learn the roles society labels pertinent to their sex and/or family position.

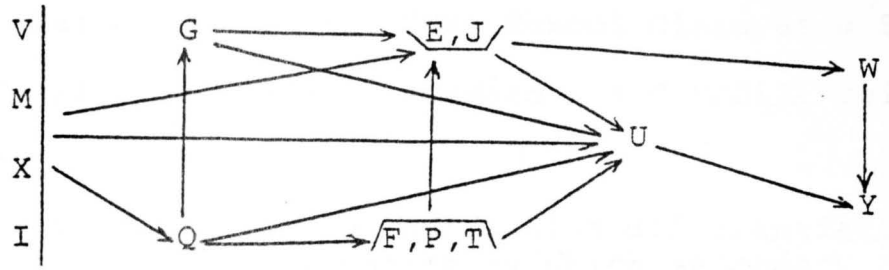
The roles that children play at tend to be sex-specific; in other words, little girls most of the time play at being "mother" rather than "father." Little boys almost never play at being "mother." Being a nurse or doctor is less sex-specific, but girls will play at the

nurse role more than boys will. Whether a child plays at being a doctor or a nurse, the playing is mediated by significant others. Others provide cues -- values, beliefs and orientations -- for behavior (Kohn, 1977). These cues may be either positive or negative reinforcements for particular activities. For example, if George plays with paper dolls, which is not culturally appropriate, his father, mother, or siblings might tease him, embarassing George into never playing with paper dolls again. This is also reinforced through gift giving -- little boys are seldom given paper dolls as gifts, little girls are.

When boys and girls play house or doctor they are playing at parental and work roles. Specific work roles are learned through continued socialization. The socialization process of learning future roles is refered to as anticipatory socialization. The most intense form of anticipatory socialization is schooling. During schooling youth internalize social skills which will allow them to gain admittance into a particular occupation. But what directs this internalization? Socialization researchers maintain that youth are socialized in the home and school in order to help them make appropriate educational and occupational decisions. Familial attitudes and "value orientations toward education and work" direct internalization of many educational and occupational skills and attributes

(Slocum, 1974:8). Parental influence is also accomplished through imitation of parental behavior by children (Woelfel and Haller, 1971:76). For example, if the norm in Nancy's family is for her mother to have a career, Nancy may very well come to value and hope to have a career when the time comes to make that decision. In this case the working mother is a model for status transmission for her daughter.

The socialization model stresses individual ambitions and abilities; if an individual aspires toward a goal, and has the ability he/she is more likely to attain it. Ability is measured by academic attainment in high school. Socialization researchers admit that social class has an affect on aspirations and attainments, but merit is a more important factor. One of the better examples of the socialization perspectives is the Wisconsin model of status attainment. The model stresses social class origins, significant others' influence, academic achievement or merit, and aspirations as factors precipiating attainments. The family and the school as socializing agents are evident in the model; socialization in the family is measured by social class and parental influence. Socialization in the school is measured by teacher's encouragement. Ability is measured by grade point average and aptitude. Refer to the following schematic for details of the process.



V = father's education
M = mother's education
X = father's occupation
I = parents' ave. income
F = friends' encouragement
P = parental encouragement
T = teachers' encouragement

G = high school grades
Q = mental ability
E = college plans
J = occupational aspirations
U = educational attainment
W = occupational status
Y = present earnings

(Sewell and Hauser, 1975:92; blocking mine)

The Allocation Model. The allocation model does not deny that socialization is an ongoing process, however, practitioners believe that plans and attainments are mediated by social structural constraints. They emphasize that social class is pervasive and that it limits the number of opportunities open to lower class children. Furthermore, many allocation-revisionists contend that socialization does take place in the school, but that differential socialization through curriculum placement, favors the upper classes and disfavors the lower classes.

Goslin (1966) says that "in a number of ways we tend to put individuals into cubby holes or, if you will, onto different tracks" (Goslin, 1966:113). This allocation of individuals into cubby holes is done in the school through curriculum differentiation. This is the major

point in Parsons' article, "The School Class as a Social System," (Parsons, 1959). Alexander and McDill reiterate his point:

> Parsons identifies curriculum differentiation as the major mechanism by which secondary schools perform their functions of "selecting and allocating" youth to adult roles. An especially important purpose of such differentiation is to identify those youth deemed suited for college and to equip them with the skills, knowledge, values and interests appropriate for their future educational and adult pursuits (Alexander and McDill, 1976: 964).

Furthermore, Parsons assumes that curriculum placement is regulated by academic ability. However, other researchers (Kerckhoff, 1977; Alexander and McDill, 1976; Bowles, 1972) contend that placement into curricular tracks is not solely dependent upon academic ability; rather, they propose that structural constraints help to maintain the existing class structure. There are four steps to their argument:

1. Teachers and guidance counselors expect middle class students to get better grades than working class youth. Differential expectations of this sort may lead to a self-fullfilling prophecy.

2. Higher grades precipitate curriculum placement. Middle class students end up in the middle class school track, more often referred to as the college prep track.

3. Differential socialization in these tracks maintain the social structure of society by equipping

middle class students with white collar attributes, and by equipping working class students with blue collar attributes.

4. Middle class students are better qualified for entrance into better paying occupations; working class students have little chance of qualifying for these better paying jobs.

Accordingly, allocation-revisionists focus on those characteristics of individuals -- social class, race, ethnicity, sex -- and the processes by which social agencies limit peoples' choices on the basis of these characteristics.

Allocation-Socialization Perspective. A few researchers (Heyns, 1974; Rosenbaum, 1975; Alexander and McDill, 1976; Kerckhoff, 1977; Alexander, Cook, and McDill, 1978) articulate both orientations by incorporating both socialization and allocation variables into single studies. Each perspective has its own theoretical biases. In order to abrogate these biases, theoretical concepts from each perspective are incorporated into a single analysis. The synthetic approach admits the contributions of both merit and allocation in explaining status attainment.

At a critical point in the life cycle, usually as a student enters high school, an assessment of his/her ability to be suited for particular statuses is made. Decisions are based on academic ability, but may

be influenced by school officials' biases toward social class, race/ethnicity, and sex. In any case, when it is decided which status category the individual is suited for, the student is placed in the appropriate school track. If it is formally or informally done, the end result is the same: differentiated anticipatory socialization.

In reference to the example presented in Chapter I, Nancy must not only have the desire to become a doctor, her early (junior high) academic achievements must be of the sort to get her into the professional, college prep, school track. Furthermore her desire must be strong, because others may encourage her to select an occupation from those that they think are appropriate for females and/or students from her social class.

Theoretical Orientations of Residential Plans

One generalization that stands out in the literature on residential plans is that migrational plans are associated with individual's educational and occupational plans. The generalization implies the incorporation of a micro-level theory of migration, but most theories are at the macro-level. Even so, researchers have micro-level variables in their models. Ravenstein, in 1889, implied that people migrate in order to maintain or raise their statuses. He states:

> Bad or oppressive laws, heavy taxation, an unattractive climate, uncongenial surroundings, and even compulsion (slave trade, transportation), all have produced and are still producing currents of migration, but none of these currents compare in volume with that which arises from the desire inherent in most men to 'better' themselves in material repects (Lee, 1966:48).

Lee (1966) actually proposed that individual perceptions of their region, and of alternative regions, are key mediating factors influencing migration. But Lee drops the micro-level approach in favor of focusing on characteristics of donor and acceptor communities as factors related to migration. The major premises of Lee's theory are:

1. Migration consists of three sets of factors, an origin, a destination, and intervening variables.

2. Both the origin and the destination have characteristics which attract or repel migrants.

3. Between the origin and the destination there are structural factors which may make a move difficult in some cases and impossible in others.

4. There are certain characteristics of individuals "which affect individual thresholds and facilitate or retard migration" (Lee, 1966:49-51).

Kammeyer and McClendon (1972) criticize Lee for abandoning a micro-level approach. They state that when Lee moved from theory to hypotheses he switched his analysis from individual decision making to economic

characteristics of donor and acceptor communities.

Kammeyer (1971) states that probably the most important factor related to migration is individual decision making in reference to status goals and residential aspirations. It is important not to ignore decision making as the impetus for migration. Actually, Kammeyer maintains that migration can be approached by focusing on three different conceptual levels. These levels are: (1) the societal level, (2) the personal-structural level, and (3) the personal-psychological level (Kammeyer, 1971:67).

At the societal level, economic expansions and contractions, as well as changes in the structure of the family, influence patterns of migration. At the personal-structural level, researchers focus on the effects that social constraints and economic factors have on migrational decision making. In effect, economic characteristics of communities affect individual decision making, which results in a push, a pull, or neither. Also at the personal-structural level changes in the structure of the family affect decisions. At the personal-psychological level, researchers focus on individual attitudes and aspirations towards economic opportunities, social mobility, and familial ties and needs, and other factors related to residential decision making (Kammeyer, 1971: 67-69).

Practitioners in the past have focused their

research on societal and personal-structural factors; however, little has been done at the personal-psychological level. Accordingly a gap exists in the theory of migration. Practitioners should focus their attention on residential decision making and status goals.

A Micro-level Theory of Migration. A theory of migration which focuses on residential and status goal aspirations can be developed from the preceding orientations. Ravenstein says that one of the most significant currents of migration "arises from the desire inherent in most men to better themselves in material respects" (Lee, 1966:48). This proposition can be accepted with a few qualifications. First, the desire to better oneself may not be inherent but rather part of an achievement-success value configuration (Williams, 1959:417). Secondly, an individual develops educational and occupational aspirations from the value to get ahead. However, aspirations may not concur with educational and occupational opportunities of home community; and if an individual prefers to live near his or her home town, three things could happen:

1. The individual may enter a state of anomie. Anomie is a stressful state where expectations for behavior are nonexistent, ambiguous, or in conflict. Zakikhani (1981) conluded that South Dakota youth do not enter a state of anomie.

2. The individual may change his/her occupational and/or educational aspirations to concur with opportunities in his/her community. In other words, the individual develops educational and occupational expectations which will concur with his/her residential aspirations.

3. The individual may change his/her residential aspirations to concur with his/her educational and occupational aspirations. In other words, the individual develops residential expectations which will concur with his/her educational and occupational aspirations.

The second and third possibilities fall within the parameters of this research.

Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework is developed on the basis of empirical generalizations, theoretical orientations, concepts, and propositions.

Empirical generalizations. Merton says that an empirical generalization is "an isolated proposition summarizing observed uniformities of relationships between two or more variables" (Merton, 1949:97). In other words, it is a summary statement based on empirical studies (Reynolds, 1971:79) without "a theory which states its rationale" (Dewey, cited in Merton, 1949:374).

Six generalizations stand out in the literature:

1. Student's aspirations and expectations are precipitating factors for attainment.

2. Youth's plans can be attributed to their social origins.

3. Social origins and plans are mediated by educational achievement.

4. Furthering education and searching for a desired job are key factors influencing residential plans.

5. Residential plans vary with rural-urban differences and other factors associated with place of residence.

6. Plans vary with sex of individual.

Theoretical concepts. The generalizations can be clarified by giving theoretical meaning to the concepts contained in them.

Plans. A plan is a scheme arranged beforehand in order to realize a goal, a goal that can be aspired to, or a goal that one can expect to attain. Aspirations are those plans a person would really like to attain, if, however, there are no constraints. But in almost all cases there are some types of constraint. For example, an individual might not be able to attain his/her educational and occupational goals because he/she does not have the resources or attributes which would allow them to be attained. Also, there may be structural restraints -- allocation by reasons other

than merit -- which limit attainment. And if these constraints are observed by the individual, he/she will develop appropriate educational, occupational, and residential expectations from them. It is believed that expectations are better indicators of individual's plans than are aspirations.

Social origins. According to Kohn (1977) and Slocum (1977) statuses are complemented by generalized value orientations, and are passed from parent to child through socialization. Accordingly, parental status measures are often used to indicate a student's social origins. Both socialization and allocation theorists assume that social origins influence student attainment. The socialization perspective states that social origins provide a basis from which people develop aspirations and set out to attain them. Allocation theorists, however, believe that social origins present school officials with criteria to allocate students to educational opportunities which precipitate occupational attainments. Neither approach will be neglected in this study.

Educational achievement. As an individual internalizes cultural imperatives, especially educational and work values, he/she aspires to and expects to attain a comparable educational level, argue socialization perspective practitioners. Therefore, educational achievement

ariables should be measured. Such variables are class (academic) standing and school track. Allocation researchers, however, argue whether school track is a measure of merit or allocation. Accordingly, educational achievement should be conceptualized in a manner which does not neglect merit or allocation.

Sex differences. During the socialization process there is a tendency to teach boys and girls sex-specific values. These may differ from one family to another, but remain culturally general. Accordingly, males and females may aspire toward different status positions. In addition, as allocation researchers predict, even if men and women aspire toward the same status positions, their expectations will differ because men will be given preferential treatment.

Propositions. In reference to the empirical generalizations and theoretical concepts, the following propositions and hypotheses are presented.

Proposition 1. Social origin factors such as parental status levels contribute to the internalization of youth's values toward education and work.

Proposition 2. Student's values toward education and work are precipitating factors for educational and occupational decision making.

Proposition 3. It follows then: Variations in educational and occupational status levels of parents are

associated with variations in student's status goal plans.

Proposition 4. Social origin factors and status-seeking plans are mediated by educational attainment.

Proposition 5. Class (academic) standing and school track are salient measures of educational attainment.

Proposition 6. It follows then: Varaitions in class standing and school track mediate between social origins and status-seeking plans.

Proposition 7. Sex-role socialization/allocation is an ongoing social process.

Proposition 8. Occupational attainment tends to be sex-specific.

Proposition 9. It follows then: Due to variations in sex-role socialization/allocation, status-seeking and residential plans vary by sex.

Proposition 10. People migrate in order to attain a desired educational level and/or occupational position.

Proposition 11. Residential plans vary by area of residence.

Proposition 12. It follows then: Variations in residential plans can be explained in terms of status-seeking plans and area of residence.

Hypotheses. In reference to the propositions presented above the following null hypotheses are presented.

HN 1: There will be no difference between father's educational level and the level of youth's educational plans.

HN 2: There will be no difference between mother's educational level and the level of youth's educational plans.

HN 3: There will be no difference between father's occupational level and the level of youth's occupatioanl plans.

HN 4: There will be no difference between mother's occupational level and the level of youth's occupational plans.

HN 5: There will be no difference between father's educational level and the level of youth's educational plans, when controlling for academic attainment.

HN 6: There will be no difference between mother's educational level and the level of youth's educational plans, when controlling for academic attainment.

HN 7: There will be no difference between father's occupational level and the level of youth's occupational plans, when controlling for academic attainment.

HN 8: There will be no difference between mother's occupational level and the level of youth's occuaptional plans, when controlling for academic attainment.

HN 9: There will be no difference between the level of youth's educational plans and the level of youth's residential plans.

HN 10: There will be no difference between the level of youth's occupational plans and the level of youth's residential plans.

HN 11: There will be no difference between the level of youth's educational plans and the level of youth's residential plans, when controlling for place of residence.

HN 12: There will be no difference between the level of youth's occupational plans and the level of youth's residential plans, when controlling for place of residence.

In all cases of tests of hypotheses, except hypotheses 5 through 8, sex will be a controlled variable.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

This chapter includes the units of analysis, sampling techniques, research instrument, operational definitions, and statistical techniques used during the analysis of data.

Units of Analysis

The items of analysis are junior and senior high school students from selected school districts in South Dakota.

Sampling Techniques

The sampling frame was developed by the research coordinator and researcher of the "South Dakota Youth and the Future Study." School districts were selected from each of South Dakota's planning districts. School districts were purposely selected so that different trends of population growth and decline could be controlled for, and so the sample would be represented by both rural and urban youth; however, trends of population growth and decline are not of concern in the present study. Junior and senior students were selected from these schools because they are at a critical point in their lives. In other words, as students graduate from high school they are

expected to enter the work force, or to further their education to that end. All junior and senior students attending class on the day the questionnaire was administered are in the sample.

In sum, a stratified purposive sample is used in this study.

Research Instrument

The research instrument used is a self-administered questionnaire. It was also developed by the coordinator of the "South Dakota Youth and the Future Study." A copy of the questionnaire in found in the Appendix.

Dependent Variables

X_1 Educational plans - educational plans were solicited from student's educational expectations (Q 36). These expectations are coded: (1) attend graduate or professional school, (2) attend a four year university or junior college, (3) attend vocational, technical, or business school, (4) finish high school or less.

X_2 Occupational plans - occupational plans are derived from student's occupational expectations (Q 27). These expectations are collapsed into: (1) professional, (2) white collar, which includes business owner or manager, and clerical

or sales worker, (3) farm or ranch owner/manager, and (4) blue collar, which includes craftsman/foreman, operative, service worker, and farm/ranch laborer.

X_3 Residential plans - residential plans are derived from student's residential expectations (Q 75). These expectations are coded: (1) live in present area, (2) move to rural area in South Dakota, (3) move to urban area in South Dakota, and (4) move outside South Dakota.

Independent Varaibles

Parental status variables:

X_4 Father's education - level of father's education is coded: (1) attended graduate or professional school, (2) college graduate, (3) attended some college, (4)high school graduate, and (5) less than high school graduate (Q 11).

X_5 Mother's education - mother's education is measured in the same manner as father's education (Q 12).

X_6 Father's occupation - level of father's occupation is coded in the same manner as occupational plans. (1) professional, (2) white collar,

(3) farm or ranch owner/manager, and (4) blue collar (Q 23).

X_7 Mother's occupation - mother's occupational level is coded: (1) professional, (2) white collar (3) farm ranch owner/manager, (4) blue collar, and (5) not outside the home (Q 25).

Educational attainment variables:

X_8 Class standing - students were asked to record their academic standing as: (1) above class average, (2) same as class average, or (3) below class class average (Q 9).

X_9 School track - students were asked to record their academic track as (1) college prep, (2) general, or (3) vocational (Q 73).

Other independent variable:

X_{10} Sex - (1) male, (2) female (Q 6).

X_{11} Place of residence - students were asked to indicate where they resided. Responses were collapsed into: (1) rural farm, (2) rural nonfarm, (3) urban (Q 10).

When examining factors associated with residential plans, status-seeking plans (educational and occupational expectations) are used as independent variables.

Statistical Techniques

Statistical techniques used to test null hypotheses are Chi-square, Gamma, and Partial correlation. Chi-square helps to test whether the independent and dependent variables are associated. Chi-square is based on the null hypothesis of no significance. If a test of an association falls within the .001 level of significance, the researcher will fail to accept the null hypothesis. The degree or strength of an association can not be measured with chi-square; to measure the degree or strength of an association Gamma tests are used. Gamma assumes that the independent and dependent variables are ordianl level data; therefore, Gamma will be used only when appropriate. Gamma values range from +1.0 indicating a perfect positive association to -1.0 indicating a perfect negative association. A value of 0.0 indicates independence between the dependent and independent variables.

Partial correlation analysis is used to test hypotheses five through eight. Ordinal level data does not meet the requirements or assumptions of inferential statistics; accordingly, correlation analysis should not be used with such data. However, J. C. Nunnally (1978) provides a justification for using inferential statistics on rank order data. He states:

> To the extent which any of the three assumptions is not met and consequently bivariate-normality is not precisely obtained, probability statements about the correlations might not be exactly correct. However, this is not a great problem. Unless one of the assumptions were seriously violated, inferential statistics would not be highly eroneous. An example of a "serious" violation would be to correlate a normally distributed variable with scores from a J curve. Also, if there is some evidence of departure from the assumptions, a safe procedure is to use a higher level of "significance" than ordinarily would be required, e.g., to require that differences be significant at the .001 level rather than the .01 level (Nunnally, 1978:139).

The assumptions of inferential statistics are:

1. There must be linear relationships between the variables.

2. Normally distributed variables are required.

3. Homoscedastic relationships are required; in other words, on a scattergram the spread about the least-squares line, or the best-fitting straight line, is similar at all intervals along the line (Nunnally, 1978:138-139).

If the relationships between ordinal level variables do not seriously violate these assumptions the use of partial correlation analysis is acceptable at the .001 level of significance. Accordingly, the .001 level will be used throughout this study.

Correlation values also range from +1.0 indicating a perfect positive association to -1.0 indicating a perfect negative association. A value of 0.0 indicates independence between the independent and dependent variables. When controlling for mediating variables, if the 1st order value is 0.0, a spurious relationship is present.

The verbal interpretation of Gamma used in this study is:

Value of Gamma	Appropriate Phrase
+.70 or higher	Very strong positive association
+.50 to +.69	Substantial positive association
+.30 to +.49	Moderate positive association
+.10 to +.29	Low positive association
+.01 to +.09	Negligible positive association
0.00	No association
-.01 to -.09	Negligible negative association
-.10 to -.29	Low negative association
-.30 to -.49	Moderate negative association
-.50 to -.69	Substantial negative association
-.70 or higher	Very strong negative association

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

This chapter reports the data pertinent to the research objectives. Through hypothesis testing cross-tabulations are analyzed, summarized, and evaluated in reference to the research objectives. The analysis is divided into five sections. In the first section sample characteristics are presented. Aspirations and Expectations are compared in the second section. The third section deals with the associations between social origin factors and educational and occupational plans. Within the fourth section, the extent that educational achievement mediates between social origins and plans is presented. Finally, the fifth section presents data dealing with the associations among educational, occupational, and residential plans. Research objective four, the extent that plans vary by sex, is dealt with in all five sections.

Sample Characteristics

The units of analysis are junior and senior high school students from selected school districts in South Dakota. One thousand one hundred and ninety-nine students completed the self-administered questionaire. Of those students, 610 are males and 589 are females.

Fifty-seven percent of the students reside in urban areas. Twenty-two percent live in rural communities. The remaining 21% live outside "city limits," with the majority living on farms or ranches. Refer to table 1 for further analysis. The Census Bureau indicates that any town with a population of 2,500 or above is an urban area.

TABLE 1

SCHOOL DISTRICT AND SEX

SCHOOL DISTRICT	SEX					
	Male		Female		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
I	254	(41.6)	247	(41.9)	501	(41.8)
II	75	(12.3)	100	(17.0)	175	(14.6)
III	26	(4.3)	31	(5.3)	57	(4.8)
IV	26	(4.3)	22	(3.7)	48	(4.0)
V	23	(3.8)	22	(3.7)	45	(3.75)
VI	201	(33.3)	160	(27.2)	361	(30.1)
VII	5	(0.8)	7	(1.2)	12	(1.0)
Total	610		589		1199	

Family status variables are indicators of the social milieu within which students internalize value toward work and education. Status origin varaibles are presented in tables 3 through 6.

TABLE 2

RESIDENCE BY STUDENT'S SEX

PLACE OF RESIDENCE	SEX					
	Male		Female		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Rural Farm	128	(21.0%)	125	(21.2%)	253	(21.1%)
Rural Nonfarm	145	(23.8%)	120	(20.4%)	265	(22.1%)
Urban	337	(55.2%)	344	(58.4%)	681	(56.8%)
Total	610		589		1199	

TABLE 3

FATHER'S EDUCATION BY STUDENT'S SEX

FATHER'S EDUCATION	SEX					
	Male		Female		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Grad or Prof	64	(11.0%)	62	(11.0%)	126	(11.0%)
College Graduate	84	(14.4%)	93	(16.5%)	177	(15.5%)
Some College	77	(13.2%)	57	(10.1%)	134	(11.7%)
High School Graduate	225	(38.7%)	215	(38.2%)	440	(38.4%)
Less Than High School Graduate	132	(22.7%)	136	(24.2%)	268	(23.4%)
Total	582		563		1145	

TABLE 4

MOTHER'S EDUCATION BY STUDENT'S SEX

MOTHER'S EDUCATION	SEX					
	Male		Female		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Grad or Prof	31	(5.3%)	29	(5.1%)	60	(5.2%)
College Graduate	108	(18.5%)	110	(19.2%)	219	(18.8%)
Some College	85	(14.4%)	99	(17.3%)	184	(15.8%)
High School Graduate	286	(48.6%)	244	(46.0%)	530	(45.6%)
Less Than High School	78	(13.2%)	91	(15.9%)	169	(14.5%)
Total	588		573		1161	

TABLE 5

FATHER'S OCCUPATION BY STUDENT'S SEX

FATHER'S OCCUPATION	SEX					
	Male		Female		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Professional	91	(15.6%)	74	(13.7%)	165	(14.7%)
White Collar	160	(27.5%)	135	(25.0%)	295	(26.3%)
Farm	104	(17.9%)	115	(21.3%)	219	(19.5%)
Blue Collar	227	(39.0%)	216	(40.0%)	443	(39.5%)
Total	582		540		1122	

TABLE 6

MOTHER'S OCCUPATION AND STUDENT'S SEX

MOTHER'S OCCUPATION	SEX					
	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Professional	63	(10.5)	56	(9.6)	119	(10.0)
White Collar	174	(28.9)	162	(27.7)	336	(28.3)
Farm/Ranch	14	(2.3)	6	(1.0)	20	(1.7)
Blue Collar	130	(21.6)	106	(18.1)	236	(19.9)
Not Outside Home	221	(36.7)	255	(43.6)	476	(40.1)
Total	602		585		1187	

On the whole, mothers have a slightly higher level of educational attainment than do fathers. However, more fathers, than mothers, attended graduate or professional school.

Even though near equal numbers of fathers and mothers can be found in the professional and white collar occupational categories, the similarity ends there. Almost ten times as many fathers are farmers/ranchers; this was expected. Also, many more fathers, than mothers, have blue collar occupations (443 and 236 respectively). Finally, the high percentage of mothers not working outside the home further demonstrate the distinction. Accordingly, Herzog's

(1982) contention that there is a very high degree of occupational differentiation by sex is substantiated in this South Dakota sample.

Plans

Continued occupational diffentiation is forecasted: If student's educational and occupational expectations are attained, practitioners will notice further evidence in occupational differentiation. The distinction will be different however; in the South Dakota sample, females have both higher educational/occupational aspirations and expectations than do males. See Tables 7 through 10.
It was hypothesized that students with higher educational and occupational expectations would also have expectations to move farther from home. Tables 11 and 12 show how male's residential expectations compare with female's expectations. As predicted, a slightly higher percentage of females aspire to move outside of South Dakota; however, a slightly higher percentage of males expect to move outside of South Dakota. Further analysis of student's plans will be presented in the following sections.

TABLE 7

STUDENT'S EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS

EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS	SEX					
	Males		Females		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Grad or Prof	114	(20.8%)	124	(23.3%)	238	(22.1%)
4 yr College	178	(32.5%)	219	(41.2%)	397	(36.8%)
Junior College	12	(2.2%)	17	(3.2%)	29	(2.7%)
Voca Tech Bus	165	(30.2%)	129	(24.2%)	294	(27.2%)
High School or Less	78	(14.3%)	43	(8.1%)	121	(11.2%)
Total	547		532		1079	

TABLE 8

STUDENT'S EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS

EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS	SEX					
	Males		Females		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Grad and Prof	57	(10.2%)	51	(9.7%)	108	(9.9%)
4 yr College	207	(36.9%)	241	(45.6%)	448	(41.1%)
Junior College	14	(2.5%)	20	(3.8%)	34	(3.1%)
Voca Tech Bus	162	(28.9%)	123	(23.3%)	285	(26.2%)
High School or Less	121	(21.6%)	93	(17.5%)	214	(19.7%)
Total	561		528		1089	

TABLE 9

STUDENT'S OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS

OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS	SEX					
	Males		Females		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Professional	167	(28.7%)	310	(55.5%)	477	(41.8%)
White Collar	124	(21.3%)	132	(23.6%)	256	(22.5%)
Farm	57	(9.8%)	21	(3.8%)	78	(6.8%)
Blue Collar	233	(40.1%)	96	(17.2%)	329	(28.9%)
Total	589		559		1148	

TABLE 10

STUDENT'S OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS

OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS	SEX					
	Males		Females		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Professional	125	(23.3%)	220	(44.8%)	345	(33.6%)
White Collar	107	(19.9%)	171	(34.8%)	278	(27.0%)
Farm	56	(10.4%)	12	(2.4%)	68	(6.6%)
Blue Collar	249	(46.4%)	88	(17.9%)	337	(32.8%)
Total	537		491		1028	

TABLE 11

STUDENT'S RESIDENTIAL ASPIRATIONS

RESIDENTIAL ASPIRATIONS	SEX					
	Males		Females		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
No Move	174	(37.5%)	124	(27.5%)	298	(32.6%)
Move to Rural Area in S.D.	57	(12.3%)	70	(15.5%)	127	(13.9%)
Move to Urban Area in S.D.	38	(8.2%)	47	(10.4%)	85	(9.3%)
Move Outside South Dakota	195	(42.0)	210	(46.6%)	405	(44.3%)
Total	464		451		915	

TABLE 12

STUDENT'S RESIDENTIAL EXPECTATIONS

RESIDENTIAL EXPECTATIONS	SEX					
	Males		Females		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
No Move	153	(32.0%)	105	(23.1%)	258	(27.7%)
Move to Rural Area in S.D.	31	(6.5%)	52	(11.4%)	83	(8.9%)
Move to Urban Area in S.D.	64	(13.4%)	86	(18.9%)	150	(16.1%)
Move Outside South Dakota	230	(48.1%)	212	(46.0%)	442	(47.4%)
Total	478		455		933	

Educational Achievement

Educational achievement variables, such as class standing and school track are pertinent to this research because it is expected that those variables mediate between social origins and plans. See tables 13 and 14.

TABLE 13

CLASS STANDING

CLASS STANDING	SEX					
	Males		Female		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Above Class Ave.	214	(35.1%)	255	(43.3%)	469	(30.1%)
Same as Class Ave.	311	(51.0%)	309	(52.2%)	620	(51.7%)
Below Class Ave.	85	(13.9%)	25	(4.2%)	110	(9.2%)
Total	610		589		1199	

TABLE 14

SCHOOL TRACK

SCHOOL TRACK	SEX					
	Males		Females		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
General	290	(51.4%)	315	(56.0%)	605	(53.7%)
College Prep	210	(37.2%)	213	(37.9%)	423	(37.6%)
Vocational	64	(11.3%)	34	(6.0%)	98	(8.7%)
Total	564		562		1126	

The low percentage of youth in the "Below Class Average" category may be due to the nature of the question. Class standing and school track are self-reported. Self-reports are used because governmental regulations make it difficult to obtain and use school records. Tracking is similar for both sexes in the "College Prep" and "General" categories; however, twice as many males are in the "Vocational" track. Females have higher attainments than males. And according to the allocation by achievements and abilities, females should have higher attainments; likewise, female's status-seeking goals anticipate this contention.

Format of Tables

Tables 15 through 45 consist of eight types of information: 1) the total number for each cell, 2) the row percentage for each cell, 3) the column percentage for each cell, 4) an idication of significance, 5) Chi-square, 6) Gamma, 7) the degrees of freedom, and 8) the total number of respondents. The following table indicates how to find the total number, row percentage, and column percentage for a cell:

	Grad or Prof
Grad or Prof	106 (98.1) (45.7)

; whereas, 106 is the total number, 98.1 is the row percentage, and 45.7 is the column percentage. Throughout the presentation of findings column percentages are used; row percentages are discussed in unique situations.

Educational Aspirations/Expectations

he data in Tables 15 through 17 statistically demonstrate that educational aspirations are not significantly different from educational expectations. The only category of concern is the "Graduate of Professional School" category, in that only 45.7% of the youth aspiring toward this educational level expect to attain it. The results are more pronounced for females, than for males. A gamma value of .881 reveals a very strong positive association between educational aspirations and expectations.

TABLE 15

STUDENT'S EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS

EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS	EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS			
	Grad or Prof	4yr/Jun College	Voca-Tech Buss	H.S. or Less
Grad or Prof	106 (98.1) (45.7)	2 (1.9) (0.5)	0 (0.0) (0.0)	0 (0.0) (0.0)
4yr/Jun College	105 (22.3) (45.3)	350 (74.9) (86.4)	5 (1.1) (1.8)	7 (1.5) (5.9)
Voca-Tech Buss	14 (5.2) (6.0)	27 (10.0) (6.7)	219 (81.1) (79.3)	10 (3.7) (8.5)
H.S. or Less	7 (3.8) (3.0)	26 (14.0) (6.4)	52 (28.0) (18.8)	101 (54.3) (85.6)

$p < .001$ df = 9 N = 1031

$X^2 = 1426.03$ Gamma = .881

TABLE 16

STUDENT'S EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS

CONTROLLING FOR SEX (male)

EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS	EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS			
	Grad or Prof	4yr/Jun College	Voca-Tech Buss	H.S. or Less
Grad or Prof	57 (100.0) (50.9)	0 (0.0) (0.0)	0 (0.0) (0.0)	0 (0.0) (0.0)
4yr/Jun College	46 (21.5) (41.1)	161 (75.2) (86.1)	2 (0.9) (1.3)	5 (2.3) (6.6)
Voca-Tech Buss	7 (4.5) (6.3)	11 (7.1) (5.9)	131 (85.1) (83.4)	5 (3.2) (6.6)
H.S. or Less	2 (1.9) (1.8)	15 (14.0) (8.0)	24 (22.4) (15.3)	66 (61.7) (86.8)

$p < .001$ df = 9 N = 532

$X^2 = 823.049$ Gamma = .887

TABLE 17

STUDENT'S EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS

CONTROLLING FOR SEX (female)

EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS	EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS			
	Grad or Prof	4yr/Jun College	Voca-Tech Buss	H.S. or Less
Grad or Prof	49 (96.1) (40.8)	2 (3.9) (0.9)	0 (0.0) (0.0)	0 (0.0) (0.0)
4yr/Jun College	59 (23.3) (49.2)	189 (74.4) (86.7)	3 (1.2) (2.5)	2 (0.8) (4.8)
Voca-Tech Buss	7 (6.0) (5.8)	16 (13.8) (7.3)	88 (75.9) (73.9)	5 (4.3) (11.9)
H.S. or Less	5 (6.3) (4.2)	11 (13.9) (5.0)	28 (35.4) (23.5)	35 (44.3) (83.3)

$p < .001$ df = 9 N = 499

$X^2 = 597.651$ Gamma = .867

Occupational Aspirations and Expectations

The data in tables 18 through 20 graphically show that occupational aspirations and expectations are not significantly different from one another. The category of concern is the farm/ranch category, in that only 56.5% (64.85 of males and 26.7% of females) aspiring toward this category expect to attain it.

The males in this category tend to expect to attain blue collar occupations, while the females tend to select the white collar category. A gamma value of .828 reveals a very strong positive association between the variables.

TABLE 18

STUDENT'S OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS

OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS	OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS			
	Profes-sional	White Collar	Farm Ranch	Blue Collar
Profes-sional	320 (94.1) (72.9)	5 (1.5) (2.2)	4 (1.2) (5.8)	11 (3.2) (4.1)
White Collar	68 (25.1) (15.5)	171 (63.1) (75.7)	9 (3.3) (13.0)	23 (8.5) (8.5)
Farm Ranch	6 (9.0) (1.4)	7 (10.4) (3.1)	39 (58.2) (56.5)	15 (22.4) (5.5)
Blue Collar	45 (13.8) (10.3)	43 (13.1) (19.0)	17 (5.2) (24.6)	222 (67:9) (81.9)

$p < .001$ df = 9 N = 1005

$X^2 = 1175.997$ Gamma = .828

TABLE 19

STUDENT'S OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS CONTROLLING FOR SEX (male)

OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS	OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS			
	Profes-sional	White Collar	Farm Ranch	Blue Collar
Profes-sional	111 (90.2) (71.2)	3 (2.4) (2.7)	2 (1.6) (3.7)	7 (5.7) (3.4)
White Collar	20 (18.7) (12.8)	76 (71.0) (67.9)	1 (0.9) (1.9)	10 (9.3) (4.9)
Farm Ranch	4 (7.3) (2.6)	3 (5.5) (2.7)	35 (63.6) (64.8)	13 (23.6) (6.4)
Blue Collar	21 (8.8) (13.5)	30 (12.5) (26.8)	16 (6.7) (29.6)	173 (72.1) (85.2)

$p < .001$ df = 9 N = 525

$X^2 = 664.803$ Gamma = .808

TABLE 20

STUDENT'S OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS CONTROLLING FOR SEX (female)

OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS	OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS			
	Profes-sional	White Collar	Farm Ranch	Blue Collar
Profes-sional	209 (96.3) (73.9)	2 (0.9) (1.8)	2 (0.9) (13.3)	4 (1.8) (5.9)
White Collar	48 (29.3) (17.0)	95 (57.9) (83.3)	8 (4.9) (53.3)	13 (7.9) (19.1)
Farm Ranch	2 (16.7) (0.7)	4 (33.3) (3.5)	4 (33.3) (26.7)	2 (16.7) (2.9)
Blue Collar	24 (27.6) (8.5)	13 (14.9) (11.4)	1 (1.1) (6.7)	49 (56.3) (72.1)

$p < .001$ df = 9 N = 480

$X^2 = 403.686$ Gamma = .814

Residential Aspirations and Expectations

The data in tables 21 through 23 statistically demonstrate that residential aspirations and expectations are not significantly different from one another. A desire to move to a rural area is the only category of real concern, and then only for males. Of the males aspiring to move to a rural area in South Dakota, 63.6% do not expect to do so. There may be an association between aspiring toward moving to a rural area and aspiring to be a farmer or rancher. Accordingly, residential and occupation aspirations held by rural students will be dealt with in section four.

TABLE 21

STUDENT'S RESIDENTIAL ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS

RESIDENTIAL EXPECTATIONS	RESIDENTIAL ASPIRATIONS			
	No Move	Move to Rural Area	Move to Urban Area	Outside S.D.
No Move	188 (80.7) (74.3)	20 (8.6) (18.5)	8 (3.4) (10.1)	17 (7.3) (4.6)
Move to Rural Area	14 (17.1) (5.5)	60 (73.2) (55.6)	2 (2.4) (2.5)	6 (7.3) (1.6)
Move to Urban Area	24 (18.9) (9.5)	20 (15.7) (18.5)	58 (45.7) (73.4)	25 (19.7) (6.7)
Outside S.D.	27 (7.3) (10.7)	8 (2.2) (7.4)	11 (3.0) (13.9)	324 (87.6) (87.1)

$p < .001$ df = 9 N = 812

$X^2 = 984.022$

TABLE 22

STUDENT'S RESIDENTIAL ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS

CONTROLLING FOR SEX (male)

RESIDENTIAL EXPECTATIONS	RESIDENTIAL ASPIRATIONS			
	No Move	Move to Rural Area	Move to Urban Area	Outside S.D.
No Move	115 (82.1) (75.7)	11 (7.9) (23.4)	3 (2.1) (8.6)	11 (7.9) (6.0)
Move to Rural Area	4 (13.3) (2.6)	23 (76.7) (48.9)	2 (6.7) (5.7)	1 (3.3) (0.5)
Move to Urban Area	10 (18.5) (6.6)	8 (14.8) (17.0)	27 (50.0) (77.1)	9 (16.7) (4.9)
Outside S.D.	23 (11.9) (15.1)	5 (2.6) (10.6)	3 (1.5) (8.6)	163 (84.0) (88.6)

$p < .001$ df = 9 N = 418

$X^2 = 512.743$

TABLE 23

STUDENT'S RESIDENTIAL ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS

CONTROLLING FOR SEX (female)

RESIDENTIAL EXPECTATIONS	RESIDENTIAL ASPIRATIONS			
	No Move	Move to Rural Area	Move to Urban Area	Outside S.D.
No Move	73 (78.5) (72.3)	9 (9.7) (14.8)	5 (5.4) (11.4)	6 (6.5) (3.2)
Move to Rural Area	10 (19.2) (9.9)	37 (71.2) (60.7)	0 (0.0) (0.0)	5 (9.6) (2.7)
Move to Urban Area	14 (19.2) (13.9)	12 (16.4) (19.7)	31 (42.5) (70.5)	16 (21.9) (8.5)
Outside S.D.	4 (2.3) (4.0)	3 (1.7) (4.9)	8 (4.5) (18.2)	161 (91.5) (85.6)

$p < .001$ df = 9 N = 394

$X^2 = 477.974$

Social Origins and Educational and Occupational Plans

This section deals with the associations among parental status measures and student's educational and occupational plans. Measures of association are derived from Chi-square and Gamma tests. The significance level used to reject or accept null hypotheses is .001. Null hypotheses one through four are tested.

HN 1: There will be no difference between father's educational level and the level of youth's educational plans.

Tables 24 through 26 graphically show how the independent and dependent variables are associated with one another.

TABLE 24

FATHER'S EDUCATION AND STUDENT'S EDUCATIONAL PLANS

EDUCATIONAL PLANS	FATHER'S EDUCATION				
	Grad or Prof	College	Some College	High School	Less Than High School
Grad or Prof	43 (41.0) (35.2)	25 (23.8) (15.7)	13 (12.4) (10.2)	18 (17.1) (4.5)	6 (5.7) (2.5)
4-yr/Junior College	63 (13.5) (51.6)	95 (20.4) (59.7)	73 (15.7) (57.5)	175 (37.6) (43.5)	60 (12.9) (25.4)
Voca-Tech Buss	12 (4.4) (9.8)	27 (9.9) (17.0)	29 (10.6) (22.8)	128 (46.7) (31.8)	78 (28.5) (33.1)
High School or Less	4 (2.0) (3.3)	12 (6.0) (7.5)	12 (6.0) (9.4)	81 (40.3) (20.1)	92 (45.8) (39.0)

$p < .001$ df = 12 N = 1046

$\chi^2 = 250.960$ Gamma = .523

TABLE 25

FATHER'S EDUCATION AND STUDENT'S EDUCATIONAL PLANS CONTROLLING FOR SEX (male)

EDUCATIONAL PLANS	FATHER'S EDUCATION				
	Grad or Prof	College	Some College	High School	Less Than High School
Grad or Prof	24 (42.9) (38.1)	8 (14.3) (10.3)	8 (14.3) (10.7)	11 (19.6) (5.4)	5 (8.9) (4.3)
4-yr/Junior College	29 (13.6) (46.0)	46 (21.5) (59.0)	40 (18.7) (53.3)	77 (36.0) (37.6)	22 (10.3) (18.8)
Voca-Tech Buss	9 (5.7) (14.3)	19 (12.1) (24.4)	20 (12.7) (26.7)	70 (44.6) (34.1)	39 (24.8) (33.3)
High School or Less	1 (0.9) (1.6)	5 (4.5) (6.4)	7 (6.3) (9.3)	47 (42.3) (22.9)	51 (45.9) (43.6)

$p < .001$ df = 12 N = 538

$X^2 = 141.915$ Gamma = .519

TABLE 26

FATHER'S EDUCATION AND STUDENT'S EDUCATIONAL PLANS CONTROLLING FOR SEX (female)

EDUCATIONAL PLANS	FATHER'S EDUCATION				
	Grad or Prof	College	Some College	High School	Less Than High School
Grad or Prof	19 (38.8) (32.2)	17 (34.7) (21.0)	5 (10.2) (9.6)	7 (14.3) (3.6)	1 (2.0) (0.8)
4-yr/Junior College	34 (13.5) (57.6)	49 (19.4) (60.5)	33 (13.1) (63.5)	98 (38.9) (49.7)	38 (15.1) (31.9)
Voca-Tech Buss	3 (2.6) (5.1)	8 (6.8) (9.9)	9 (7.7) (17.3)	58 (49.6) (29.4)	39 (33.3) (32.8)
High School or Less	3 (3.3) (5.1)	7 (7.8) (8.6)	5 (5.6) (9.6)	34 (37.8) (17.3)	41 (45.6) (34.5)

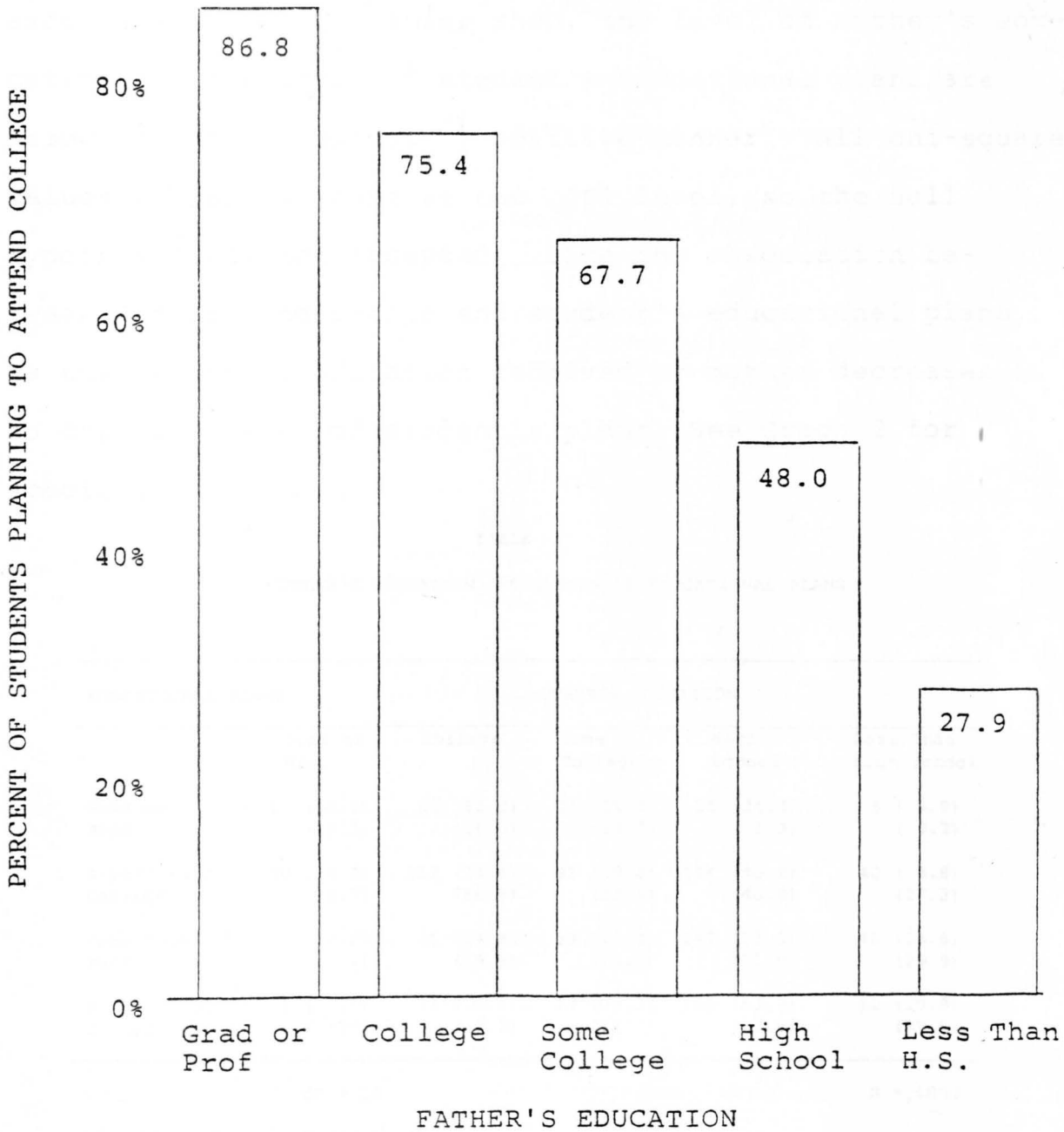
$p < .001$ df = 12 N = 508

$X^2 = 124.620$ Gamma = .543

GRAPH 1

FATHER'S EDUCATION AND

STUDENT'S EDUCATIONAL PLANS



HN 2: There will be no difference between mother's educational level and the level of youth's educational plans.

Tables 27 through 29 graphically present how mother's education and student's educational plans are associated. As the tables show, the level of mother's education and the level of student's educational plans are associated in a moderately positive manner. All chi-square values are significant at the .001 level, so the null hypothesis was not accepted. Like the association between father's education and student's educational plans, as the amount of education received by mother decreases, so does the level of student's plans. See Graph 2 for specifics.

TABLE 27

MOTHER'S EDUCATION AND STUDENT'S EDUCATIONAL PLANS

EDUCATIONAL PLANS	MOTHER'S EDUCATION				
	Grad or Prof	College	Some College	High School	Less Than High School
Grad or Prof	17 (16.5) (29.3)	33 (32.0) (16.0)	23 (22.3) (13.7)	25 (24.3) (5.3)	5 (4.9) (3.2)
4-yr/Junior College	30 (6.3) (51.7)	117 (24.6) (56.8)	93 (19.5) (55.4)	194 (40.8) (40.9)	42 (8.8) (27.3)
Voca-Tech Buss	10 (3.6) (17.2)	41 (14.8) (19.9)	33 (11.9) (19.6)	147 (53.1) (31.0)	46 (16.6) (29.9)
High School or Less	1 (0.5) (1.7)	15 (7.4) (7.3)	19 (9.3) (11.3)	108 (52.9) (22.8)	61 (29.9) (39.6)

$p < .001$ df = 12 N = 1060

$X^2 = 152.840$ Gamma = .437

TABLE 28

MOTHER'S EDUCATION AND STUDENT'S EDUCATIONAL PLANS CONTROLLING FOR SEX (male)

EDUCATIONAL PLANS	MOTHER'S EDUCATION				
	Grad or Prof	College	Some College	High School	Less Than High School
Grad or Prof	7 (13.0) (24.1)	19 (35.2) (18.3)	10 (18.5) (12.5)	15 (27.8) (5.8)	3 (5.6) (4.1)
4-yr/Junior College	14 (6.5) (48.3)	50 (23.1) (48.1)	43 (19.9) (53.8)	98 (45.4) (38.0)	11 (5.1) (14.9)
Voca-Tech Buss	7 (4.4) (24.1)	26 (16.4) (25.0)	16 (10.1) (20.0)	84 (52.8) (32.6)	26 (16.4) (35.1)
High School or Less	1 (0.9) (3.4)	9 (7.8) (8.7)	11 (9.5) (13.8)	61 (52.6) (23.6)	34 (29.3) (45.9)

$p < .001$ df = 12 N = 545

$X^2 = 79.980$ Gamma = .431

TABLE 29

MOTHER'S EDUCATION AND STUDENT'S EDUCATIONAL PLANS CONTROLLING FOR SEX (female)

EDUCATIONAL PLANS	MOTHER'S EDUCATION				
	Grad or Prof	College	Some College	High School	Less Than High School
Grad or Prof	10 (20.4) (34.5)	14 (28.6) (13.7)	13 (26.5) (14.8)	10 (20.4) (4.6)	2 (4.1) (2.5)
4-yr/Junior College	16 (6.2) (55.2)	67 (25.8) (65.7)	50 (19.2) (56.8)	96 (36.9) (44.4)	31 (11.9) (38.8)
Voca-Tech Buss	3 (2.5) (10.3)	15 (12.7) (14.7)	17 (14.4) (19.3)	63 (53.4) (29.2)	20 (16.9) (25.0)
High School or Less	0 (0.0) (0.0)	6 (6.8) (5.9)	8 (9.1) (9.1)	47 (53.4) (21.8)	27 (30.7) (33.8)

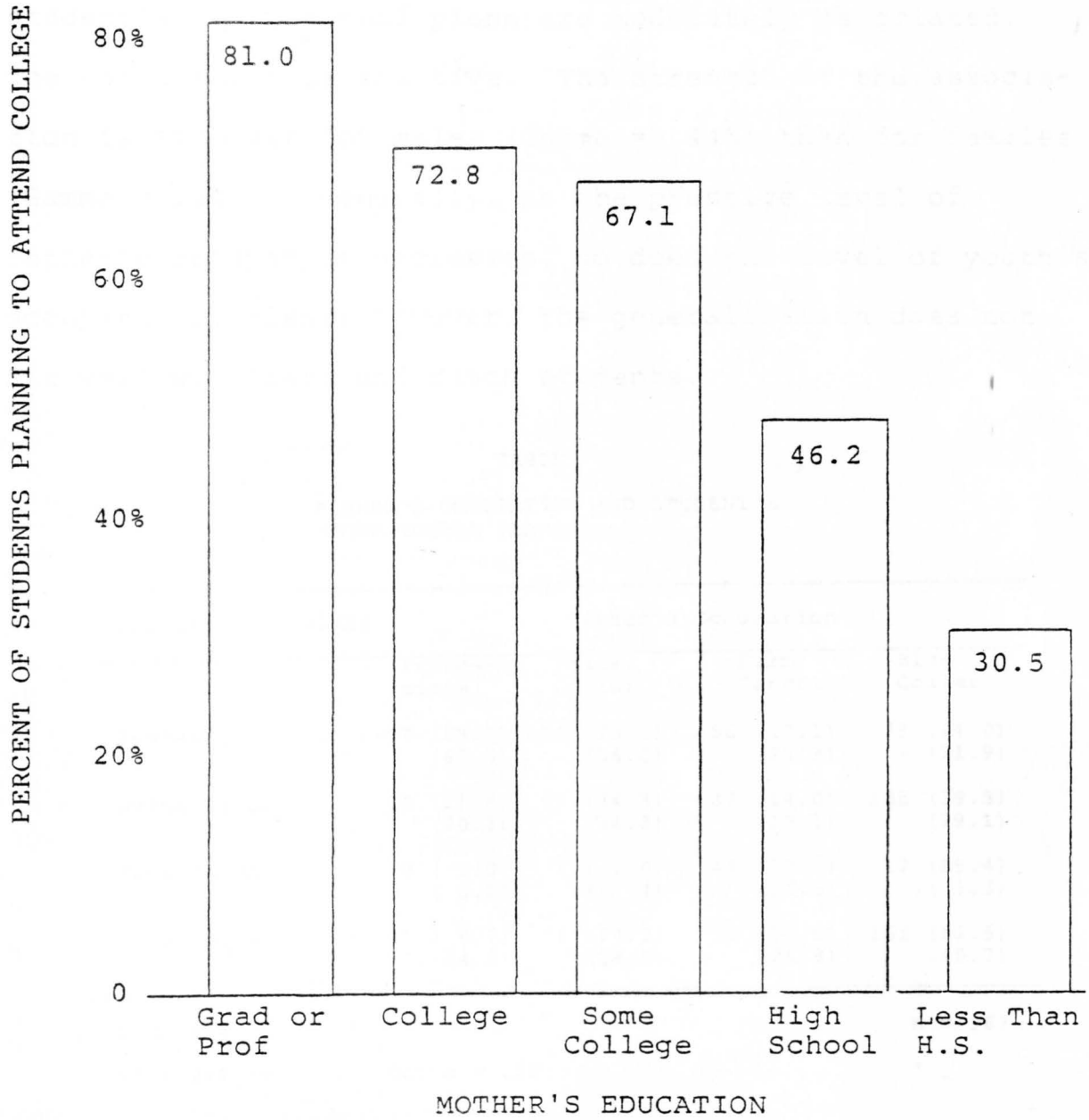
$p < .001$ df = 12 N = 515

$X^2 = 83.085$ Gamma = .451

GRAPH 2

MOTHER'S EDUCATION AND

STUDENT'S EDUCATIONAL PLANS



HN 3: There will be no difference between father's level of occupation and the level of youth's occupational plans.

Tables 30 through 32 graphically show how the independent and dependent variables are related. As the tables reveal, the level of father's occupation and the level of student's occupational plans are moderately associated; the association is positive. The strength of the association is stronger for males (Gamma = .445) than for females (Gamma = .343). Generally, as the prestige level of father's occupation decreases, so does the level of youth's occupational plans; however, the generalization does not fit well with farm and ranch students.

TABLE 30

FATHER'S OCCUPATION AND STUDENT'S OCCUPATIONAL PLANS

Occupational plans	Father's Occupation			
	Profes-sional	White Collar	Farm Ranch	Blue Collar
Professional	97 (29.7) (65.5)	95 (29.1) (36.0)	56 (17.1) (28.9)	79 (24.2) (21.9)
White Collar	30 (11.4) (20.3)	92 (34.8) (34.8)	37 (14.0) (19.1)	105 (39.8) (29.1)
Farm/Ranch	0 (0.0) (0.0)	1 (1.6) (.4)	49 (79.0) (25.3)	12 (19.4) (3.3)
Blue Collar	21 (6.7) (14.2)	76 (24.2) (28.8)	52 (16.6) (26.8)	165 (52.5) (45.7)

$p < .001$ N = 967

$X^2 = 249.48$ Gamma = .35

TABLE 31

FATHER'S OCCUPATION AND STUDENT'S OCCUPATIONAL PLANS CONTROLLING FOR SEX (male)

Occupational Plans	Father's Occupation			
	Professional	White Collar	Farm Ranch	Blue Collar
Professional	45 (37.5) (56.3)	34 (28.3) (23.1)	13 (10.8) (13.8)	28 (23.3) (14.5)
White Collar	16 (15.5) (20.0)	57 (55.3) (38.8)	7 (6.8) (7.4)	23 (22.3) (11.9)
Farm/Ranch	0 (0.0) (0.0)	1 (1.9) (0.7)	42 (79.2) (44.7)	10 (18.9) (5.2)
Blue Collar	19 (8.0) (23.8)	55 (23.1) (37.4)	32 (13.4) (34.0)	132 (55.5) (68.4)

$p < .001$ df = 9 N = 514

$X^2 = 255.523$ Gamma = .455

TABLE 32

FATHER'S OCCUPATION AND STUDENT'S OCCUPATIONAL PLANS CONTROLLING FOR SEX (female)

Occupational Plans	Father's Occupation			
	Professional	White Collar	Farm Ranch	Blue Collar
Professional	52 (25.1) (76.5)	61 (29.5) (52.1)	43 (20.8) (43.0)	51 (24.6) (30.4)
White Collar	14 (8.7) (20.6)	35 (21.7) (29.9)	30 (18.6) (30.0)	82 (50.9) (48.8)
Farm/Ranch	0 (0.0) (0.0)	0 (0.0) (0.0)	7 (77.8) (7.0)	2 (22.2) (1.2)
Blue Collar	2 (2.6) (2.9)	21 (27.6) (17.9)	20 (26.3) (20.0)	33 (43.4) (19.6)

$p < .001$ df = 9 N = 453

$X^2 = 64.629$ Gamma = .343

Eighty-five and eight tenths percent of the youth whose fathers have a professional occupation expect to attain a middle class occupation (professional or white collar); 65.5% plan to be professionals. Seventy and eight tenths percent of the students whose fathers have a white collar occupation plan to attain a middle class occupation as well. Abouth half of those students whose fathers are either farmers/ranchers or blue collar workers plan to attain middle class occupations; the other half plan to go into working class jobs (farming, ranching, or blue collar jobs). Only 25.3% of the farm/ranch youth plan to go into farming or ranching, while 45.7% of the blue collar youth plans to go into blue collar occupations. All of the associations are significant at the .001 level, so the null hypothesis is not accepted.

HN 4: There will be no difference between mother's level of occupation and the level of youth's occupational plans.

Tables 33, 34, and 35 deal with the crosstabulations between mother's occupation and youth's occupational plans. Chi-square values are significant at the .001 level, however, gamma values show that the associations are only negligible in strength. In other words, knowing mother's occupation, independent of other variables, does not cue or help the researcher predict youth's occupational plans.

TABLE 33

MOTHER'S OCCUPATION AND STUDENT'S OCCUPATIONAL PLANS

Occupational Plans	Mother's Occupation				
	Profes-sional	White Collar	Farm Ranch	Blue Collar	Not Outside Home
Professional	55 (16.0) (52.4)	102 (29.7) (35.2)	5 (1.5) (27.8)	43 (12.5) (21.3)	138 (40.2) (34.2)
White Collar	20 (7.2) (19.0)	84 (30.4) (29.0)	1 (0.4) (5.6)	52 (18.8) (25.7)	119 (43.1) (29.5)
Farm/Ranch	4 (5.9) (3.8)	16 (23.5) (5.5)	8 (11.8) (44.4)	10 (14.7) (5.0)	30 (44.1) (7.4)
Blue Collar	26 (7.8) (24.8)	88 (26.5) (30.3)	4 (1.2) (22.2)	97 (29.2) (48.0)	117 (35.2) (29.0)

$p < .001$ df = 12 N = 1019

$X^2 = 88.473$ Gamma = .057

TABLE 34

MOTHER'S OCCUAPTION AND STUDENT's OCCUPATIONAL PLANS

CONTROLLING FOR SEX (male)

Occupational Plans	Mother's Occupation				
	Profes-sional	White Collar	Farm Ranch	Blue Collar	Not Outside Home
Professional	22 (17.7) (40.7)	42 (33.9) (27.8)	4 (3.2) (30.8)	17 (13.7) (14.4)	39 (31.5) (20.0)
White Collar	6 (5.6) (11.1)	31 (29.0) (20.5)	1 (0.9) (7.7)	23 (21.5) (19.5)	46 (43.0) (23.6)
Farm/Ranch	3 (5.4) (5.6)	14 (25.0) (9.3)	6 (10.7) (46.2)	10 (17.9) (8.5)	23 (41.1) (11.8)
Blue Collar	23 (9.4) (42.6)	64 (26.2) (42.4)	2 (0.8) (15.4)	68 (27.9) (57.6)	87 (35.7) (44.6)

$p < .001$ df = 12 N = 531

$X^2 = 42.615$ Gamma = .091

TABLE 35

MOTHER'S OCCUPATION AND STUDENT'S OCCUPATIONAL PLANS

CONTROLLING FOR SEX (female)

Occupational Plans	Mother's Occuaption				
	Profes-sional	White Collar	Farm Ranch	Blue Collar	Not Outside Home
Professional	33 (15.1) (64.7)	60 (27.4) (43.2)	1 (0.5) (20.0)	26 (11.9) (31.0)	99 (45.2) (47.4)
White Collar	14 (8.3) (27.5)	53 (31.4) (38.1)	0 (0.0) (0.0)	29 (17.2) (34.5)	73 (43.2) (43.2)
Farm/Ranch	1 (8.3) (2.0)	2 (16.7) (1.4)	2 (16.7) (40.0)	0 (0.0) (0.0)	7 (58.3) (3.3)
Blue Collar	3 (3.4) (5.9)	24 (27.3) (17.3)	2 (2.3) (40.0)	29 (33.0) (34.5)	30 (34.1) (14.4)

$p < .001$ df = 12 N = 488

$X^2 = 63.985$ Gamma = .042

Social Origins, Plans, and Educational Achievement

This section deals with the associations among parental status measures and student's educational and occupational plans, when controlling for class (academic) standing and school track. Partial correlation analysis is used to arrive at a decision to accept or reject the null hypotheses; the .001 level of significance is the standard used. Null hypotheses 5 through 8 are tested.

Crosstabulations between parental status measures and student's status-seeking plans demonstrate that the associations are moderately to substantially positive in nature, except for associations concerning mother's occupational level and student's occupational plans which reveal a negligible positive association. These findings support the empirical generalization that social origins are important influences on status-seeking plans. However, meritocratic thesis practitioners maintain that, even though origins are good predictors of plans, status transmission is mediated by educational achievement. Hypotheses 5 and 8 deal with this proposition: the effects of educational achievement on the correlation between social origins and status-seeking plans by partialling out class (academic) standing and school track.

HN 5: There will be no difference between father's level of education and the level of youth's educational plans, when controlling for academic achievement.

The correlation between father's level of education and the level of student's educational plans will be spurious, if when controlling for the effects of either class standing or school track, first order partials are significantly lower than zero order partials. However, as shown in table 36, when the effects of class standing and school track are controlled for, zero order and first order partials are similar. Accordingly, the null hypothesis is not accepted.

TABLE 36

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PARENTS' EDUCATION AND STUDENT'S EDUCATIONAL PLANS WITH CLASS STANDING AND SCHOOL TRACK PARTIALLED OUT

RELATIONSHIP	ZERO ORDER	1ST ORDER	
		Class Standing	School Track
Student's Plans with Father's Education	.4361	.3748	.3661
Student's Plans with Mother's Education	.3592	.2879	.3038

P = .000

HN 6: There will be no difference between mother's level of education and the level of youth's educational plans, when controlling for academic achievement.

The correlations in table 36 show that the relationship between mother's education and student's educational plans is not spurious when controlling for the effects of class standing and school track. The zero order partial is .3592; the 1st order partials are .2879 (class standing) and .3038 (school track). Accordingly, the null hypothesis is not accepted.

HN 7: There will be no difference between father's level of occupation and the level of youth's occupational plans, when controlling for academic achievement.

The correlations in table 37 show that, when controlling for the effects of class standing and school track, the relationship between father's occupation and student's occupational plans is not spurious. The zero order partial is .3839, while 1st order partials are .3755 (class standing) and .3735 (school track).

TABLE 37

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN FATHER'S OCCUPATION AND STUDENT'S OCCUPATIONAL PLANS WITH CLASS STANDING AND SCHOOL TRACK ARE PARTIALLED OUT

RELATIONSHIP	ZERO ORDER	1ST ORDER	
		Class Standing	School Track
Student's Plans with Father's Occupation	.3839	.3755	.3735

HN 8: There will be no difference between mother's level of occupation and the level of youth's occupational plans, when controlling for academic achievement.

Because 40.1% of mothers fall within the lowest occupational category (housewife) and few are blue collar workers or farmers, the distribution of cases does not approximate a normal curve. This is a serious violation of the assumptions of inferential statistics regarding the need for normally distributed variables. A skewness of -.382 and a kurtosis of -1.483 demonstrates the violation. Unfortunately, partial correlation statistics should not and cannot be applied to the test of hypothesis eight. Accordingly, the test of hypothesis eight is arrested.

Associations among Status-Seeking and Residential Plans

This section is divided into three parts. The first part deals with null hypothesis nine and ten; that is, it deals with whether educational and occupational plans are associated with residential plans. The second part is concerned with these associations when controlling for youth's place of residence. Part three deals with the associations among aspirations and expectations for youth aspiring toward farming or ranching.

Status-seeking and Residential Plans. Null hypotheses nine and ten are tested.

HN 9: There will be no difference between youth's level of educational plans and the level the youth's residential plans.

TABLE 38

STUDENT'S EDUCATIONAL AND RESIDENTIAL PLANS

RESIDENTIAL PLANS	EDUCATIONAL PLANS			
	Grad or Prof	4-yr/Jun College	Voca-Tech Buss	H.S. or Less
Present Area	8 (3.4) (9.0)	54 (23.0) (14.7)	87 (37.0) (37.8)	86 (36.6) (49.1)
Rural Area in S.D.	3 (3.9) (3.4)	28 (36.8) (7.6)	19 (25.0) (8.3)	26 (34.2) (14.9)
Urban Area in S.D.	6 (4.3) (6.7)	65 (46.8) (17.7)	44 (31.7) (19.1)	24 (17.3) (13.7)
Outside S.D.	72 (17.5) (80.9)	221 (53.6) (60.1)	80 (19.4) (34.8)	39 (9.5) (22.3)

$p < .001$ df = 9 N = 862

$X^2 = 154.634$

TABLE 39

STUDENT'S EDUCATIONAL AND RESIDENTIAL PLANS

CONTROLLING FOR SEX (male)

RESIDENTIAL PLANS	EDUCATIONAL PLANS			
	Grad or Prof	4-yr/Jun College	Voca-Tech Buss	H.S. or Less
Present Area	6 (4.2) (12.2)	29 (20.4) (17.1)	57 (40.1) (43.8)	50 (35.2) (51.5)
Rural Area in S.D.	2 (7.1) (4.1)	11 (39.3) (6.5)	5 (17.9) (3.8)	10 (35.7) (10.3)
Urban Area in S.D.	3 (4.9) (6.1)	29 (47.5) (17.1)	18 (29.5) (13.8)	11 (18.0) (11.3)
Outside S.D.	38 (17.7) (77.6)	101 (47.0) (59.4)	50 (23.3) (38.5)	26 (12.1) (26.8)

$p <$ .001 df = 9 N = 446

X^2 = 68.229

TABLE 40

STUDENT'S EDUCATIONAL AND RESIDENTIAL PLANS

CONTROLLING FOR SEX (female)

RESIDENTIAL PLANS	EDUCATIONAL PLANS			
	Grad or Prof	4-yr/Jun College	Voca-Tech Buss	H.S. or Less
Present Area	2 (2.2) (5.0)	25 (26.9) (12.6)	30 (32.3) (30.0)	36 (38.7) (46.2)
Rural Area in S.D.	1 (2.1) (2.5)	17 (35.4) (8.6)	14 (29.2) (14.0)	16 (33.3) (20.5)
Urban Area in S.D.	3 (3.8) (7.5)	36 (46.2) (18.2)	26 (33.3) (26.0)	13 (16.7) (16.7)
Outside S.D.	34 (17.3) (85.0)	120 (60.9) (60.6)	30 (15.2) (30.0)	13 (6.6) (16.7)

$p <$ .001 df = 9 N = 416

X^2 = 93.347

Crosstabulations graphically show that residential and educational plans are associated; a chi-square of 154.634 is significant at the .001 level. The clearest pattern emerges when the "live in present area" and "move outside of South Dakota" categories are compared. There is an inverse relationship between student's educational and residential plans. In other words, as the level of educational plans increase, the level of residential plans decrease.

EDUCATIONAL PLANS

RESIDENTIAL PLANS	Grad or Prof	4-yr/Jun College	Voca-Tech Bus	H.S. or Less
Live in Present Area	8 (9.0%)	54 (14.7%)	87 (37.8%)	86 (49.1%)
Move Outside S.D.	72 (80.9%)	221 (60.1%)	80 (34.8%)	39 (22.3%)

Even when controlling for sex the generalization holds. In sum, there is an association between educational and residential plans; accordingly, the null hypothesis is not accepted.

HN 10: There will be no difference between youth's level of occupational plans and the level of youth's residential plans.

A chi-square value of 103.38 is significant at the .001 level; occupational and residential plans vary

together. Accordingly, the null hypothesis is not accepted. The percentages of students expecting to attain white collar occupations have residential plans quite similar to those students who have blue collar occupational plans.

RESIDENTIAL PLANS	OCCUPATIONAL PLANS: White Collar	Blue Collar
Live in Present Area	29.7%	32.2%
Rural Area in S.D.	7.6%	7.8%
Urban Area in S.D.	19.8%	17.1%
Outside S.D.	42.8%	48.2%

Accordingly, one might conclude that there is no difference between the residential plans of students with white collar and blue collar occupational plans. However, one could not conclude that there are no differences between youth's occupational and residential plans, because both the professional and farm/ranch categories are anomalous. For example, 13.1% of the students planning to become professionals plan to live in present area, while 61.9% of the students planning to become farmers or ranchers expect to live in present area. Likewise, 64.5% of the professional expectants are planning to move outside of South Dakota, while only 14.3% of youth expecting to attain farm/ranch

occupations expect to move outside of South Dakota. The high percentage of youth expecting to become professionals, who also expect to move outside South Dakota, substantiates Philblad and Gregory's (1957) observation that professionals are the most likely migrants and that they migrate the farthest distances. Results are maintained when controlling for sex.

TABLE 41

OCCUPATIONAL AND RESIDENTIAL PLANS

Residential Plans	Occupational Plans			
	Profes-sional	White Collar	Farm Ranch	Blue Collar
No Move	35 (15.4) (13.1)	66 (29.1) (29.7)	39 (17.2) (61.9)	87 (38.3) (32.3)
Move to Rural Area	20 (28.2) (7.5)	17 (23.9) (7.7)	13 (18.3) (20.6)	21 (29.6) (7.8)
Move to Urban Area	40 (30.3) (14.9)	44 (33.3) (19.8)	2 (1.5) (3.2)	46 (34.8) (17.1)
Move Outside South Dakota	173 (44.1) (64.6)	95 (24.2) (42.8)	9 (2.3) (14.3)	115 (29.3) (42.8)

$p < .001$ df = 12 N = 822

$X^2 = 103.385$

TABLE 42

OCCUPATIONAL AND RESIDENTIAL PLANS CONTROLLING FOR SEX (male)

Residential Plans	Occupational Plans			
	Profes-sional	White Collar	Farm Ranch	Blue Collar
No Move	13 (9.4) (12.9)	28 (20.3) (32.9)	34 (24.6) (64.2)	63 (45.7) (33.0)
Move to Rural Area	5 (16.1) (5.0)	3 (9.7) (3.5)	9 (29.0) (17.0)	14 (45.2) (7.3)
Move to Urban Area	15 (25.9) (14.9)	13 (22.4) (15.3)	1 (1.7) (1.9)	29 (50.0) (15.2)
Move Outside South Dakota	68 (33.5) (67.3)	41 (20.2) (48.2)	9 (4.4) (17.0)	85 (41.9) (44.5)

$p < .001$ df = 9 N = 430

$X^2 = 63.273$

TABLE 43

OCCUPATIONAL AND RESIDENTIAL PLANS CONTROLLING FOR SEX (female)

Residential Plans	Occupational Plans			
	Profes-sional	White Collar	Farm Ranch	Blue Collar
No Move	22 (24.7) (13.2)	38 (42.7) (27.7)	5 (5.6) (50.0)	24 (27.0) (30.8)
Move to Rural Area	15 (37.5) (9.0)	14 (35.0) (10.2)	4 (10.0) (40.0)	7 (17.5) (9.0)
Move to Urban Area	25 (33.8) (15.0)	31 (41.9) (22.6)	1 (1.4) (10.0)	17 (23.0) (21.8)
Move Outside South Dakota	105 (55.6) (62.9)	54 (28.6) (39.4)	0 (0.0) (0.0)	30 (15.9) (38.5)

$p < .001$ df = 9 N = 392

$X^2 = 41.930$

Associations among Plans, when controlling for Residence

. This section deals with the associations among status-seeking and residential plans when controlling for place of residence. Null hypotheses 11 and 12 are tested.

HN 11: There will be no difference between youth's level of educational plans and the level of youth's residential plans, when controlling for place of residence.

As shown in Table 44, when controlling for place of residence -- rural farm, rural nonfarm, and urban -- the associations between educational and residential plans are significant at the .001 level. Rural-Urban differences do not mediate between student's educational and residential decision making; in fact, the inverse relationship between educational and residential plans exists when controlling for each residential area. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not accepted.

HN 12: There will be no difference between youth's level of occupational plans and the level of youth's residential plans, when controlling for place of residence.

As table 45 shows, when controlling for place of residence the associations between youth's occupational and residential plans are significant at the .001 level. An inverse relationship exists between occupational and residential plans, even when controlling for rural-urban differences. The null hypothesis is not accepted.

TABLE 44

STUDENT'S EDUCATION AND RESIDENTIAL PLAN, CONTROLLING FOR PLACE OF RESIDENCE

	RURAL FARM				RURAL NONFARM				URBAN			
RESIDENTIAL PLANS	EDUCATIONAL PLANS				EDUCATIONAL PLANS				EDUCATIONAL PLANS			
	Grad or Prof	4yr/Jun College	Voca-Tech Bus	H.S. or Less	Grad or Prof	4yr/Jun College	Voca-Tech Bus	H.S. or Less	Grad or Prof	4yr/Jun	Voca-Tech Bus	H.S. or Less
Present Area	1 (1.4) (12.5)	12 (17.4) (19.0)	26 (37.7) (46.4)	30 (43.5) (55.6)	1 (2.9) (11.1)	6 (17.6) (7.4)	11 (32.4) (18.6)	16 (47.1) (38.1)	6 (4.5) (8.3)	36 (27.3) (16.1)	50 (37.9) (43.5)	40 (30.3) (50.6)
Rural Area in S.D.	2 (6.3) (25.0)	11 (34.4) (17.5)	6 (18.8) (10.7)	13 (40.6) (24.1)	0 (0.0) (0.0)	7 (30.4) (8.6)	7 (30.4) (11.9)	9 (39.1) (21.4)	1 (4.8) (1.4)	10 (47.6) (4.5)	6 (28.6) (5.2)	4 (19.0) (5.1)
Urban Area in S.D.	1 (3.7) (12.5)	12 (44.4) (19.0)	10 (37.0) (17.9)	4 (14.8) (7.4)	1 (2.6) (11.1)	12 (31.6) (14.8)	16 (42.1) (27.1)	9 (23.7) (21.4)	4 (5.4) (5.6)	41 (55.4) (18.3)	18 (24.3) (15.7)	11 (14.9) (13.9)
Outside S.D.	4 (7.5) (50.0)	28 (52.8) (44.4)	14 (26.4) (25.0)	7 (13.2) (13.0)	7 (7.3) (77.8)	56 (58.3) (69.1)	25 (26.0) (42.4)	8 (8.3) (19.0)	61 (23.2) (84.7)	137 (52.1) (61.2)	41 (15.6) (35.7)	24 (9.1) (30.4)
	$p < .001$ $x^2 = 30.238$				$p < .001$ $x^2 = 38.784$				$p < .001$ $x^2 = 85.162$			

TABLE 45

STUDENT'S OCCUPATIONAL AND RESIDENTIAL PLANS, WHEN CONTROLLING FOR PLACE OF RESIDENCE

	RURAL FARM				RURAL NONFARM				URBAN			
RESIDENTIAL PLANS	EDUCATIONAL PLANS				EDUCATIONAL PLANS				EDUCATIONAL PLANS			
	Profes-sional	White Collar	Farm Ranch	Blue Collar	Profes-sional	White Collar	Farm Ranch	Blue Collar	Profes-sional	White Collar	Farm Ranch	Blue Collar
Present Area	4 (5.6) (10.8)	14 (19.4) (43.8)	37 (51.4) (72.5)	17 (23.6) (31.5)	4 (13.8) (7.3)	9 (31.0) (16.1)	1 (3.4) (12.5)	15 (51.7) (21.1)	27 (21.4) (15.3)	43 (34.1) (32.1)	1 (0.8) (25.0)	55 (43.7) (38.2)
Rural Area in S.D.	9 (34.6) (24.3)	5 (19.2) (15.6)	6 (23.1) (11.8)	6 (23.1) (11.1)	4 (16.0) (7.3)	5 (20.0) (8.9)	6 (24.0) (75.0)	10 (40.0) (14.1)	7 (35.0) (4.0)	7 (35.0) (5.2)	1 (5.0) (25.0)	5 (25.0) (3.5)
Urban Area in S.D.	5 (20.0) (13.5)	5 (20.0) (15.6)	2 (8.0) (3.9)	13 (52.0) (24.1)	10 (26.3) (18.2)	16 (42.1) (28.6)	0 (0.0) (0.0)	12 (31.6) (16.9)	25 (36.2) (14.2)	23 (33.3) (17.2)	0 (0.0) (0.0)	21 (30.4) (14.6)
Outside S.D.	19 (37.3) (51.4)	8 (15.7) (25.0)	6 (11.8) (11.8)	18 (35.3) (33.3)	37 (37.8) (67.3)	26 (26.5) (46.4)	1 (1.0) (12.5)	34 (34.7) (47.9)	117 (48.1) (66.5)	61 (25.1) (45.5)	2 (0.8) (50.0)	63 (25.9) (43.8)
	$p < .001$ $\chi^2 = 44.175$				$p < .001$ $\chi^2 = 39.031$				$p < .001$ $\chi^2 = 31.799$			

Plans Developed by Youth Aspiring Toward Farming/Ranching.

This section deals with the occupational and residential plans of those youth who aspire toward farm/ranch occupations.

STUDENT'S OCCUPATIONAL AND RESIDENTIAL PLANS CONTROLLING FOR OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS (Farm/Ranch)

Residential Plans	Occupational Plans	
	Nonfarm	Farm
Nonrural	9 (64.3) (36.0)	5 (35.7) (13.5)
Rural	16 (33.3) (64.0)	32 (66.7) (86.5)

$p > .001$ df = 1 N = 62

Raw $X^2 = 4.315$

It was expected that youth who do not expect to attain farm or ranch occupations, but who want to, will plan on migrating to urban areas to find work. A chi-square of 4.315 is not significant at the .001 level. Accordingly, it is assumed that there is no association between student's occupational and residential plans, when controlling for farm/ranch aspirations. Even for those students who do not expect to attain their aspirations to become farmers or ranchers, 64.0% still expect to live in rural areas.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter provides an overview of the research inquiry. It is divided into three parts. The first section consists of a summary of the research investigation. The second part presents research findings. The third section is concerned with theoretical, methodological and practical implications of the study.

Summary of the Research Investigation

The purpose of this research was to uncover factors associated with high school students' educational, occupational, and residential plans. A initial survey of the literature revealed that social origins, educational achievement, aspirations, and sex-role socialization are associated with status-seeking plans. Also, it was believed that an ambition to attain a particular status might be associated with residential plans, depending upon educational and occupational opportunities in student's home community.

The push-pull theory of migration states that characteristics of donor and acceptor communities intice people to move. Donor communities have characteristics which push

people into moving out of their communities, while acceptor communities have characteristics which attract people into immigrating. Practitioners are able to explain patterns of migration, but they are unable to explain the personal factors which influence residential decision making; the macro-level approach cannot explain why some people move while others do not. Unfortunately few studies have been undertaken to ascertain what these personal factors are. Practitioners who have done research in this area have indicated that educational and occupational decision making are key elements precipitating migration (Kammeyer, 1971). Accordingly, in order to get a better understanding of why some people migrate and why others do not, an investigation into students' status-seeking plans was instigated. Furthermore, it was predicted that an even fuller picture could be obtained if the factors associated with those educational and occupational plans were discovered. Among these factors, it was discovered, were social origins, educational achievement, sex of individual, and aspirations.

Therefore, the following research problem was proposed for investigation.

To what extent are selected social factors associated with the educational, occupational, and residential plans of high school students in South Dakota?

The focus of the inquiry was limited by the research objectives. The objectives were to determine:

1. Which of the selected social origin factors are associated with youth's educational and occupational plans.

2. Whether educational achievement factors mediate between social origins and status-seeking plans.

3. To what extent educational and occupational plans are associated with residential plans.

4. To what extent plans vary by sex.

A survey of the literature revealed that various factors are associated with youth's plans. Among the social origin factors are social status of parents, community and region of orientation and rural-urban differences. Researchers maintain that familial attitudes and "value orientations toward education and work" direct the internalization of educational and occupational skills and attributes (Slocum, 1977:8). And Kohn (1977) maintains that values and orientations are related to the occupational and educational experiences that families have in reference to their social class. Accordingly, it was believed that plans would vary with measures of social class. Hollingshead's two factor analysis of social class -- education and occupation -- was used.

Practitioners also contend that achieved characteristics of individuals, especially their educational

achievements, are associated with plans. They state that academic achievement mediates between class origins and plans. In other words, no matter what the social class values and orientations toward work and education are, those students with higher achievements will tend to aspire toward occupations with higher prestige.

Recently, researchers have focused their attention on the plans of both males and females. They found that attainments vary by sex. Many reasons for the difference has been promoted. Herzog maintains that occupational segregation of the sexes is due to the different work values held by male and female students. Females aspire toward working with and helping others (Herzog, 1982:8). Kohn (1977) says that working with and helping others is a white collar and professional proclivity. Accordingly, it is expected that females, more so than males, would aspire towards and expect to attain white collar and professional occupations.

Finally, researchers maintain that occupational and educational plans are associated with residential plans. Reiger et al (1973) reports that finding work and getting a better job are ranked one and two as reasons for migrating. Price (1979) and Lyson (1979) reiterate similar conclusions. And Pihlblad and Gregory (1957) maintain that emigrating from rural areas is selective of the professions;

professionals and highly skilled workers are the most likely migrants, and they move the farthest distances. Accordingly, it was expected that students who aspire toward the white collar and professional occupations would tend to have residential plans which would result in living in an urban area in South Dakota or living in an area outside South Dakota. Students who aspire toward farm, ranch or blue collar occupations would not have residential plans which would lead to these results; or if they did migrate, it would not be in as great of numbers.

The theoretical orientation used in the research was derived from existing theoretical prespectives on the nature of attainment and migration. A status attainment perspective was derived from both socialization and allocation models. In essence, the assumption that students are socialized both in the family and in the school is accepted. Children are socialized in the family when they internalize familial values and orientations toward work and education. It follows then that they will integrate these values and orientations into their status-seeking plans, and that these plans will concur with social class origins. It is also assumed that allocation into cubby holes, or tracks, may mediate between social class origins and plans. However, grades are an influencing factor.

Even though it follows educational achievement in the lower grades, allocation generally concurs with social class origins.

A theoretical orientation related to residential plans was also derived from traditional perspectives, especially Ravenstein (1889), Lee (1966), and Kammeyer (1971). The proposed theoretical orientation was an attempt to develop a micro-level approach to migration. The approach focuses on educational, occupational, and residential decision making as the major factors associated with residential plans. The micro-level approach reads as follows.

Ravenstein said in 1889 that one of the most significant currents of migration "arises from the desire inherent in most men to better themselves in material respect" (Lee, 1966:48). This proposition can be accepted with a few qualifications. First, the desire to better oneself in material respects is not inherent but rather derived from an achievement-success value configuration described by Williams (1959). Secondly, an individual molds this value to get ahead into educational and occupational aspirations. However, his/her aspirations may not concur with the educational and occupational opportunities in his/her community. But the individual may also have aspirations to maintain living in his/her home town. If the individual's educational or occupational aspirations

are more disciplined than his/her residential aspirations, he/she will have to develop residential expectations (plans) which do not concur with his/her residential aspirations. However, if the residential aspirations are more disciplined, the individual may well develop status-seeking plans which concur with regional/community opportunities, and which do not concur with his/her aspirations. Consequently, status-seeking and residential plans are associated with one another.

Twelve null hypotheses were derived from these orientations. Chi-square and gamma were used to test the null hypotheses. The sampling frame and research instrument were developed by the coordinator of th "South Dakota Youth and the Future Research Project." The units of analysis are junior and senior students from selected school districts in South Dakota. School districts were selected so that rural farm, rural nonfarm, and urban students from South Dakota planning districts would be sampled. Juniors and seniors were sampled because they are at a critical point in their lives. They will be soon entering the work force, or delaying entrance to obtain further education. Accordingly, they will be developing educational, occupational, and residential plans that may come to have a lasting affect on their lives. One thousand, one hundred and ninety-nine questionnaires were compiled.

Summary of Research Findings

As predicted in the literature, aspirations are excellent predictors of students' expectations. Three exceptions stand out:

1. About half of the students aspiring toward attending graduate or professional school do not expect to attain their ambitions.

2. A little less than half of the youth aspiring toward becoming farmers or ranchers do not expect to attain their desires.

3. Over sixty percent of those youth who wish to migrate to rural areas in South Dakota do not expect to do so.

As predicted in the literature, social origins and youth's status-seeking plans are associated. All measures of parental status, except mother's occupational attainment level, are either moderately or substantially associated with student's status-seeking plans; mother's occupation is only a negligible predictor of youth's plans. Generally, as the levels of parents' statuses increase, so do the levels of students' status-seeking plans.

Academic achievement does not significantly mediate between social origins and status-seeking plans; contray to the findings of other researchers, when controlling for the effects of class (academic) standing and

school track on the relationship between social origins and plans, indications of spuriousness do not emerge.

As predicted, status-seeking and residentail plans are associated, even when controlling for either sex or place of residence. Generally, migrational plans tend to be associated with higher level status-seeking plans. In other words, as the level of status-seeking plans increase, so does the percentage of youth expecting to migrate out of South Dakota. This finding supports Pihlblad and Gregory's (1957) contention that professionals and highly skilled workers are the most likely migrants and that they migrate farther distances when they do migrate.

It was expected that youth who want to be farmers or ranchers but don't expect to, would have residential plans which result in moves to urban areas in and out of South Dakota. This was not the case; of those youth who aspire to be farmers or ranchers but do not expect to, 63.0% still plan to live in rural areas of South Dakota.

Implications

This section deals with the theoretical, methodological, and practical consequences resulting from the analysis of research findings. Conclusions, limitations, theoretical and practical implications, as well as suggestions for further research are discussed.

Conclusions. Conclusions regarding status-seeking and residential plans of South Dakota youth are presented.

1. The very strong associations between aspirations and expectations tend to support the contention by socialization perspective practitioners that youth's plans are determined by what they "choose to do" (Kerckhoff, 1977:369). However, there are exceptions. For example, about half of those youth wanting to attend graduate or professional school do not expect to; aslo, a little less than half of those youth aspiring to become farmers or ranchers expect to go into some other occupations; finally, over sixty percent of those students who wish to migrate to rural areas in South Dakota have other residential plans. Any explanation regarding these exceptions would be ambiguous without further investigation. However, it is hypothesized that most of these students lack the needed resources or required attributes to attain their aspirations.

2. The pervasiveness of social origins as a factor influencing youth's status-seeking plans supports empirical generalizations found in the literature. Youth plan to attain educational levels and occupational positions similar to the attainments of their parents. Furthermore, academic achievement does not mediate between origins and plans. These findings tend to support the contentions of Slocum (1977) and Kohn (1977). They contend that familial

attitudes and value orientations regarding educational and occupational experiences direct the internalization of students' educational and occupational skills and aspirations.

3. A synthesis of status attainment perspectives with a micro-level theory ensures an alternative orientation and grasp of those factors associated with student's educational, occupational, and residential plans. Status-seeking and residential plans are associated, even when controlling for sex and place of residence. This finding supports Kammeyer's (1970) contention that individual decision making, in reference to status goals and residential aspirations, should be a basic concept in the analysis of migration.

Limitations. It is the scientist's nurture to be skeptical of research findings and conclusions. When being critical of findings, the critic keeps in mind the practitioner's theory, methodology, and application. Accordingly, the limitations of this research might entail:

1. The knowing omission of social and economic characteristics of donor and acceptor communities puts limitations on any conclusions regarding residential plans.

2. Statistics. Statistics are limited by the use of nominal and ordinal level data. Interval level data would have enhanced the interpretation of findings; for

example, path analysis could have been used.

3. Respondent bias. This researcher assumes that answers to questions reveal realities rather than ideals. Students could bias the results by misperceiving their ideals as reality. For example, as Rosenbaum points out, because educational achievement data are self reported, misperceptions of one's class standing or school track could lead to educational and occupational expectations that deviate to a large extent from realistic attainments (Rosenbaum, 1980:86). Accordingly, criticisms might be concerned with youth's responses.

4. Other limitations of sample surveys. Vague and ambiguous questions, a problem often encountered in sample surveys, were repressed through pretesting.

Theoretical Implications. It was suggested at the beginning of this study that an integration of status attainment and migration concepts would better explain youths' educational, occupational, and residential plans, than do past models. Status attainment models do not consider the effects of status goals and plans on residential decision making. Likewise, some migrational models only give lip service to the effects of status-seeking plans on residential decision making. The findings and conclusions of this study clearly indicate that status goals and residential decision making are related; accordingly, articulations of past models and

and orientations are needed. A continued integration of status attainment and migration concepts is proposed.

Results also suggest that status attainment models need articulation in the area regarding the affects of social origins and academic achievement on youth's status-seeking plans. Within this study, the relationships between social origin measures and measures of status-seeking plans are not mediated by academic achievement. The pervasiveness of social origins is demonstrated. Therefore, it is proposed that status attainment practitioners should redirect their attention toward those factors and processes within the family which result in the transmission of familial attitudes and value orientations, in reference to work and education, from parents to children.

Results also suggest that articulation of the theoretical orientations and methods proposed in this study is needed. Accordingly, suggestions for further study are proposed.

Suggestions for further study.

1. Ordinal or interval level measures of both residential and status-seeking plans would allow more intensive and extensive statistical manipulation of the variables.

2. Path analysis should be used to statistically demonstrate possible causal relationships.

3. A more complete conceptualization of values,

aspirations, and expectations regarding the transmission of educational and occupational experiences is needed.

4. In order to get a better grasp of interpersonal relations and how they affect plans, other status attainment variables, such as significant others' encouragement and youth's ambitions, should be introduced into the model.

5. The concept "plans" is a construct. Plans are derived from student's educational, occupational, and residential expectations; actual plans may deviate from these expectations. Therefore, further research, designed to test whether student's were able to attain their expectations, is needed.

6. In order to show patterns of migration and to control for educational and occupational opportunities within communities and regions, social and economic characteristics of donor and acceptor communities/regions should be taken into account.

Practical Implications. Within this section practical concerns are discussed.

1. The percentage of females planning to attend junior and four year colleges and universities has increased (Herzog, 1982). Adequate facilities, such as domitory space, may, therefore, become a problem. In fact, some institutions have already entered a critical stage in

providing female students with adequate facilities. Changing some all male dormitories into co-ed dormitories may help to alleviate the problem.

2. Especially during a time of high unemployment, adequate job service information for youth is needed. Special assistence may be needed for rural youth. As the economies in rural areas tend to be quite narrow, those rural youth who plan to live in rural areas but expect to enter nontraditional or limited rural occupations, will need special assistence in finding desirable employment. Special assistence may help those individuals who want to live in rural areas but do not expect to attain their wishes.

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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

South Dakota Youth and the Future
(Student Survey) ___ ___ ___ ___
1 2 3 4

Directions: This is not a test. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers. The principal, your teachers and counselors and your friends will not see your individual answers to the questions. The information you give us will be used for better understanding of youth in South Dakota. Please answer these questions to the best of your ability. (Pay no attention to the numbers before the questions or in ( ) after the answers--they are for the computer.) We appreciate your time and effort. Thank you.

First, we would like to ask you a few background questions.

5. What is your present age? ____ years.

6. What year in school are you?

_____ Junior. (1)

_____ Senior. (2)

7. What is your sex?

_____ Male. (1)

_____ Female. (2)

8. How do you describe yourself (if you were to use the following terms)?

_____ White or Caucasian. (1)

_____ American Indian. (2)

_____ Mexican American or Chicano. (3)

_____ Oriental or Asian American. (4)

_____ Black or Afro-American. (5)

_____ Other (please specify) _____ (6)

9. Which of the following best describes your average grade so far in school this semester?

_____ Above the class average. (1)

_____ About the same as the class average. (2)

_____ Below the class average. (3)

10. Where do you live?

_____ On a farm or ranch. (1)

_____ In the country, but not on a farm or ranch. (2)

_____ In a small town or village (less than 2,500 people). (3)

_____ In a city or town (2,500 - 4,999 people). (4)

_____ In a city or town (5,000 - 9,999 people). (5)

_____ In a city or town (10,000 - 14,999 people). (6)

_____ In a city or town (15,000 or more people). (7)

The next two questions are about your parents. If you were raised mostly by foster or step-parents, or others, answer the next two questions for them. If you have both a step-father (or mother) and a natural father (or mother), answer for the one who was most important in raising you.

11. What is the highest level of schooling completed by your father?

_____ Completed grade school or less. (1)

_____ Some high school. (2)

_____ Completed high school. (3)

_____ Some college. (4)

_____ Completed college. (5)

_____ Graduate or professional school after college. (6)

_____ Don't know, or does not apply. (7)

12. What is the highest level of schooling completed by your mother?

_____ Completed grade school or less. (1)

_____ Some high school. (2)

_____ Completed high school. (3)

_____ Some college. (4)

_____ Completed college. (5)

_____ Graduate or professional school after college. (6)

_____ Don't know, or does not apply. (7)

The next several questions ask about your own beliefs and ideas.

13. How would you describe your political beliefs?

_____ Very conservative. (1)

_____ Conservative. (2)

_____ Moderate. (3)

_____ Liberal. (4)

_____ Very liberal. (5)

_____ Radical. (6)

_____ None of the above, or don't know. (7)

The next five questions ask about different places to live and how desirable they might be to you. Please tell us how you feel about each kind of place below using the following terms:

Not at all acceptable -- You would not live in a place like this if you could possibly avoid it.
Somewhat acceptable -- You would live in a place like this, but you would not be very happy about it.
Acceptable -- A place like this would be O.K.
Desirable -- This is the kind of place where you would really like to live.

14. How do you feel about a rural area?

_____ Not at all acceptable. (1)

_____ Somewhat acceptable. (2)

_____ Acceptable. (3)

_____ Desirable. (4)

15. How do you feel about a small town? (less than 10,000 people)

_____ Not at all acceptable. (1)

_____ Somewhat acceptable. (2)

_____ Acceptable. (3)

_____ Desirable. (4)

16. How do you feel about a small city? (10,000-50,000 people)

_____ Not at all acceptable. (1)

_____ Somewhat acceptable. (2)

_____ Acceptable. (3)

_____ Desirable. (4)

17. How do you feel about a suburb of a large city?

_____ Not at all acceptable. (1)

_____ Somewhat acceptable. (2)

_____ Acceptable. (3)

_____ Desirable. (4)

18. How do you feel about a large city? (more than 50,000 people)

_____ Not at all acceptable. (1)

_____ Somewhat acceptable. (2)

_____ Acceptable. (3)

_____ Desirable. (4)

19. If it were possible for you to obtain a job with adequate pay in your hometown or in the area where you now live, would you stay in your present area?

_____ Yes. (1) _____ Not sure, but probably would. (2)

_____ No. (4) _____ Not sure, but probably would not. (3)

The next few questions again are background questions.

20. Do you have close relatives (that is people whom you regard as "close" relatives) who have moved out of this area within the past five years?

_____ Yes. (1)

_____ No. (2)

If you answered "Yes" to the above question, please answer the next two questions. If you answered "No" to the above question, skip the next two questions and go to Question 23.

21. If you do have relatives who moved out of this area within the past five years, did they move to: (check as many as apply)

_____ A rural area (farm, ranch or community of less than 2,500 people)?(1)

_____ A small town or city (2,500 - 10,000 people)? (2)

_____ A city (more than 10,000 people)? (3)

22. If you have close relatives who moved out of this area within the past five years, did any of them move out of South Dakota?

_____ Yes. (1)

_____ No. (2)

23. How would you classify your father's or your guardian's usual occupation? (Check only one category.)

_____ Professional (teacher, doctor, lawyer, etc.) (1)

_____ Business owner, manager, or executive (banker, merchant, insurance agent, etc.) (2)

_____ Clerical or sales worker (office worker, salesclerk, etc.) (3)

_____ Craftsmen or foreman (carpenter, electrician, machinist, mechanic, etc.) (4)

_____ Operative (truck driver, deliveryman, school bus driver, etc.) (5)

_____ Service worker (policeman, barber, etc.) (6)

_____ Rancher or farmer (7)

_____ Ranch hand or farm worker (8)

_____ Don't know. (9)

_____ Other (if you don't see your father's usual occupation above, write it in here) _____

24. Does your mother or guardian work outside of your home?

_____ Yes. (1)

_____ No. (2) (If "no." skip to Question 26.)

25. If your mother does work outside of the home, how would you classify her usual occupation? (Check one category.)

_____ Professional (teacher, lawyer, doctor, social worker, etc.) (1)

_____ Business owner, manager or executive (cafe owner, store manager, etc.) (2)

_____ Clerical or sales worker (office worker, secretary, salesclerk, etc.) (3)

_____ Craftsman or foreman (machinist, factory worker, etc.) (4)

_____ Operative (truck driver, school bus driver, etc.) (5)

_____ Service worker (nurses aide, waitress, beautician, etc.) (6)

_____ Rancher or farmer. (7)

_____ Ranch worker or farm worker. (8)

_____ Don't know. (9)

_____ Other (if you don't see your mother's usual occupation above, write it in here) _____

The next questions are once again directed to your own ideas, activities and beliefs.

26. Suppose you had the necessary abilities, grades, financial resources, etc., what kind of work would you really like to do? (Please check only one category.)

_____ Professional (teacher, lawyer, doctor, social worker, etc.) (1)

_____ Business owner, manager or executive (merchant, banker, store owner, agribusiness manager, etc.) (2)

_____ Clerical or sales worker (office worker, salesclerk, etc.) (3)

_____ Craftsman or foreman (carpenter, electrician, machinist, mechanic, etc.) (4)

_____ Operative (truck driver, welder, deliveryman, etc.) (5)

_____ Service worker (policeman, barber, beautician, waiter or waitress, etc.) (6)

_____ Rancher or farmer. (7)

_____ Ranch hand or farm worker. (8)

_____ Don't know. (9)

_____ Other (if you don't see the kind of work which you would really like to do above, write it in here)

_____

27. Considering your abilities, grades, financial resources, etc., what kind of work do you <u>really expect</u> to do? (Please check only one category.)

_____ Professional (teacher, lawyer, doctor, social worker, etc.) (1)

_____ Business owner, manager or executive (merchant, banker, store owner or manager, etc.) (2)

_____ Clerical or sales worker (office worker, salesclerk, etc.) (3)

_____ Craftsman or foreman (carpenter, electrician, machinist, mechanic, etc.) (4)

_____ Operative (truck driver, welder, deliveryman, etc.) (5)

_____ Service worker (policeman, barber, beautician, waiter or waitress, etc.) (6)

_____ Rancher or farmer. (7)

_____ Ranch hand or farm worker. (8)

_____ Don't know. (9)

_____ Other (if you don't see the kind of work which you <u>really expect</u> to do above, write it in here)

_____

Are you a member of any of the following groups or organizations in your school or in your community? (Check all the groups or organizations to which you belong.)

28. _____ Band or orchestra. (1)

_____ Chorus or choir. (2)

29. _____ Athletic team or cheerleaders. (3)

30. _____ Debate, forensics or drama. (4)

31. _____ Church youth group. (5)

_____ Boy scouts or girl scouts. (6)

32. _____ 4-H. (7)

33. _____ Other group. (Please identify any other group to which you belong here.)

_____ (8)

_____ None. I don't belong to any group or organization in the school or community.

34. Are you now or have you ever been a class or school officer (student council-member, president of your class, etc.) during your high school years?

_____ Yes. (1)

_____ No. (2)

35. Suppose you had the necessary abilities, grades, financial resources, etc., how far would you <u>really like</u> to go in school? (Please check just one.)

_____ I would like to stop school now, before high school graduation. (1)

_____ I would like to stop school after high school graduation. (2)

_____ I would like to go to a technical, vocational or business school after high school graduation. (3)

_____ I would like to go to a junior college after high school. (4)

_____ I would like to go to a four-year college or university after high school. (5)

_____ I would like to go to graduate or professional school after graduating from college. (6)

_____ I am undecided. (7)

36. Considering your abilities, grades, financial resources, etc., how far do you think you <u>really expect</u> to go in school? (Please check just one.)

_____ I will probably stop school before high school graduation. (1)

_____ I will probably graduate from high school, but go no further. (2)

_____ I will probably go to a technical, vocational or business school after high school graduation. (3)

_____ I will probably go to a junior college after high school. (4)

_____ I will probably go to a four-year college or university after high school. (5)

_____ I will probably go to graduate or professional school after graduating from college. (6)

_____ I really don't know. (7)

37. After completing your schooling, do you plan to live in South Dakota or in some other state or place?

_____ I plan to live in South Dakota. (1)

_____ Not sure, probably South Dakota. (2)

_____ Not sure, probably some place else. (3)

_____ I plan to live in some other state or place. (4)

The next four questions deal with four different kinds of development which might take place in an area. If the kind of development identified were to bring <u>more jobs</u> into your area, would you favor or oppose such development <u>in your area</u>?

38. Industrial development (such as the building of factories or some sort of manufacturing or processing plants) - How do you feel about such development in your area?

_____ Favor. (1) _____ Uncertain, probably oppose. (3)

_____ Uncertain, probably favor. (2) _____ Oppose. (4)

39. Commercial development (such as the building of a shopping complex or large business outlet) - How do you feel about such development in your area?

_____ Favor. (1) _____ Uncertain, probably oppose. (3)

_____ Uncertain, probably favor. (2) _____ Oppose. (4)

40. Uranium mining or processing. How would you feel about such development in your area?

_____ Favor. (1) _____ Uncertain, probably oppose. (3)

_____ Uncertain, probably favor. (2) _____ Oppose. (4)

41. Other natural resource development or processing (such as coal, oil, gas, etc.) - How do you feel about such development in your area?

_____ Favor. (1) _____ Uncertain, probably oppose. (3)

_____ Uncertain, probably favor. (2) _____ Oppose. (4)

The remaining items are statements regarding public issues, with which some people agree and others disagree. Please give us your own opinion about these items, that is, whether you agree or disagree with the items as they stand. (Check one box for each item.)

	Strongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Uncertain (3)	Disagree (4)	Strongly Disagree (5)
42. Sometimes I feel all alone in the world.					
43. I worry about the future facing today's children.					
44. I don't get invited out by friends as often as I'd really like.					
45. The end goal often justifies the means of reaching it.					
46. Most people today seldom feel lonely.					
47. Sometimes I have the feeling that other people are using me.					
48. People's ideas change so much that I wonder if we'll ever have anything to depend on.					
49. Real friends are as easy as ever to find.					
50. It is frightening to be responsible for the development of a little child.					

	Strongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Uncertain (3)	Disagree (4)	Strongly Disagree(5)
51. Everything is relative, and there just aren't any definite rules to live by.					
52. One can always find friends if he/she shows himself/ herself to be friendly.					
53. I often wonder what the meaning of life really is.					
54. There is little or nothing I can do towards preventing a major war.					
55. The world in which we live is basically a friendly place.					
56. There are so many decisions that have to be made today that sometimes I could just "blow up."					
57. The only thing one can be sure of today is that he/she can be sure of nothing.					
58. There are few dependable ties between people any more.					
59. There is little chance for promotion on the job unless a person gets a break.					
60. With so many religions around, one doesn't really know which to believe.					
61. We're so regulated by rules or laws today that there's not much room for choice even in personal matters.					
62. We are just so many small parts in the machinery of life.					
63. People are just naturally friendly and helpful.					
64. The future looks very dismal.					
65. I don't get to visit friends as often as I'd really like.					
66. People like me will not have much of a chance to do what we want to do in life.					

	Strongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Uncertain (3)	Disagree (4)	Strongly Disagree(5)
67. Every time I try to get ahead, something or somebody stops me.					
68. Good luck is more important than hard work for success.					
69. I can do well if I work hard.					
70. My community's "concerned adults" are <u>not</u> doing enough to keep young people from leaving the community.					
71. I feel that I need to move from my community in order to fulfill my ambitions.					
72. I need a sense of adventure in my life.					

73. Which of the following best describes the type of education you are now receiving?

_____ Academic (general). (1)

_____ Academic (college prep). (2)

_____ Academic (vocational). (3)

_____ Other. (Please describe _____ (4)

_____ Don't know. (5)

74. After you complete your education, in which of the following areas would you <u>really like</u> to live? (Please check just one--the one most really liked.)

_____ The same area where I now live. (1)

_____ Some rural area (farm, ranch or small community) in South Dakota, but <u>not</u> where I presently live. (2)

_____ Some city (more than 2,500 people) in South Dakota, but <u>not</u> where I presently live. (3)

_____ Some place outside of South Dakota. (4)

_____ Undecided. (5)

75. Considering employment opportunities and other circumstances, where do you <u>really expect</u> to live after completing your education? (Please check just one--the one most expected.)

_____ The same area where I now live. (1)

_____ Some rural area (farm, ranch or small community) in South Dakota, but <u>not</u> where I presently live. (2)

_____ Some city (more than 2,500 people) in South Dakota, but <u>not</u> where I presently live. (3)

_____ Some place outside of South Dakota. (4)

_____ Undecided. (5)