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# Occupational and Educational Plans of Male High School Seniors

*A Study Conducted in Missouri Country,  
Town, and Small City Locations, 1964*

CECIL L. GREGORY AND HERBERT F. LIONBERGER



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## INTRODUCTION

Youth is a time of decisions. Occupational and educational choices are among the most important. The choice of an immediate occupation often limits personal growth and occupational opportunities. The deferment of gainful employment in favor of further education generally results in an extension of personal capacities and attendant opportunities for life experiences. In like manner, the kind of curriculum a student chooses for himself may enhance certain opportunities and limit others. Thus by a progressive series of decisions and action concerning occupational and other personal alternatives, opportunities may be either greatly expanded on the one hand or highly limited on the other.

Few decisions affect life so profoundly as the specific occupation one chooses. Occupation sets the pattern for one's associates and influences social status, place of residence, and social mobility. An occupation may be a means of self-expression and personality fulfillment or only a means of providing the necessities and some of the luxuries of life. Inevitably, it is an important determinant of one's self-esteem and that accorded to him by others.

Educational and occupational choices are so closely intertwined that it is unrealistic to consider one without the other. All who are capable of learning must stay in school until eight grades are completed or a certain age is attained—so society decrees. Yet, few would actually recommend this small an amount of schooling.

There are many reasons for school attendance beyond grade school level, but occupational considerations tend to predominate in the popular view. Even though this consideration may be initially remote, a student is hardly permitted to forget the occupational implications of high school attendance. Thus, the drop-out in the counselor's office will surely be reminded once more of the occupational consequences he will encounter. He will have another reminder at home if he is from a middle or upper class home. Parents may even act as if

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there is no other course of action but to continue school. Indeed, the occupational consequences of dropping out of school before high school graduation are very well known in adult society if not completely understood and appreciated by youth.

What then are the relevant conditions and circumstances that influence decisions for education beyond high school? This study is concerned with the tentative educational and occupational choices of male high school seniors in open country, villages, and small cities in Missouri. The comparable deliberations of female students is a subject of another research report where conditions, interrelationships, and processes of occupational and college choices are considered. The general objective of this publication is to present the facts and conditions of choice and how they vary among youths living in the open country and in urban areas and in different regions of the state.

Although occupational and educational plans of high school seniors are much studied subjects upon which many reports have been written, the comprehensive nature of this study should provide a more intimate knowledge of conditions as they exist in Missouri. This, in turn, should make some contribution to knowledge about process and conditions of college and occupational choices that characterizes the activity of youth both in and outside the state of Missouri. Specific questions to which this research was directed are:

1. What proportion of male high school seniors in the open country and urban centers (exclusive of the largest urban centers in Missouri) expect to go to college?
2. How does the proportion vary by rural-urban residence and by regions in the state?
3. What are the time and conditions under which these choices evolve?
4. What are the plans or intentions of students who do not expect to go to college or who are undecided about college?
5. To what extent do students follow through on their college plans?
6. What are the tentative occupational plans of the high school seniors and how do they vary by rural-urban residence and by regions in the state?
7. How do college attendance and occupational choices interrelate in the decisions that students make in this regard?
8. Finally, what idealized views do youths expecting and not expecting to go to college have about the occupations that they hope to enter?

This study is somewhat unique in the comprehensive coverage of conditions and antecedents to current occupational and college plans of high school seniors and in the attempt to reconstruct in a limited way the processes by which the anticipated courses of action have emerged. Choice is a central concept in the study, but it is recognized that anticipated courses of action related to further schooling or getting a job at any given time are only the result of a momentary

equilibrium of many current forces and antecedent courses of actions over extended periods of time. These conditions and forces also are often so obscure to the respondent that he is little aware of what they are and how they operate.

It was for this reason that the decisional construct so useful in adoption research in agriculture, which assumes high degrees of insight and rationality, was not used in this study.<sup>1</sup> Also, concern here is with conceptual adoption rather than overt acceptance, in what a student says he is expected to do about college or accepting employment. These decisions are likely to be a product of a progressive elimination of other alternatives which result from a series of prior decisions and courses of action which eventually direct a person to the stated courses of action.

## HOW THE STUDY WAS CONDUCTED

### The Sample

Since this study had its beginning in a larger study of the functioning of the role of agricultural colleges in modern society, the student sample was limited to open country and urban youth living in urban centers of less than 50,000 population.<sup>2</sup> The net effect was to exclude such urban centers as St. Louis, Kansas City, St. Joseph, Springfield, and Joplin but to provide a representative sample of the remainder of the state. To facilitate comparison, the 791 high school seniors from 25 high schools included in the study were selected from large, medium, and small-sized schools in social areas AB, C, D, and E in rough proportion to their incidence in schools of varying size and in the respective regions.<sup>3</sup> The locations of the schools chosen and their social areas are indicated in Figure 1. One large, two medium-sized, and three small schools were selected from each of the social areas except Social Area AB where the number was doubled to accommodate for its larger size.

Social Area AB, the largest of the areas sampled, lies mainly in north Missouri and in the two tiers of counties along the west border of the state south

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<sup>1</sup>Preliminary analysis of problems associated with educational and occupational choices of youth disclosed that the commonly used awareness, interest, evaluation, trial, and adoption model extensively used in agricultural practice acceptance was ill-suited to what appeared to be in many cases a long term process of conditioning or socialization resulting in educational and often occupational decisions. This much used five-stage individual adoption process model originally appeared in print in George M. Beal and Joe M. Bohlen, *The Diffusion Process*, Ames: Iowa Agricultural Extension Service, Special Report 18, (March, 1957).

<sup>2</sup>This study was originally undertaken in conjunction with "A Study of American Colleges of Agriculture" under the direction of Charles E. Kellogg (Director) and David C. Knapp (Associate Director) with offices at 4500 College Avenue, College Park, Maryland. This bulletin is a report on the University of Missouri, Department of Rural Sociology, Research Project 539, "Occupational and College Choice."

<sup>3</sup>For a delineation of these social areas, their characteristics, and location see Cecil L. Gregory, *Rural Social Areas in Missouri*, Columbia, Missouri: Missouri Agricultural Experiment Station, Research Bulletin 665, (April, 1958).

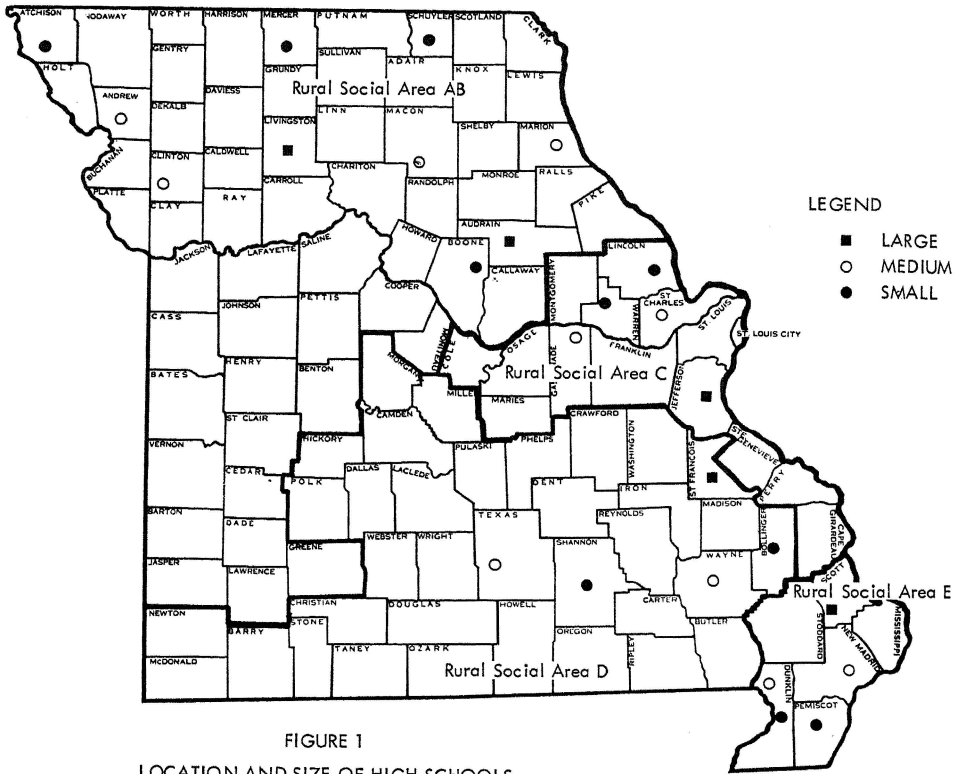


FIGURE 1  
LOCATION AND SIZE OF HIGH SCHOOLS

of the Missouri River. It is characterized by relatively high levels of living, resources for farming above average for the state, and a diversified agriculture in which soybeans, corn, hogs, and beef cattle are the chief agricultural products. Being the most affluent social area of the state, residents should be more capable of supporting college attendance of youth who prefer to attend than elsewhere. Even so, a medium family income of no more than \$3,500 in most of the counties (reported in 1959)<sup>4</sup> is hardly sufficient to enable families to support all of their sons and daughters in college who might wish to attend. (See Figure 2.)

Area C is located in a tier of counties along the Missouri and Mississippi Rivers in the eastern half of the state and is still characterized by ethnic elements of German and French people who colonized the area. Here diversified crops and

<sup>4</sup>For an indication of variations in median family incomes by county in the state, see Rex R. Campbell, *Population and Higher Education in Missouri 1960-1975*, Columbia, Missouri: University of Missouri, (December, 1967), p. 91.

For an original source concerning family incomes in the state of Missouri, see U. S. Bureau of Census, U. S. Census of Population 1960, Vol. I, *Characteristics of the Population, Part 27, Missouri*, Washington, D. C.: Table 86.

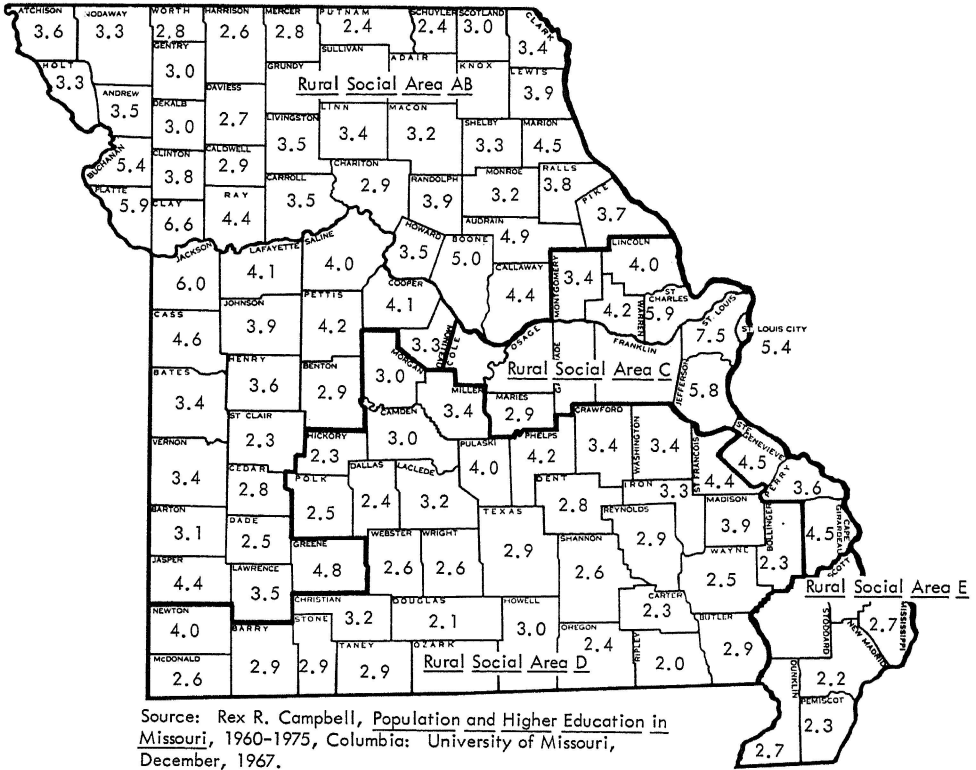


FIGURE 2

MEDIAN FAMILY INCOME (IN THOUSANDS OF DOLLARS)  
BY COUNTIES AND SOCIAL AREAS IN MISSOURI, 1959

livestock farming prevail, and levels of living and family income are second only to rural Social Area AB.

Rural Social Area D, comprising most of the Ozarks, is generally deficient in agricultural resources. Despite supplemental incomes from off-farm employment, common in the area, average family incomes are lowest in the state, being under \$3,000 in 1959 for most of the counties<sup>5</sup>. The area is further characterized by rapid changes in agricultural and other enterprises and the growth of part-time farming. Levels of living are below the average for the state and out-migration of youth, a characteristic of all rural Missouri, is higher in this area than in others.<sup>6</sup>

### The Students Interviewed

Except for sampling in the three largest schools (to avoid over-representation of such schools), interview schedules were obtained for all males in the sen-

<sup>5</sup>U.S. Bureau of the Census, *op. cit.*, Table 86.

<sup>6</sup>Rex R. Campbell and John J. Hartman, *Migration in Missouri 1950-1960*, Columbia, Missouri: Missouri Agricultural Experiment Station, Research Bulletin 887, (June, 1965), p. 6.

ior classes of the high schools. By prior arrangement, the investigators from the Department of Rural Sociology were permitted to administer the questionnaires to the senior classes sitting as a group. Where possible, schedules were edited before leaving the school and arrangements were made for completing omitted sections or corrections. Where this was not possible, a few schedules were returned to local school officials who cooperated in obtaining the needed corrections or additions. This phase of the study was completed between November, 1964, and February, 1965, to reduce likely bias that would result from more specific formulation of plans as the year progressed.

### The Questionnaire

The schedules were formalized, initially, after extended review of previous research on college and occupational choices and after a number of unstructured interviews with school officials and students. This was followed by at least three revisions of the schedule. Separate schedules were prepared for those intending to go to college, those not intending to go, and those undecided. Common elements and questions were duplicated where possible. Deviations were resorted to only to permit questions useful in explaining the decisional diversities of the students related to educational and occupational plans. General questions were designed mainly to obtain cultural, social, and situational information about the life situation of the student choosing either an occupation or college attendance.

### Method of Analysis

Since this study was mainly directed to determining incidence of college attendance plans and occupational views of male high school seniors in the state, the conditions of their choices, and social area and country, town-city differences, attention is focused on size of differences. However, in selected cases of most central concern to the study, tests of statistical significance are presented. In most cases these are differences in proportions and are reported in the tables with specification indicated at the .05 confidence level.<sup>7</sup>

## LOCAL SITUATION

### Place of Residence

Approximately 36 percent of the male students included in the study lived on farms and an additional 15.5 percent in open country non-farm residences. This combination of 51.3 percent constituted the country contingent in this study. The two were combined for reporting purposes because, generally, what could be said for one could be said for the other. For most characteristics pertinent to college and occupational choices they appeared to be very much alike and at the same time different from students living in towns and small cities.

<sup>7</sup>Herbert M. Blalock, Jr., *Social Statistics*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960, pp. 176-78.

Just over 18 percent of these male students lived in towns of less than 2500 people and 28.6 percent in places of 2500 and over. These, plus the less than 2 percent with size of town unknown constituted the residential category subsequently referred to as town-city, comprising just under 49 percent of the sample. The highest concentration of country youth was in Social Area D (66.1 percent) and lowest in Area E (42.5 percent). The distribution in the other two areas was very similar to the sample average (See Table 1). In all areas the farm population exceeded the open country non-farm by a substantial margin except in Area C where the conditions was slightly reversed. This may reflect the urban influence of St. Louis City.

TABLE 1--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS  
BY RESIDENCE AND SOCIAL AREA

Place of Residence	Total (Percent) (N=791)	Rural Social Area			
		AB (Percent) (N=299)	C (Percent) (N=151)	D (Percent) (N=162)	E (Percent) (N=179)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Country	(51.3)	(49.1)	(50.4)	(66.1)	(42.5)
Farm	35.8	39.1	23.9	41.4	35.2
Non-Farm	15.5	10.0	26.5	24.7	7.3
Town-City	(48.7)	(50.9)	(49.6)	(33.9)	(57.5)
Town less than 2500 population	18.5	23.1	15.2	16.0	15.6
City 2500 popula- tion and over	28.6	26.1	29.8	17.9	41.3
Size Town Un- known	1.6	1.7	4.6	0.0	0.6

### School Facilities and Curricular Offerings

The high school enrollment (grades 9-12) for the schools included in the study ranged from approximately 125 to 800 students. Table 2 lists the kinds of courses and selected services available to the high school seniors enrolled in the 25 high schools. Outside of what may be regarded as general college preparatory courses, those most frequently available were in vocational agriculture. The services of guidance counselors were available to about three-fourths of the students. Vocational courses other than vocational agriculture were not numerous.

With the major exception of vocational agriculture, the curricula and services enumerated were generally more available to town-city than to the country youth. (See Table 2.) Thus, occupational, industrial education curricula, which were actually available to relatively few students, were even less available to those living in the open country.

TABLE 2--RELATIVE AVAILABILITY OF SELECTED SERVICES AND HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULAR OFFERING TO YOUTH BY RESIDENCE

Course Offerings and Services	Total (n=791)	Percent to Which Available	
		Country (n=406)	Town-City (n=385)
Guidance Counselor	75.7	70.9	80.8
Vocational Agriculture	58.5	59.9	57.1
Vocational Industrial	12.8	7.1	18.7
Cooperative Occupational Education	7.7	7.6	7.8
Distributive Education	7.6	1.2	14.3
Basic Business Practice	11.6	12.6	10.6
Technical Training	7.6	0.5	14.3

The vast majority of both the country and town-city seniors were enrolled in general college preparatory subjects, the percentages being 73.4 and 81.3, respectively. (See Table 3.) This was followed by a much smaller percentage of country youth enrolled in vocational agriculture (10.6 percent) and 8.6 in vocational industrial studies. Taken in the aggregate, a smaller percentage of the town-city than the country youth were enrolled in vocational courses, 12.3 and 22.7 percent, respectively. As will subsequently be seen, a considerable additional number had been enrolled in one or more of the vocational courses at some time in their high school academic career.

TABLE 3--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS BY RESIDENCE AND HIGH SCHOOL COURSE ENROLLMENT

Courses	Total (791)	Percent of	Percent of
		Country Youths Enrolled (406)	Town-City Youths Enrolled (385)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
General or College Preparatory (only)	77.3	73.4	81.3
Vocational Agriculture	6.8	10.6	2.9
Vocational Industrial	6.7	8.6	4.7
Cooperative Occupational Education	1.5	1.0	2.1
Commercial	2.5	2.5	2.6
Other or Unknown	5.2	3.9	6.4



## EDUCATIONAL PLANS OF STUDENTS EXPECTING TO GO TO COLLEGE

### Plans for College Attendance

The senior year in high school is a time of many important decisions for youth. Students are squarely faced with educational, occupational, and military service decisions and perhaps with moving away from home and getting married. This part of the report is concerned with college plans and related matters. This will be followed by a consideration of other educational plans.

In regard to college, the decision may be in favor of attendance or against attendance or the student still may not have decided. Collectively, 42.6 percent of the male high school seniors were planning to go to college, 32.0 percent from the open country and 53.8 from the town-city category. (See Table 4.) Variations in plans by area were considerable. More than the 43 percent of the total sample average from both social area AB and C expected to go to college but the proportion from Ozark Area D was much lower. The situation was distinctly different, however, for the town-city boys. The proportion planning to attend college was actually slightly higher in Area D than in any other area but differences were not statistically significant. Certainly, it could be said that college

TABLE 4--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS BY  
RESIDENCE, SOCIAL AREA AND BY COLLEGE PLANS

Residence And College Plans	Total	Social Area			
		AB (Percent)	C (Percent)	D (Percent)	E (Percent)
<u>Country</u>	(N=406)	(N=147)	(N=76)	(N=107)	(N=76)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Going	32.0	36.1 <sup>a</sup>	36.9 <sup>b</sup>	23.3 <sup>c</sup>	31.6 <sup>d</sup>
Undecided	17.0	23.8 <sup>e</sup>	10.5 <sup>f</sup>	13.1 <sup>g</sup>	15.8 <sup>h</sup>
Not Going	51.0	40.1	52.6	63.6	52.6
<u>Town-City</u>	(N=385)	(N=152)	(N=75)	(N=55)	(N=103)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Going	53.8	55.9 <sup>i</sup>	52.0 <sup>i</sup>	56.4 <sup>k</sup>	50.4 <sup>l</sup>
Undecided	16.9	22.4 <sup>m</sup>	9.3 <sup>n</sup>	21.8 <sup>o</sup>	11.7 <sup>p</sup>
Not Going	29.3	21.7	38.7	21.8	37.9

Statistically significant differences at or above the .05 confidence level are reported in this and subsequent tables. Those for which tests were run are designated by letter. Only statistically significant differences are specified in table footnotes which in this case include the following: ac, ef, eg, mn, and mp.

plans for town-city youth in the Ozarks were as high as those from any other area. Thus, distinct differentials by area in the proportion planning to go to college operated only for the country males; not for those residing in towns and small cities.

Although college attendance plans of the high school girls will be the subject of another publication, a comparison of college attendance plans of the male and female high school seniors is given here in Figure 3.

The converse of planning to go to college is a tentative decision not to go. Again, for country males the decision not to attend was highest in Social Area D and distinctly lowest in Social Area AB where on the other hand indecision was the highest by a distinct margin (23.8 percent). This could be the result of comparatively greater opportunity in farming, which some students were still considering.<sup>8</sup>

Among town-city youth plans not to attend college were lowest in social areas AB and D, with indecision in these two areas being highest by a considerable margin. Taken in the aggregate, indecision about college attendance was universally low in Social Area C and also comparatively so for both country and town-city males in Social Area E. Likewise, all but 13 percent of country boys in area D also had "made up" their minds.

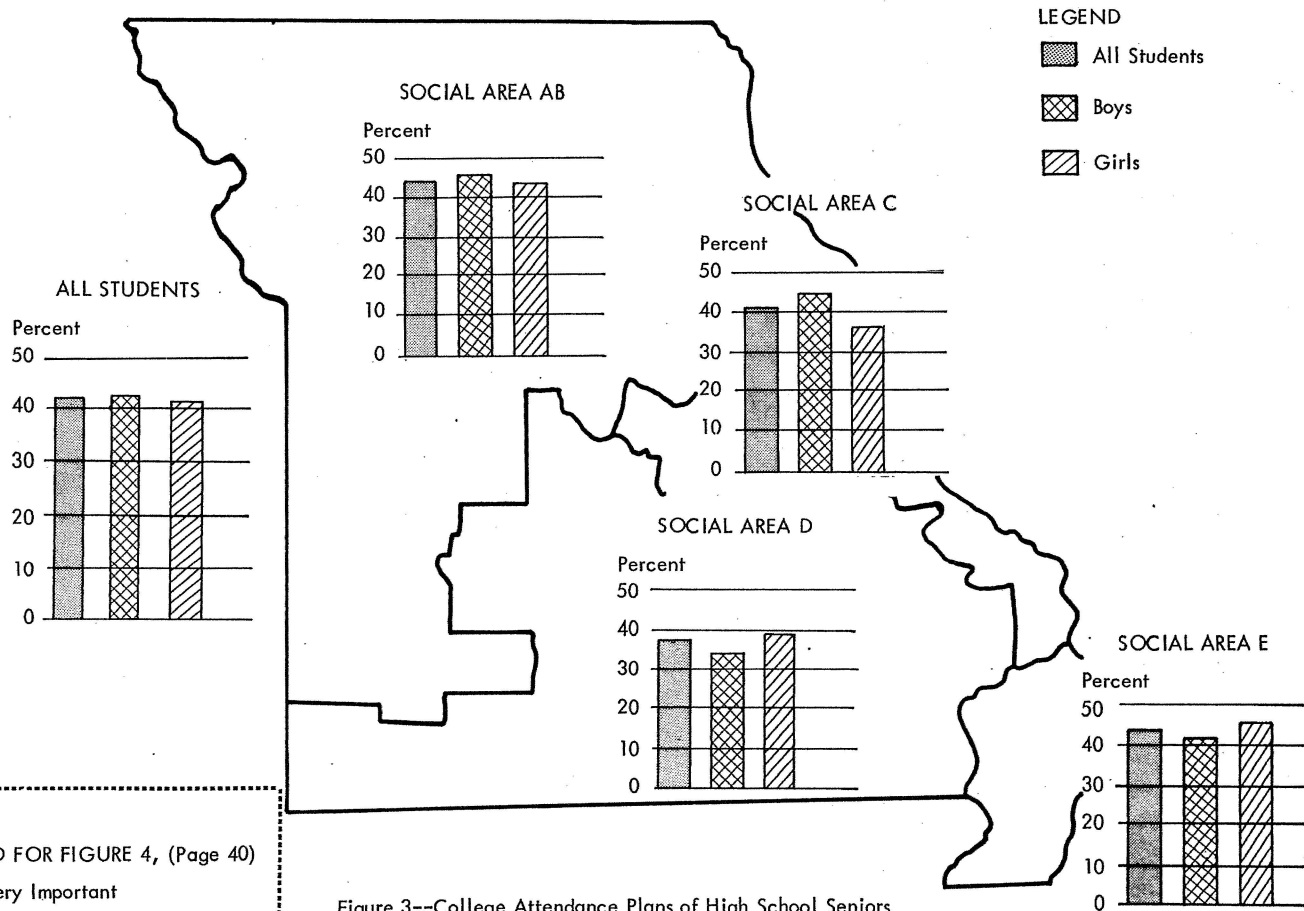
*Time of Decision.* For most college bound students plans to enter college were not last minute decisions nor were they apparently the product of recent rational deliberations that students were able to verbalize and evaluate. Present college attendance plans usually seemed to be the product of a long sequence of conditioning and action directing them to present plans quite well formulated by a great majority of the students by the middle of the senior year.

Both the students choosing the college and those undecided about college were asked when they first gave serious consideration to going to college. Table 5 shows that for many of the committed, serious thought about the matter extended back to grade school or as long as they could remember. One-third of the town-city group gave this response. Few delayed first serious consideration to the senior year. For country youth, serious consideration did not begin as early as for the town-city group. Less than one-fourth of the former had given the matter serious consideration as early as grade school. Those still undecided were the lat-

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<sup>8</sup>A general treatment of the general depressing effect of intentions to farm on plans to attend college may be found in William H. Sewell and Archibald O. Haller, "Educational and Occupational Perspectives of Farm and Rural Youth" in Lee G. Burchinal (Ed.) *Rural Youth in Crisis: Facts, Myths, and Social Change*, Washington, D. C., U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1963, pp. 149-168, and Lee G. Burchinal with Archibald O. Haller and Marvin J. Taves, *Career Choices of Rural Youth in A Changing Society*, North Central Regional Publication No. 142, St. Paul, Minnesota, Minnesota Agricultural Experiment Station, (November, 1962).

More specific reference to this depressing influence may be found in Archibald O. Haller, "The Influence of Planning to Enter Farming on Plans to Attend College," *Rural Sociology*, XXII, (June, 1957), pp. 137-141, and in James D. Cowhig and Charles B. Nam, "Educational Status, College Plans and Occupational Status of Farm and Non Farm Youths: October, 1959," *Farm Population*, Washington, D. C.: Bureau of the Census, (August 1961).



LEGEND FOR FIGURE 4, (Page 40)

- Very Important (Solid black square)
- Important (Cross-hatched square)

Figure 3--College Attendance Plans of High School Seniors

TABLE 5--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF COLLEGE BOUND AND UNDECIDED MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS BY RESIDENCE AND TIME OF FIRST SERIOUS CONSIDERATION OF COLLEGE ATTENDANCE

Time of First Consideration of College Attendance	College Choosers		Undecided About College	
	Country (Percent) (N=130)	Town-City (Percent) (N=207)	Country (Percent) (N=69)	Town-City (Percent) (N=65)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Senior Year				
High School	18.5 <sup>a</sup>	14.0 <sup>c</sup>	31.9 <sup>b</sup>	27.7 <sup>d</sup>
Junior Year				
High School	27.7	22.2	30.4	35.4
Sophomore Year				
High School	15.4	16.0	13.0	16.9
Freshman Year				
High School	14.6	13.5	5.8	7.7
While in Grade				
School	13.1	11.6	2.9	4.6
Far Back as Can Remember	10.0	21.3	2.9	1.5
Other or Unknown	0.7	1.4	13.1	6.2

Of those tested ab and cd were statistically significant.

est of all to seriously consider college attendance. This kind of delay was only slightly greater for the country than for the town-city undecided.

For all groups the junior year brought more youth face to face with the problem of deciding on college attendance for the first time than any other year. This was true of all groups except the *undecided* living in the country; they were inclined to delay serious consideration often to the beginning of the senior year. This, of course, suggests the need for counseling students to begin their deliberations about college attendance earlier. This need was particularly evident among the country boys who not only seemed to have more trouble making up their minds but were slower in giving first serious thought to the matter. This delay may have been a partial product of comparatively less support and encouragement likely to have been accorded to country youth in their home communities. The school could be very useful in equalizing support to attend college.

*Reasons for Going to College.* Numerous stock reasons for going to college would be expected in a society where a college education is highly prized and where so many socially approved and even extolled reasons for attending college abound. Most students have heard these reasons many times and have adopted some in varying degrees as their own. In the absence of multiple questioning, over-simplified reasons for college attendance could be obtained. Reasons for go-

ing to college are likely to be multiple, very complex, and may not be easy to verbalize. Answers to direct "why questions" are therefore likely to elicit one or more of the stock answers which they have heard so many times and which are ego-enhancing when verbalized. A comprehensive study of reasons for entering various colleges in the University of Missouri is reported in another publication.<sup>9</sup>

In this study the approach was to ask students to rate a list of 21 reasons for going to college on the basis of relative importance that they attached to each in their own deliberations about college attendance. Choices were accorded the following ratings: (1) little importance or not a consideration, (2) some importance, and (3) very important, with an additional request to name the first and second most important reasons of those enumerated. The list of reasons was obtained from other studies concerned with college attendance, from statements obtained from students themselves, and from influences to which students are known to be subjected in their deliberations about college attendance. These items and their relative ratings by students are presented in Appendix Table 1.

The predominating occupational emphasis is clearly demonstrated in the importance by both town and country youth to the reasons, "job opportunities that result from a degree" and "the vocation chosen requires a college degree." Also, it is likely that the very high rating placed on "importance of a college education" also included a high evaluation on the occupational component. This overriding occupational emphasis is congruent with findings from the more extensive study of reasons why freshmen entered various colleges in the University of Missouri.<sup>10</sup> It is very likely that the occupational view is strongly emphasized by parents and by the school system itself and by society, e.g., the frequent reminder that each additional year of schooling computed on a life-time basis is worth so many extra dollars. Admonitions from parents who may be inclined to insist that there is little need for going to college unless one knows what one is "going to do" may give an occupational orientation to college.

Reasons rating second in importance but nevertheless either very important or of some importance for the vast majority were suggestive of a desire for general intellectual improvement: "gain knowledge and understanding" and "wanted to further my education." Both were somewhat more appealing to town-city than country youth. Perhaps third in terms of general categories of reasons was simply the expected personal satisfaction to be derived from a college education.

The only other content consideration that was rated as very important by as many as 20 percent of the boys was "opportunity for an interesting and enjoy-

<sup>9</sup>Herbert F. Lionberger, C. L. Gregory and H. C. Chang, *Educational Choices and Expectations of Male Students Entering a Midwestern University*, Columbia, Missouri: Missouri Agricultural Experiment Station, Research Bulletin 923, (March, 1967).

<sup>10</sup>Herbert F. Lionberger, C. L. Gregory and H. C. Chang, *op. cit.*, pp. 44-46.

assume adult responsibilities, extended periods of time for learning and preparation between childhood and adult are set aside. Thus, in cultures in Western civilization, of which the United States is typical, free public education is provided through grade school and is highly subsidized and recommended through high school and well into college. Youth are encouraged and admonished to take advantage of these opportunities. At the same time they are partially or wholly relieved from financial responsibilities for own support either by public or family means. At the same time they are not granted adult prerogatives for many things. In fact, this period called "adolescence" is one of ill-defined statuses and roles some-times referred to as a status vacuum.<sup>11</sup>

Adjustment to interlude requirements may take many forms, including escape from the adult world of reality and use of mechanisms to avert being overwhelmed with thoughts of adult responsibility or preparation for the future adult roles. Closely related to this kind of adjustment is what may be described as escape, like getting away from the restrictive influences of family or community or to avoid military services as a primary objective. Thus, it may be expected that, at least for some, college attendance after high school may be motivated by such escape considerations and that prospective students may view college as a place to rest easy and enjoy oneself for a time before facing the stern realities of adult life.

Yet, Appendix Table I reveals that almost no one expressed tolerance for interlude or escape reasons, such as "wasn't ready to get a job," "wasn't anything better to do," or "postponing military obligations." These are less socially approved reasons, and on the basis of verbal statements at least, orientation to college as an escape or interlude kind of adjustment is ruled out.

The reasons for attending college considered to this point are essentially those which individuals internalize as important and relevant to benefits obtained from attending college. Another class phenomena are mainly external to the values and beliefs held about the worth of a college education. In general, these are relationships with others. Thus, parents and friends may encourage or discourage college attendance by approval or disapproval or by material means, like paying part of the expenses. Other influences derive from the school system itself. In this category teachers, counselors, and high school principals often have a bearing on decisions. However, when the internalized reasons (ideas, beliefs, and values) are compared with the external (personal referent) influences, the former are verbalized by students as being by far the most important.

To be sure a highly effective and recommended professional role of teachers, counselors, and, perhaps, also of parents is to help youth make their own deci-

<sup>11</sup>Reference to the status vacuum of youth in the cultures of Western civilization and its consequences have been noted and discussed in numerous places including Kingsley Davis, "Adolescence and the Social Structure," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Vol. 236, (November, 1944), pp. 8-16, and Peter Blois, *The Adolescent Personality*, New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1941, p. 254.

sions. This includes inculcating values and beliefs in youth which give them guiding principles in making their own "right" decisions, in contrast to intercession, which they may regard in a negative way as a direct attempt to influence them. All of the extrinsic factors were rated low in influence generally, except for the perceived willingness of parents to help support them in college. This was regarded as very important by almost one-third of the country youth and 22.2 percent of the town-city youth. It was of some importance to the vast majority of both groups. Parents' willingness to help financially was no doubt accompanied with strong psychological support and some urging to attend college.

*Sources of Support.* Support of plans to enter college can take many forms. It can be essentially covert or overt in nature or more specifically psychological or financial. Financial help for these students was likely limited mainly to assistance from parents or from institutional sources. They probably would not be aware of scholarships by the middle of the senior year. Thus, perceived financial support at this point was likely confined chiefly to what the high school seniors thought they would be able to obtain from their parents, a matter already indicated as of some or much concern for the vast majority of high school seniors. It was labeled as a very important consideration by approximately one-fourth of them.

Support in the nature of approval or disapproval or of college attendance plans, and reinforcement of tentative decisions can come from a variety of significant groups. These include parents, brothers and sisters, friends, teachers, and guidance counselors. Since people are relatively free to select their own close friends, those who see things much as themselves and who are inclined to support most of their major decisions, including a decision to go or not to go to college, are likely to be chosen. Parents, teachers, and guidance counselors, who cannot be freely self-selected, are also operative in educational and occupational decisions; thus perceived support from them is also important.

Accordingly, the seniors expecting to go to college were asked whether they viewed each of these persons as encouraging or discouraging them to attend college or whether they were essentially perceived as neutral in this regard. Results of these responses are in Table 6. Parents of all referents were seen as most frequently supportive of the college choice, a tendency somewhat more frequently seen among the town-city boys than the country boys. Actually, few students expecting to go to college were doing so in the face of discouragement from any of the referents considered.

Support from teachers was mentioned second most frequently by the country youth. For the town-city youth, the second place position was held by the students' friends. On the whole, the country youth perceived less support from both friends and institutionalized sources (teachers and guidance counselors) generally than did the town-city youth. In fact, it appears that the general climate of support for a college attendance was less salient for country youth than for those living in the urban areas and that support at the highest level of institutionalization, the role of the guidance counselor, was least supportive of all for students

TABLE 6--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS PLANNING TO ATTEND COLLEGE  
BY RESIDENCE AND PERCEIVED SUPPORT FROM DESIGNATED SOURCES

Source of Potential Support	Country				Town-City			
	Encouraged (%)	Discouraged (%)	Neither (%)	Unknown (%)	Encouraged (%)	Discouraged (%)	Neither (%)	Unknown (%)
Parents	93.1	2.3	3.1	1.5	95.2	0.0	4.3	0.5
Friends	75.4	3.8	16.2	4.6	81.2	1.0	15.0	2.8
Brothers & Sisters	49.2	1.5	32.3	17.0	56.5	0.5	24.2	18.8
Teachers	80.8	0.8	11.5	6.9	78.7	0.0	16.9	4.4
Guidance Counselors	49.2	0.8	16.9	33.1	63.8	0.0	15.0	21.2



living in the country. This suggests some default in services to country youth in an area where support is already weak; perhaps in acquiescence to a climate of opinion deficient in support of college attendance for country boys. In terms of societal needs, the reverse may be the case.

*Importance Parents Attached to a College Education.* Again, reliance was placed on the student's own perception of what the parents thought. Each student was accordingly asked to rate the importance that his mother and father attached to a college education for youth. Choices were:

Most important thing one can do.

Important but not necessary.

Not very important.

Better get a job.

Don't know what they think.

The responses are recorded in Table 7 for the fathers and in Table 8 for the mothers. Consistently, responses for both parents of country and town-city youth

TABLE 7--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS BY RESIDENCE, COLLEGE CHOICE AND IMPORTANCE FATHERS ATTACHED TO A COLLEGE EDUCATION

Residence Importance Father Places on a College Education	Total (Percent)	College Plans		
		Going (Percent)	Undecided (Percent)	Not Going (Percent)
<u>Country</u>	(N=406)	(N=130)	(N=69)	(N=207)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Most Important Thing				
One Can Do	51.5	78.5 <sup>a</sup>	50.7 <sup>b</sup>	34.8 <sup>c</sup>
Important But Not Really				
Necessary	24.9	11.5	24.6	33.3
Not Very Important	1.7	0.8	0.0	2.9
Better Get a Job	3.9	0.0	2.9	6.8
Don't Know	11.3	3.0	16.0	15.0
No Father or Information				
Unknown	6.7	6.2	5.8	7.2
<u>Town-City</u>	(N=385)	(N=207)	(N=65)	(N=113)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Most Important Thing				
One Can Do	64.4	81.7 <sup>d</sup>	49.2 <sup>e</sup>	41.6 <sup>f</sup>
Important But Not Really				
Necessary	16.4	10.6	24.6	22.1
Not Very Important	2.0	0.5	6.2	2.7
Better Get a Job	1.0	0.0	1.5	2.7
Don't Know	8.1	2.9	12.3	15.0
No Father or Information				
Unknown	8.1	4.3	6.2	15.9

Of those tested the ab, ac, de and df differences were statistically significant..

TABLE 8--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS BY RESIDENCE, COLLEGE CHOICE, AND IMPORTANCE MOTHER ATTACHED TO A COLLEGE EDUCATION

Residence Importance Mother Placed on a College Education	Total (Percent)	College Plans		
		Going (Percent)	Undecided (Percent)	Not Going (Percent)
<u>Country</u>	(N=406)	(N=130)	(N=69)	(N=207)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Most Important Thing				
One Can Do	56.1	86.1 <sup>a</sup>	62.3 <sup>b</sup>	35.3 <sup>c</sup>
Important But Not Really				
Necessary	22.7	7.7	17.4	33.8
Not Very Important	1.0	0.0	0.0	1.9
Better Get a Job	2.2	0.0	4.4	2.9
Don't Know	10.6	3.1	13.0	14.5
No Mother or Information				
Unknown	7.4	3.1	2.9	11.6
<u>Town-City</u>	(N=385)	(N=207)	(N=65)	(N=113)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Most Important Thing				
One Can Do	70.9	87.4 <sup>d</sup>	63.1 <sup>e</sup>	45.1 <sup>f</sup>
Important But Not Really				
Necessary	14.6	8.2	20.0	23.0
Not Very Important	0.5	0.0	1.5	0.9
Better Get a Job	1.8	1.0	0.0	4.4
Don't Know	7.3	1.5	12.3	15.1
No Mother or Information				
Unknown	4.9	1.9	3.1	11.5

Of those tested the ab, ac, de and df differences were statistically significant.

concentrated on the "most important thing one can do" response. The highly favorable response was attributed somewhat less frequently to parents of country youth than for those of town youth. This was likely one reason why parents of country boys were less frequently seen by their children as supporters of their plans for college attendance.

As might be expected, uncertainty about parents' views on the importance of a college education was more prevalent among students not planning to go to college than among the undecided or those intending to go. There was also a slight inclination for relatively more town-city than open country seniors to express an intention not to attend college in the face of strong favorable opinions of parents toward a college education. This suggests the possibility of urban influences tending to negate college ambitions of parents for children in the urban areas.

One acid test of parents' commitment to a college education for their sons was willingness to pay all or most of the cost. Again, more town-city than country parents were attributed this level of commitment by their sons (41.3 and 27.9, respectively). This tendency was also apparent when considering just those who had sons who intended to go to college. Although the proportion of students not intending to attend college who regarded their parents not willing and able to help with college expenses was distinctly lower, the most frequent response by far was that no serious thought had been given to college attendance. Thus, there was little reason to consider the matter. Actually, the proportion of parents reported as not able or willing to pay any college expenses was higher for parents of students expecting to go to college than for parents of those not expecting to go (Table 9). It should be noted, however, that reported inability or un-

TABLE 9--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS BY RESIDENCE, COLLEGE PLANS, AND PERCEIVED PARENTAL FINANCIAL SUPPORT FOR COLLEGE EDUCATION

Perceived Parental Financial Support --Residence	College Plans			
	Total (Percent)	Going (Percent)	Undecided (Percent)	Not Going (Percent)
<u>Country</u>	(N=406)	(N=130)	(N=69)	(N=207)
Pay all	5.7	8.5	4.3	4.3
Pay most	22.2	40.8 <sup>a</sup>	29.0 <sup>b</sup>	8.2 <sup>c</sup>
Pay some	24.1	40.0	39.1	9.2
Pay none, ability unknown	.5	.8	1.4	0.0
Pay none, but able to	3.0	5.4	5.8	.5
Pay none, not able	5.7	3.8	15.9	3.4
Other	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Don't know	.5	0.0	2.9	0.0
Information unknown	.7	.7	1.6	.5
No serious thought given to college	37.6	0.0	0.0	73.9
<u>Small Town</u>	(N=385)	(N=207)	(N=65)	(N=113)
Pay all	9.1	11.6	6.2	6.2
Pay most	32.2	45.4 <sup>d</sup>	32.3 <sup>e</sup>	8.0 <sup>f</sup>
Pay some	30.4	35.3	43.1	14.2
Pay none, ability unknown	1.3	1.4	3.1	0.0
Pay none, but ability to	2.9	2.4	6.2	1.8
Pay none, not able	3.1	2.4	7.7	1.8
Other	.5	.5	1.4	0.0
Don't know	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Information unknown	1.0	1.0	0.0	2.0
No serious thought given to college	19.5	0.0	0.0	66.0

Of those tested the ac and df differences were statistically significant.

willingness to pay any college expenses was highest among the college undecided, particularly the country youth. This suggested that lack of finances might have been a factor in their indecision.

### Facilitating Mechanisms

There are many influences and activities operating over extended periods of time which tend to facilitate an eventual decision to enter college. Most of these influences are external to the individual, although not always completely beyond his control. To some extent these influences tend to narrow the range over which a decision may extend. The influences include:

1. Involvement of parents in educationally related decisions and activities conducive to making college attendance possible and attractive.
2. Pursuit of a course of study that is conducive to college entrance.
3. Making grades that will increase the prospect of success in college.
4. Participating in extra-curricular activities in high school which create an attachment to and sustaining interest in the school environment.
5. Personal contacts with colleges of possible attendance.
6. Information sources about colleges and a college education.

These will be discussed in turn in the sections which follow.

*Parental Involvement.* The emphasis placed on parents as the most important personal referent in arriving at a college attendance decision involves more than psychological and promised financial support. Parents become involved in many activities conducive to a college attendance decision. They may encourage their sons to take the "right" courses, make good grades, graduate from high school, get home early on school nights, plan experiences which will favorably dispose them to college attendance, and create situations which minimize opportunities for alternative courses of action. This section is concerned with the comparative frequency with which parents engage in two general types of restrictive activities: (1) those relating quite directly to meeting academic requirements here referred to as *academic instrumental* and (2) those of a more generalized nature referred to as *parental family emancipation*.

In general, those classed as *academic instrumental* relate to study habits, high school course offerings, and control of activities that might interfere with school achievement on the one hand and encouragement of activities that might directly enhance the quality of such work on the other. These activities and the proportions of students reporting them are listed in Table 10. The parental emancipation was more a concern with activities indicative of the nature and degree to which parents allowed their sons to assume adult responsibility. Such indicators included relative freedom accorded to earn and spend money, access to an automobile, and limitations on selected personal uses of time. Student responses to the specific items are reported in Tables 11 and 12.

TABLE 10--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS BY RESIDENCE, COLLEGE PLANS AND PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN COLLEGE-ORIENTED ACTIVITIES

Residence and College-Oriented Activities	Total (Percent)	College Plans		
		Going (Percent)	Undecided (Percent)	Not Going (Percent)
<u>Country</u>	(N=406)	(N=130)	(N=69)	(N=207)
Insist on study most school nights	25.4	26.9	30.4	22.7
Set certain time to be in on school nights	45.3	47.7	49.3	42.5
Urged making of good grades in high school	89.9	92.3	89.9	88.4
Withhold privileges because of poor grades	24.6	28.5	30.4	20.3
Offered rewards for good grades in high school	17.0	20.0	24.6	12.6
Urged college preparatory courses in high school	37.9	73.8 <sup>a</sup>	43.5 <sup>b</sup>	13.5 <sup>c</sup>
Talked to high school counselor about courses to take	7.4	13.8	2.9	4.8
Offered rewards for com- pleting high school	8.1	6.9	7.2	9.7
<u>Town-City</u>	(N=385)	(N=207)	(N=65)	(N=113)
Insist on study most school nights	24.9	22.7	40.0	20.4
Set certain time to be in on school nights	60.3	64.3	69.2	47.8
Urged making good grades in high school	91.2	90.8	95.4	89.4
Withhold privileges because of poor grades	32.8	29.0	38.5	36.3
Offer rewards for good grades in high school	16.1	18.8	12.3	13.3
Urged college preparatory courses in high school	52.2	70.5 <sup>d</sup>	60.0 <sup>e</sup>	14.2 <sup>f</sup>
Talked to high school coun- selor about courses to take	16.6	24.2	8.7	6.2
Offer rewards for completing high school	7.0	2.9	6.2	15.0

Of those tested the ab, ac and df differences were statistically significant.

TABLE 11--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS BY RESIDENCE, COLLEGE PLANS AND SOURCE OF SPENDING MONEY

Residence Source of Spending Money	Total (Percent)	College Plans		
		Going (Percent)	Undecided (Percent)	Not Going (Percent)
<u>Country</u>	(N=406)	(N=130)	(N=69)	(N=207)
Total	100.0*	100.0*	100.0*	100.0*
Asked Parents when Needed	34.0	30.0 <sup>a</sup>	31.9 <sup>b</sup>	37.2 <sup>c</sup>
Regular Allowance	16.7	16.9	15.9	16.9
Own Earnings	76.8	85.4	72.5	72.9
Other Income	6.4	7.7	11.6	3.9
<u>Town-City</u>	(N=385)	(N=207)	(N=65)	(N=113)
Total	100.0*	100.0*	100.0*	100.0*
Asked Parents when Needed	33.5	33.3 <sup>d</sup>	27.7 <sup>e</sup>	37.2 <sup>f</sup>
Regular Allowance	24.2	29.5	21.5	15.9
Own Earnings	74.0	72.9	80.0	72.6
Other Income	5.2	4.3	0.0	2.7

\*Percentages do not add up to 100% because of overlapping cases. Statistically significant differences were not found in any of the tests made.

The *academic instrumental* activity most frequently reported by the two residential categories (over 90%) was parental encouragement to make good grades in high school. Surprisingly, this was reported by almost as many students not going or undecided about going to college as those planning to attend. Thus, the pressure by parents to make good grades was nearly universal in the student groups.

The parental activity that most differentiated those planning to go to college from those undecided and those not planning to attend was urging of students to take college preparatory courses (See Table 10). Doubtless, this was associated with the simultaneous operation of other influences by parents that impelled students in the direction of college attendance. These differences were large for both residential groups.

Another finding worthy of note was a tendency for the town-city youth who were undecided about college to be more frequently subjected to parental restrictions than was the case for the country boys. From Table 10 it will be noted that this held for insistence of study on school nights, setting a time to be in on school nights, withholding of privileges as reprisals for poor grades, and urging enrollment in college preparatory courses. On the other hand, country parents

were more likely to offer rewards for good grades than those living in the town-city environment.

The practice of parents talking to the guidance counselor about courses for their sons to take was not common but was twice as prevalent for town-city as country boys and was much more frequent for students expecting to go to college than among others.

The most frequently reported restrictive activity was insistence on being home at a set time on school nights. This was much more frequently reported by sons of town-city parents than sons of those living in the country. In the case of the former this kind of activity was distinctly associated with plans to go to college or at least being still undecided about the matter. This association, although present, was not marked for the country youth either planning to go or not planning to go to college. Somewhat paradoxically, *insistance on study on most school nights* was most frequently reported by the students who were undecided about college. The same tendency was noted for withholding privileges because of poor grades. Thus, it seems that parental pressure was being exerted on the undecided at least as strongly and perhaps more so than on students with college plans. This, of course, may be a reflection of a greater need for such pressure on them. Even so the differences were small.

The practice of offering rewards for high school graduation or for good grades was even less prevalent but apparently was used with greater success by parents of country youth than parents of the town-city youth where the percentage of such rewards offered to those not planning to go to college was highest. In general, it would appear that students living in the open country were somewhat more responsive to the positive incentives and urging of their parents than the town-city residential group.

**Parental Emancipation.** Although the time and way of achieving parental emancipation is not clearly defined or understood, it is a requirement for youth in the cultures of Western civilizations.<sup>12</sup> Children must learn to "stand on their own two feet." Derogatory connotations and censure are directed to those who do not achieve acceptable degrees of autonomy and independence of thought and action. Parent-child relations can remain heavily loaded with highly authoritarian "can't" and "don't do" restrictions or they can take a more positive turn of relinquishment of authority in a manner and speed compatible with the assumption of adult responsibility. It may well be that retention of some restrictive control with attendant pressures to continue schooling on the one hand and the granting of authority in a manner conducive to creating a mature realism on the other may serve to facilitate plans to attend college.

In addition to the activities quite highly instrumental to completion of high school and eventual college attendance previously discussed, students were also

<sup>12</sup>For a treatment and discussion of parental emancipation as a developmental need of youth in the cultural of Western civilization, see Robert J. Havighurst, *Developmental Tasks and Education*, (2nd Edition), New York David McKay Company, Inc., (July, 1952), pp. 42-47.

asked about two other types of restrictions or privileges accorded by their parents: (1) method of obtaining spending money and (2) freedom to circulate socially and thus escape the direct social controls of family and community. The privileges and restrictions related to the former and the percentages applying to country and town-city youth are enumerated in Table 11. Those related to the latter are reported in Table 12.

TABLE 12--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS BY RESIDENCE, COLLEGE PLANS AND SELECTED FREEDOMS ACCORDED AND CONTROLS BY PARENTS

Residence—Controls Developed and Freedoms Accorded By Parents	Totals (Percent)	College Plans		
		Going (Percent)	Undecided (Percent)	Not Going (Percent)
<u>Country</u>	(N=406)	(N=130)	(N=69)	(N=207)
Total	100.0*	100.0*	100.0*	100.0*
Have Own Car	40.9	32.3 <sup>a</sup>	46.4 <sup>b</sup>	44.4 <sup>c</sup>
Can Use Family Car on Most Occasions	76.4	86.9	68.1	72.5
Have Own Bank Account	56.4	76.9	56.5	43.5
Purchase Part of Own Clothes	89.9	86.9	97.1	89.4
Want to Know Where Son Will be When Out	85.2	90.8	89.9	80.2
Limit Time on Telephone	17.0	16.9	26.1	14.0
Limit Time Watching Television	17.0	13.8	29.0	15.0
<u>Town—City</u>	(N=385)	(N=207)	(N=65)	(N=113)
Total	100.0*	100.0*	100.0*	100.0*
Have Own Car	36.4	27.5 <sup>d</sup>	46.2 <sup>e</sup>	46.9 <sup>f</sup>
Can Use Family Car on Most Occasions	72.5	83.1	64.6	57.5
Have Own Bank Account	61.8	71.5	60.0	45.1
Purchase Part of Own Clothes	89.1	85.5	93.8	92.9
Want to Know Where Son Will be When Out	89.1	92.8	89.2	82.3
Limit Time on Telephone	15.8	18.4	18.7	9.7
Limit Time Watching Television	15.3	15.5	15.4	15.0

\*Percentages do not add up to 100% because of overlapping cases. Of those tested the ab, ac, de and df differences were statistically significant.



Of all freedoms accorded, freedom to earn your own money and freedom to spend it would rate very high as an indication of parental emancipation. Three common ways that youth obtain spending money are to (1) ask parents for money as it is needed, (2) have a regular allowance from the parents, or (3) have access to own earnings or any combination thereof.

In Table 11, generally speaking, sources of obtaining spending money do not vary greatly by decision regarding college attendance of the students within either residential category. However, somewhat more of the country youth going to college than those not going or undecided had their own earnings while somewhat more of the town-city youth not going to college were required to ask parents for money when needed. In view of the economically disadvantaged position of parents of students not going to college in comparison to others, it could be that restrictions on amount of money available through asking was more keenly felt in this group than in others. This suggests the possibility of a feeling of need to get a job as soon as possible to alleviate a likely embarrassing situation. Yet, it must be observed that variations in percentages of students having to ask for money by status of college choice was very small.

Having one's own bank account, an unmistakable mark of adult distinction, was most common among those intending to go to college and least common among those not planning to attend. Having a bank account implies freedom to spend money but with responsibility.

Inferences of the accordance of such freedom also may be drawn from such privileges as buying some of your own clothing or owning an automobile. Differences in regard to the first in relation to college choice were inconclusive. A high proportion of all youth were accorded the clothes buying privilege irrespective of college plans (See Table 12). One deviation was that town-city youth planning to go to college were less frequently accorded this privilege than others. This group of students were also somewhat more restricted in their ownership of an automobile. Otherwise town-city youth planning to go to college did not appear to be subjected to appreciably more restrictions than country youth who planned to go to college.

Perhaps, use of an automobile is the best single indicator of freedom to circulate or to escape the informal social controls of home and community. Owning one's own car would seem to accord more freedom than using the family car where permission to use it may not be so readily obtained. By this criterion some students had much more freedom than others. Decidedly fewer boys who planned to go to college than those who were undecided or not going had their own automobiles. Although those expecting to go to college were frequently given access to the family car upon request, the possibility of greater parental restriction remained as a likely possibility. Thus, more restrictions on freedom to circulate and escape local social controls were imposed on students expecting to go to college than on others. The decision not to go to college may at times have been a decision not to give up their automobile since in most colleges freshmen are not allowed automobiles.

Some inclination to greater restrictive controls on students expecting to go to college, particularly among the town-city group, was previously noted in activities conducive to making good grades in high school.

Not much difference among choice groups was noted in the control imposed by parents on such things as time spent on the telephone or watching television.

*Curriculum Followed.* The two activities directly instrumental to college attendance most stressed by parents were taking college preparatory courses and making good grades in high school. Logic almost dictates that both would be very important in grooming youth for college and a decision to attend. In other words, the person who prepares for what he intends to do will be better able to perform in the new assignment. Findings agreed with this reasoning: Students who planned to go to college were more often enrolled in the college preparatory curriculum than those not expecting to go. Those not going were more often enrolled in the vocational subjects.

However, a suggestion of casual relationship between curricula followed and college intentions should not be left unquestioned. It is likely that many of the students who enrolled in the vocational subjects originally did so with no intention of going to college. Others surely were diverted to these vocational subjects because they were not doing well in the college preparatory or general courses and perhaps a few took vocational subjects because that is where their parents most wanted them to be. All of these possible influences are quite aside from the curriculum of enrollment, and at times independent of college plans.

Aside from direct curricular influences of the college preparatory course, enrollment in it brings students oriented to college together into association with like minds. This tends to reinforce decisions to attend college or to encourage such decisions in the first place. The manner in which interpersonal associations and friendships are formed and operate in high school certainly has an important influence on what students consider important and the goals that they strive to attain.<sup>13</sup>

The great stress of parents for making good grades is also a very realistic facilitating mechanism to college entrance. A certain level of academic achievement is required for entrance into college as well as subsequent success in college. For the persistently low achiever a point of no return is eventually reached insofar as a decision to enter college is concerned. Surely, students know all of these things and take them into consideration in their tentative decisions to enter college.

The relationship between academic standing and college attendance plans is expressed through the students' own estimate of his standing in the senior class.

<sup>13</sup>The importance of peer groups (teen-age cliques) as decisional referents and determinants of behavior has been the subject of a number of studies including James S. Coleman, *The Adolescent Society*, New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1961; A. B. Hollingshead, *Elmtown's Youth*, New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1949 and Muzaffer Sherif and Carolyn W. Sherif, "The Adolescent in His Group in Its Setting," in Muzaffer Sherif and Carolyn W. Sherif (Eds.) *Problems of Youth: Transition to Adulthood in a Changing World*, Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1965, pp. 295-329.

TABLE 13--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS BY RESIDENCE, COLLEGE CHOICE AND KIND OF HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM FOLLOWED

Residence College Choice	Total (Percent)	Kind of High School Curriculum Followed						
		College Prep. (Percent)	General (Percent)	Vocational Agriculture (Percent)	Vocational Industrial (Percent)	COE (Percent)	Commercial (Percent)	Other or Unknown (Percent)
<u>Country</u>	(N=406)	(N=54)	(N=244)	(N=43)	(N=34)	(N=4)	(N=9)	(N=17)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Going	32.0	83.3	30.8	7.0	5.9	0.0	22.2	17.6
Undecided	17.0	9.3	18.0	20.9	14.7	25.0	11.1	17.6
Not Going	51.0	7.4	51.2	72.1	79.4	75.0	66.7	64.8
<u>Town-City</u>	(N=385)	(N=92)	(N=221)	(N=11)	(N=19)	(N=8)	(N=11)	(N=24)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Going	53.8	94.6	47.5	27.3	10.5	0.0	27.3	29.2
Undecided	16.9	5.4	19.9	18.2	15.8	0.0	54.5	25.0
Not Going	29.3	0.0	32.6	54.5	73.7	100.0	18.2	45.8

TABLE 14--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS BY RESIDENCE, COLLEGE PLANS AND OWN ESTIMATE OF STANDING IN SENIORS CLASS

Residence-- College Choice	Total (Percent)	Own Estimate of Academic Class Standing			
		Lower (Percent)	Middle (Percent)	Upper (Percent)	Unknown (Percent)
<u>Country</u>	(N=406)	(N=81)	(N=208)	(N=111)	(N=6)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Going	32.0	4.9	26.0	64.9 <sup>a</sup>	0.0
Undecided	17.0	17.3	17.8	15.3 <sup>b</sup>	16.7
Not Going	51.0	77.8	56.2	19.8 <sup>c</sup>	83.3
<u>Town-City</u>	(N=385)	(N=45)	(N=197)	(N=134)	(N=9)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Going	53.7	13.3	43.1	84.3 <sup>d</sup>	33.3
Undecided	16.9	11.1	24.4	7.5 <sup>e</sup>	22.2
Not Going	29.4	75.6	32.5	8.2 <sup>f</sup>	44.5

Of those tested the ab, ac, de, and df differences were statistically significant.

Table 14 depicts the relationship found on this basis. The expected and almost necessarily high positive association of academic achievement with plans to enter college is apparent. In general, students who estimated their academic achievement to be in the lower one-third of their class were not expecting to go to college. The percent that were going was considerably higher for the town-city than the country youth. This lack of college attendance plans for the lower third is not unrealistic because prospects for their success in college are not good. On the other hand, about one-fifth of the country youth who regarded themselves as in the upper one-third of their class academically and 8.2 percent of the town-city youth were not intending to go to college. The loss of students with the potential for college attendance was considerable, especially from the country boys. This suggests a need for further investigation into why these boys are not going and what steps can be taken to encourage them to go.

*Participation in Extra-Curricular Activities.* The question dealt with here is whether or not participation in extra-curricular activities, academic or otherwise, serves as a facilitating influence on college attendance. An hypothesis of positive association is based on the premise that effective and successful integration into student life and school activities creates a favorable disposition to the school environment which is likely to act as a predisposing influence to continued education after high school. This might be expected in spite of the view that participation in too many extra-curricular activities may be somewhat detrimental to academic achievement and thus to college attendance. The premise suggests that amount of participation up to a certain level might be more important than kind

of participation. However, for analytical purposes a distinction was made between academic activities and varsity sports. The academic activities included subject matter clubs, debating, yearbook staff, chorus, and such academically related organizations as Future Farmers of America and Future Teachers of America. Varsity sports included football, baseball, basketball, track, and pep squad. The association of college attendance plans with participation in varsity sports is reported in Table 15 and association with academic extra-curricular activities, in Table 16.

All but about 10 percent of both country and town-city youth participated in some kind of extra-curricular activity. The proportion of country youth not participating was considerably larger than for the town-city youth, in both sports and academic activities, and particularly for the academically related activities. Thus, either the inclination was more a reality for country boys than for those living in the urban areas. The proportion participating in just one of each of the extra-curricular activities was almost identical for the two residential groups. The big differences were in activities in excess of this number, particularly in the three or more category in which many more town-city boys were recorded.

Turning to the central question of the relationship of participation in extra-curricular activities to plans to attend college, note that the relationship is distinctively positive for both athletic and academic types of activities. The propor-

TABLE 15--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS BY RESIDENCE, COLLEGE PLANS AND PARTICIPATION IN VARSITY SPORTS

Residence-- Number of Varsity Sports	Total (Percent)	College Plans		
		Going (Percent)	Undecided (Percent)	Not Going (Percent)
<u>Country</u>	(N=406)	(N=130)	(N=69)	(N=207)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
None	48.5 <sup>a</sup>	40.8 <sup>c</sup>	49.3 <sup>d</sup>	53.1 <sup>e</sup>
One	23.2	23.1	29.0	21.3
Two	18.7	22.3	17.4	17.0
Three or more	6.9	12.3	4.3	4.3
Unknown	2.7	1.5	0.0	4.3
<u>Town-City</u>	(N=385)	(N=207)	(N=65)	(N=113)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
None	39.0 <sup>b</sup>	29.5 <sup>f</sup>	43.1 <sup>g</sup>	54.0 <sup>h</sup>
One	23.1	26.1	13.8	23.0
Two	19.2	22.2	24.6	10.6
Three or more	17.4	21.7	18.5	8.9
Unknown	1.3	0.5	0.0	3.5

Of those tested the ab, ce, fg and fh differences were statistically significant.

TABLE 16--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS BY RESIDENCE, COLLEGE PLANS AND PARTICIPATION IN ACADEMIC EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Residence Number of Academic Activities	Total (Percent)	College Plans		
		Going (Percent)	Undecided (Percent)	Not Going (Percent)
<u>Country</u>	(N=406)	(N=130)	(N=69)	(N=207)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
None	45.1 <sup>a</sup>	19.2 <sup>c</sup>	47.8 <sup>d</sup>	60.4 <sup>e</sup>
One	28.1	29.2	29.0	27.0
Two	12.6	21.6	18.8	4.8
Three or more	11.8	29.2	4.4	3.4
Unknown	2.4	0.8	0.0	4.4
<u>Town-City</u>	(N=385)	(N=207)	(N=65)	(N=113)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
None	29.1 <sup>b</sup>	13.0 <sup>f</sup>	44.6 <sup>g</sup>	49.6 <sup>h</sup>
One	26.5	20.8	32.3	33.6
Two	17.7	23.2	12.3	10.6
Three or more	25.4	42.5	10.8	2.7
Unknown	1.3	0.5	0.0	3.5

Of those tested the ab, cd, ce, fg and fh differences were statistically significant.

tion of high level participation for boys with college plans in both types of activities is appreciably greater than for those undecided or those not expecting to attend college. The difference is much greater for academically related activities than for the varsity sports. This was particularly evident at the three or more academic or varsity extra-curricular activities level for the city boys. Conversely, the proportion not participating in either type of extra-curricular activity was much higher for those not going to college and the difference more marked for academic than varsity sports.

*Information Sources Used.* Many questions have to be answered before one can be sure if he can or whether he wants to go to college. Students generally got information about college from several sources. College publications (brochures, pamphlets, and catalogs) were the most universally used, the most valued, and also the sources from which most information was obtained by both country and town-city boys (see Table 17). Other sources used by 50 percent or more of both groups were friends, guidance counselors, and visits to the college.

The second ranking source of information was guidance counselors for country boys and *College Night* for the town-city youth. Except for the slight exception of guidance counselors and teachers, country and town-city seniors got in-

TABLE 17--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS EXPECTING TO ATTEND COLLEGE BY RESIDENCE AND RECEIPT OF MOST VALUABLE INFORMATION ABOUT COLLEGE FROM DESIGNATED SOURCES

Sources of College Information	Country (N=130)			Town-City (N=207)		
	Information (Percent)	Most Information (Percent)	Most Valued (Percent)	Information (Percent)	Most Information (Percent)	Most Valued (Percent)
<u>Institutional (Internal)</u>						
Guidance counselors	56.9 <sup>a</sup>	15.4 <sup>b</sup>	16.2 <sup>c</sup>	60.4 <sup>d</sup>	8.7 <sup>e</sup>	10.6 <sup>f</sup>
Teachers	40.8	2.3	3.8	35.3	1.9	4.3
High school principals	17.7	2.3	1.5	15.9	0.5	2.4
Friends	62.3	6.9	7.7	62.8	8.2	8.2
<u>Institutional (Linking)</u>						
College Night	40.8	9.2	6.9	45.4	17.4	14.0
Visit to College	56.9	10.0	14.6	58.0	7.7	15.5
Parents	33.8	3.1	3.1	37.7	1.9	2.4
College Represent- ative	46.9	3.8	6.2	50.2	8.2	9.2
College Publications	87.7	33.8	20.8	90.3	34.3	24.6
Personal letters from college	23.1	3.1	4.6	26.6	2.4	2.4
<u>Peers &amp; Parents</u>						
All others	10.8	3.1	3.1	9.2	4.8	3.4

Statistically significant differences between comparable country and town-city categories were not found in any of the tests made.

formation from about the same sources and in about the same relative proportion. The slightly smaller proportion of country youth who got information from guidance counselors was, no doubt, partly due to the lower availability of such personnel to youth living in the country. Despite the lower proportion getting information from this source, they rated guidance counselors second both in terms of amount of information obtained and the value placed upon them as sources. This was in contrast to the town-city youth who rated this source much lower as *most used* and *most valued*, this despite the greater availability of guidance counselors to the town-city youth. This suggests that country seniors place more reliance on guidance counselors for college information and value what they obtain from them more highly than the town-city youth, the guidance counselors are seen as being less frequently supportive of their college attendance plans.

Taken in the aggregate, the most often mentioned and most valued source for both residential groups was college publications, followed by guidance counselors for the country youth and *College Night* by the town-city boys.

*College representatives* was also mentioned with considerable frequency by both. Thus, it would seem that the most valued sources of information were those most closely associated with the high school attendance or the college being considered. Second hand information, although very frequently obtained from friends, is not mentioned frequently as a *source of most information* or as a *most valued source*.

### Choice of a Specific College

After a decision to attend college comes the selection of which one to attend. About 72 percent of the 130 boys and 67.1 percent of the 207 town-city youth expecting to go to college had made this decision by the time of the interview (mid-senior year). Thus, all but about 31 percent of those planning to go to college at that time had decided on a particular college to attend.

Table 18 shows that country boys were generally slower to arrive at a decision about college attendance but were faster in selecting a particular college to attend (See Table 18). More than 40 percent of them had chosen a college before the senior year, which was about 10 percent more than for the town-city boys. This speed of decision may have been due to the high proportion of farm boys expecting to enter the College of Agriculture, an area in which choice of a college is relatively limited.

About one-fourth of those who had chosen a college had elected to attend the University of Missouri at Columbia with only slightly more country boys than town-city boys having made this choice (See Table 19). An additional 6.9 percent chose branches of the University of Missouri outside of Columbia while almost half had decided on other within-state colleges. About 23 percent of the town-city seniors were expecting to attend out-of-state colleges, a figure almost twice that for the country boys.

Table 20 reveals that most of the students had prior contacts with the school chosen, with friends at the college being mentioned as information sources most



TABLE 18--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS WHO HAVE DECIDED TO ENTER A SPECIFIC COLLEGE BY RESIDENCE AND TIME OF DECISION TO ENTER THE SPECIFIC COLLEGE

Time of Decision to Enter	Total (Percent) (N=233)	Country (Percent) (N=94)	Town-City (Percent) (N=139)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Senior year high school	63.9	58.5 <sup>a</sup>	67.6 <sup>b</sup>
Junior year high school	24.5	28.7	21.6
Sophomore year high school	5.2	9.6	2.2
Freshman year high school	4.3	3.2	5.0
While still in grade school	2.1	0.0	3.6

Statistically significant differences were not found in the test made.

TABLE 19--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS WHO HAVE DECIDED TO ENTER A SPECIFIC COLLEGE BY RESIDENCE AND BY COLLEGE CHOSEN

Specific College Choice	Total (Percent) (N=233)	Country (Percent) (N=94)	Town-City (Percent) (N=139)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Missouri U at Columbia	24.9	25.5	24.5
Outlying Missouri U Branch	6.9	8.5	5.7
Other In State	49.8	53.2	47.5
Out State	18.4	12.8	22.3

frequently by both of the residential groups. Also, a majority of both had made trips to the college of their choice and had talked to personnel there before making a final decision.

Such contacts surely rate high as facilitating mechanisms for enrolling in a particular college; this would be true despite the fact that trips to the college may be motivated by an interest in attending the college.

*Reasons for the Choices Made.* A variety of reasons for choice of a specific college were obtained from intensive interviews with high school and college

TABLE 20--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS WHO HAVE DECIDED TO ENTER A SPECIFIC COLLEGE BY RESIDENCE AND PRIOR CONTACTS WITH THE COLLEGE CHOSEN

Nature of Contacts with College Selected	Total (Percent) (N=233)	Country (Percent) (N= 94)	Town-City (Percent) (N=139)
Trips to the College	56.2	52.1	59.0
Friends at the College	65.2	63.8	66.9
Brothers & sisters at the college	17.6	17.0	18.0
Talked to College personnel	54.9	52.1	56.1
Personal letters	42.5	39.4	43.9
Other	20.2	26.6	25.2

students in this and previous studies of a related nature. Twenty-five reasons were obtained. Each student was asked to rate each of the reasons as being of (1) little importance or not a consideration, (2) some importance, or (3) very important in his own choice of a college.

These reasons were divided into three general categories: (1) those mainly involving personal influence, (2) those representing characteristics of the college, and (3) reasons involving the students' own situation in relation to the college selected. The proportion of students assigning various degrees of importance to these reasons in relation to self are reported in Table 21. Although a variety of items in each of these general categories were regarded as very important by some of the students, characteristics of the college seemingly in relation to own situation were mentioned much more frequently as very important than the personal influence items. There was a general tendency for country youth to rate more reasons very important than the town-city youth.

Of the personal influences, contacts with college personnel were most frequently mentioned as a very important consideration by both country and town-city youth but by only 23.4 and 14.4 percent, respectively (See Table 21). Much less frequently mentioned but next in order were *parents desire* and *influence of close friends*.

Of the characteristics related to the college, the most mentioned factor by a considerable margin was "the best place" to get what they wanted. After this, a number of considerations emerged as important or very important. For both groups, size, distance from home, and cost were important or very important considerations and academic reputation of the college ranked high for town-city youth. Country youth appeared to be more concerned about size and distance from home than the town-city residents.

TABLE 21--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS WHO HAVE DECIDED TO ENTER A SPECIFIC COLLEGE BY RESIDENCE AND BY IMPORTANCE OF DESIGNATED REASONS FOR THE CHOICE

Reason	Country (N-337)			Town-City (N-320)		
	Little or Not A consideration	Some (Percent)	Very (Percent)	Little or Not A consideration	Some (Percent)	Very (Percent)
<u>Personal</u>						
Parents desire	46.8	44.7	8.5	49.6	43.2	7.2
Influence of close friends	55.3	38.3	7.4	60.4	32.4	6.5
Parent went there	92.6	4.3	0.0	92.1	2.9	2.9
Brother or sister went there	83.0	11.7	4.3	84.2	11.5	2.2
Influence of guidance counselor	50.0	17.0	5.3	61.2	17.3	2.2
Influence of H. S. Principal	83.0	11.7	5.3	86.3	12.2	0.0
Personal contact with people at the college	34.0	41.5	23.4	38.8	46.0	14.4
Influence of the teacher	70.2	25.5	4.3	77.7	20.1	0.7
<u>College Characteristics</u>						
Cost	34.0	47.9	19.1	30.9	43.2	25.2
Size	39.4	41.5	22.3	43.2	43.9	11.5
Social Activities	72.3	22.3	5.3	71.2	26.6	2.2
Prestige	43.6	45.7	11.7	43.9	45.3	10.1
Prefer the State University	47.9	38.3	13.8	51.8	37.4	9.4
Prefer a private college	84.0	9.6	3.2	87.8	7.9	2.9
Admission requirements	46.8	40.4	12.8	48.2	43.9	7.2
Athletic program	75.5	22.3	3.2	73.4	20.1	5.8
Academic reputation	40.4	45.7	13.8	33.1	46.0	19.4
ROTC program	76.6	18.1	5.3	78.4	14.4	6.5
Co-educational	71.3	23.4	4.3	67.6	28.1	2.9
Religious affiliation	88.3	6.4	4.3	86.3	7.2	5.0

Table 21 (Cont.)

	Country (N-337)			Town-City (N-320)		
	Little or Not A consideration	Some (Percent)	Very (Percent)	Little or Not A consideration	Some (Percent)	Very (Percent)
<u>Situational</u>						
Best place to get what I want	11.7	45.7	43.6	12.2	48.9	38.8
Distance from home	45.7	34.0	21.3	42.4	41.7	15.1
Trips to College	43.6	38.3	18.1	42.4	41.0	15.1
Scholarship-received or anticipated	63.8	27.7	8.5	51.8	25.2	21.6
Literature from the college	27.7	58.5	12.8	42.4	47.5	9.4

Some light on the meaning of size of school as a consideration may be inferred from the fact that more students selecting colleges in the state other than the University of Missouri - Columbia (mostly smaller schools) were more concerned about size than those choosing the Columbia location (See Figure 4). The concern with size of school apparently was over it being too large. Size of school was less of a consideration for those choosing out-of-state schools than for those choosing colleges within the state.

Note in Figure 4 that students selecting in-state schools other than the University of Missouri - Columbia were most concerned about distance from home. A quite well-known fact recently demonstrated in Missouri by Seymour<sup>14</sup> is that students have very different images of schools and they tend to choose them for reasons congruent with these images.

More very important ratings were assigned to "best place to get what I wanted" by those intending to enter the University of Missouri - Columbia and out-of-state schools. Also, a higher proportion of those expecting to come to the University of Missouri - Columbia expressed preference for a state university.. More were apparently impressed with visits to the Columbia campus than were those who made visits elsewhere. Academic reputation, prestige of the college, and scholarships were also emphasized by more students intending to come to the Columbia location than those electing to go elsewhere.

For other colleges in the state, cost and distance were high priority considerations. Thus, it would seem that students concerned with cost and distance elected to attend schools other than at the Columbia campus.

## EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL PLANS OF STUDENTS NOT INTENDING TO GO TO COLLEGE

Possible alternatives open to those not planning to go to college included vocational education other than college, gainful employment, or military service. Less than 15 percent of the country boys and perhaps one-fourth of the town-city youth were seriously considering entry into the military services after high school. About 38 percent had decided upon a particular kind of job, the percentage being somewhat higher for the town-city than for the country youth. Although the job alternative was probably strongly in the minds of the remaining 43 percent, no decision on a specific job was mentioned by them. The ultimate decision for many of them probably rested largely on job alternatives available when they sought employment. None of them were married and less than 10 percent planned marriage within one year after graduation.

### Consideration of Educational Alternatives

Even though the job alternative was the one most mentioned as the after-high-school course of action, more than half of the country boys and two-thirds

<sup>14</sup>Warren R. Seymour, *Students and Counselors Perceptions of College Environments*, (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri, August, 1965).

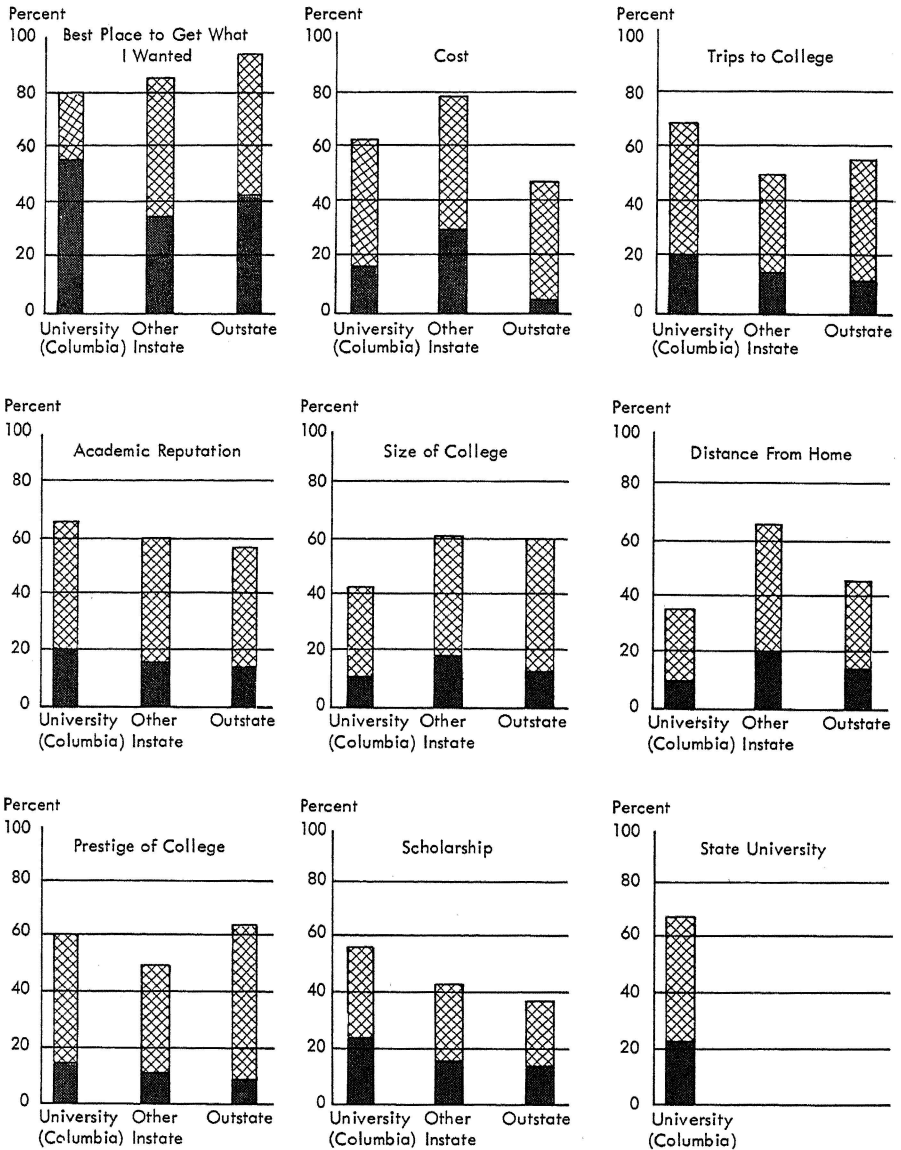


Figure 4: Relative Importance of Reasons for Selecting Designated Colleges

able life.” This could have been interpreted as being at school or as a deferred benefit resulting from a college education, with the interesting and enjoyable life coming after college.

Another set of reasons includes interlude-escape types of responses. As societies become more complex and more preparation for adulthood is needed to

TABLE 22--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS NOT EXPECTING TO ATTEND COLLEGE BY RESIDENCE AND CONSIDERATION OF ALTERNATIVE EDUCATIONAL PLANS

Alternate Educational Plan Considered	Total (Percent) (n=320)	Residence	
		Country (Percent) (n=207)	Town-City (Percent) (n=113)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
None	43.8	49.4 <sup>a</sup>	33.6 <sup>b</sup>
Technical school	14.7	10.1	23.0
Trade school	30.0	30.4	29.2
Business school	5.6	4.3	8.0
Other	5.9	5.8	6.2

The ab difference was statistically significant.

of the town-city boys had considered some kind of prior occupational education before employment, mostly in trade and technical schools (See Table 22). Consideration of this alternative in most cases had the perceived support of their parents. Only two were regarded as unfavorable to their son's plans and a few were regarded as neutral (See Table 23). About 15 percent of the youth who rejected college were aware of an opinion of the guidance counselor on their occupational plans. Most of these regarded the counselors' opinions as being favorable. Alternative educational plans apparently were much less frequently discussed with guidance counselors than college attendance.

TABLE 23--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS NOT EXPECTING TO ATTEND COLLEGE BY RESIDENCE, CONSIDERATION OF VOCATIONAL SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AND FAVORABILITY OF PARENTS TO THESE PLANS

Consideration of Non-College Vocational Training and Favorability of Parents	Total (Percent) (n=320)	Residence	
		Country (Percent) (n=207)	Town-City (Percent) (n=113)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total considering such an alternative	(54.0)	(52.7)	(56.7)
Parents strongly favorable	20.9	18.4	25.7
Parents favorable	19.4	19.8	18.6
Parents neutral	13.1	14.0	11.5
Parents against	.6	.5	.9
Question not relevant or reaction unknown	46.0	47.3	43.3

Whether by rationalization or deliberate design, an even 70 percent of the students who did not intend to go to college expressed no desire to go, even though a number of them apparently had considered this alternative at some time in the past. This lack of desire to go to college was somewhat more prevalent for country than town-city youth. About one-fourth of the youth who did not plan to go to college seemed to have never seriously considered college. On the other hand, almost 40 percent did not definitely dismiss the idea until their senior year in high school. It appears that many of the youth who were not planning to attend college had the intellectual ability for successful college work if not the will. About 10 percent estimated that they were in the lower third of their senior class academically; 30.6 percent thought they were in the upper third. All of the latter and part of the middle 56.3 percent should have been good prospects as far as ability was concerned. The "major reason" mentioned most frequently by them for rejecting college was cost (about 21 percent).

Although cost was a most important reason for rejection of college, other important reasons were operative. Many of the group that considered cost most important for rejection also expressed fear of ability to do college work. This fear, more prevalent among town-city than country boys, seemed to be well founded for many since less than 5 percent of this group rated themselves in the upper third of the senior class academically. Country boys who gave cost as a major reason for not going to college also frequently expressed a strong desire to earn their own money. This view, given by 11.6 percent of the college rejectors as the most important reason for rejection of college, does not necessarily indicate that lack of money was a deterrent. It, like desire to get married, listed by another 5.9 percent as the major deterrent, suggests an emphasis on immediate benefits and gratifications over deferred benefits. Although only about one-fourth as many college rejectors as college choosers regarded their parents as willing to pay all or some of their college expenses, this surely was a partial function of the relative lack of interest in attending college. Almost three-fourths of the rejectors responded to the financial help question by checking the "no serious thought given to college" alternative. Less than 4 percent saw their parents as unwilling to provide any support. Also, the majority saw their parents as favorable to college attendance and as viewing college attendance as important, although the percentage was less than for the students who chose to go to college.

A change in focus from "most important reason" for rejection to "very important reasons" throws further light on the non-economic considerations. It will be seen from Table 24 that high school grades, concern with ability to do college work, and fear of failure were all frequently mentioned as very important. Thus a fear complex is suggested. Further investigation revealed that the apprehensive view was held mainly by those who had good reason to be fearful; namely, those predominately in the lower third and perhaps lower middle third academically in their class.



TABLE 24--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS NOT EXPECTING TO ATTEND COLLEGE BY RESIDENCE AND REASONS CONSIDERED VERY IMPORTANT IN DECIDING AGAINST COLLEGE ATTENDANCE

Reasons Considered For Deciding Against College	Percent Considering Reason Very Important	
	Country (n=207)	Town-City (n=113)
Job opportunities resulting from a degree	8.7	12.4
Advice - teacher or high school principal	6.3	1.8
Advice - guidance counselor	7.2	4.0
Cost	34.8	31.0
Leaving home	5.8	3.5
Getting started in college	8.2	8.0
Leaving girl friend	15.0	8.8
My grades in high school	27.5	27.4
Had to help support family	12.1	7.1
Distance from home	6.3	3.5
My ability to do college work	26.6	27.4
Fear that I can't make it	23.2	19.5
The feelings of my parents	8.7	7.1
The feelings of my friends	3.4	1.8
The time it takes to get through	17.4	14.2
Whether it is really worth it	17.4 <sup>a</sup>	12.4 <sup>b</sup>
Desire to be independent	20.8	16.8
Want to start earning my own money	39.6 <sup>c</sup>	28.3 <sup>d</sup>
Want to get married	11.1	4.4
What to study	13.0	3.5
Other	1.9	1.8

Of those tested the cd difference was statistically significant.

### Occupational Plans

Even though gainful employment after high school appeared to be the ultimate goal of the majority of the students not planning to go to college, only about 38 percent had actually decided on a particular kind of job (See Table 25). Most of types chosen were in the skilled trades. The only other sizable group choosing a particular occupation was 10.1 percent of the country boys who chose to farm. About 39 percent of the non-college youth had been offered a job after high-school; a proportion not much different from those who had actually selected a job. From Tables 25 and 26 it will be seen that the proportion who had chosen farming as an occupation was quite similar to the proportion who had been offered this opportunity. On the other hand, there apparently were few takers for the unskilled job offers. Many of those who expected to enter the skilled trades still had to obtain a job offer. This could hardly have been other-

TABLE 25--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS NOT PLANNING TO ATTEND COLLEGE BY RESIDENCE, DECISION AND STATUS OF JOB

Status of Job Decision	Total (Percent) (n=320)	Residence	
		Country (Percent) (n=207)	Town-City (Percent) (n=113)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Have not decided	61.9	63.3	59.3
Have decided	(38.1)	(36.7)	(40.7)
Farming	7.2	10.1	1.8
Skilled trades	18.1	15.5	23.0
Essentially unskilled	5.0	5.3	4.4
Other	6.2	5.4	8.0
Decision Unknown	1.6	.4	3.5

TABLE 26--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS NOT PLANNING TO ATTEND COLLEGE BY RESIDENCE, OFFER OF JOB AFTER HIGH SCHOOL AND KIND OF JOB

Job Offer After High School and Kind of Job	Total (Percent) (n=320)	Residence	
		Country (Percent) (n=207)	Town-City (Percent) (n=113)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
None offered	60.6	60.4	61.0
Total who were	(39.4)	(39.6)	(39.0)
Farm	7.8	13.0	2.7
Skilled worker	11.6	9.2	15.9
Clerical	0.0	0.0	0.0
Unskilled	11.6	12.6	9.7
Other	8.4	4.8	10.7

wise in view of the entry requirements for such trades. The junior and senior year was the time of first serious consideration about a job for most of the college undecided. This was quite unlike the college choosers who often had considered this course of action at a much earlier date (See Tables 5 and 27).

A majority of the students had discussed their occupational plans with parents and regarded them as generally favorable. A few parents were regarded as neutral, but almost none were opposed to the occupational plans of their sons (See Table 28). Guidance counselors apparently were much less frequently consulted but in cases where they were, they too were regarded as favorably disposed to the occupational choice. Yet guidance counselors and occupational enlighten-

TABLE 27--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS NOT PLANNING TO ATTEND COLLEGE BY RESIDENCE AND TIME OF FIRST SERIOUS CONSIDERATION OF GETTING A JOB AFTER HIGH SCHOOL

Time of First Serious Job Consideration	Total (Percent) (n=320)	Residence	
		Country (Percent) (n=207)	Town-City (Percent) (n=113)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Senior year	33.4	34.3	31.9
Junior year	26.6	24.2	31.0
Sophomore year	6.9	6.3	8.0
Freshman year	2.8	2.9	2.7
While still in grade school	5.0	4.3	6.2
Don't remember or unknown	25.3	28.0	20.3

TABLE 28--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS NOT PLANNING TO ATTEND COLLEGE BY RESIDENCE AND HOW PARENTS FELT ABOUT THEIR JOB PLANS

Parents Feeling About Job Plans	Total (Percent) (n=320)	Residence	
		Country (Percent) (n=207)	Town-City (Percent) (n=113)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Didn't discuss	29.1	30.9	25.7
Did discuss	(70.9)	(69.1)	(74.3)
Strongly favor	23.4	22.7	24.8
Favor some	30.0	27.5	34.5
Didn't say much either way	14.7	15.9	12.4
Against it	1.6	1.9	.9
Strongly against it	0.0	0.0	0.0
Reactions unknown	1.2	1.1	1.7

ment services of the school were used if not seriously considered. Over half (52.5 percent) of the students, 46.9 in the open country and 62.8 percent town-city, had taken vocational interest inventories and considered them in their deliberations about choosing an occupation. A somewhat smaller proportion had taken and considered aptitude tests. An additional role of the school, as we shall see, was to provide initial knowledge about jobs to consider.

Prior occupational experience appeared to be the rule rather than the exception; more than 85 percent had had some kind of gainful employment, mostly as unskilled day laborers or on farms. A few (about 7 percent) had held jobs in or related to the skilled trades. Of those who had selected a job, more than twice as

many chose one that was distinctly different from the one they had held as chose one that was similar.

Increased emphasis in recent years has been placed on vocational training or education for high school students not expecting to go to college. This training had been used by youth not going to college. All but a few in this sample had taken some vocational subjects, with the highest proportions having been enrolled in shop and business courses (See Table 29). However, more definite information about jobs chosen than was available in this study and of subsequent employment would be needed to assess the alignment of vocational courses taken with skills required in the job chosen.

TABLE 29--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS NOT PLANNING TO GO TO COLLEGE BY RESIDENCE AND VOCATIONAL COURSES TAKEN IN HIGH SCHOOL

Kind of Vocational Courses Taken	Total (Percent) (n=320)	Residence	
		Country (Percent) (n=207)	Town-City (Percent) (n=113)
Vocational agriculture	26.3	33.4	13.3
Shop	71.9	70.6	74.3
Business	66.3	67.3	64.6
Cooperative Occupational Education	5.0	3.4	8.0

Only about 38 percent of the students not expecting to go to college had selected an occupation at the time they filled out the study questionnaire. For the town-city youth the proportion selecting one of the skilled trades varied less than 2 percent by type of occupational courses taken. Among the country youth, somewhat more of the vocational agriculture students than of those taking other vocational subjects selected farming as an occupation. However, the inclination of country boys was to select either farming or the skilled trades quite aside from the kind of occupational courses taken in high school. The number of persons in the cooperative educational program was too small to warrant any reliable generalizations about training in relation to choice; also, perhaps the same should be said for the 14 town-city youth who took vocational agriculture courses in high school. This group seemed to have more difficulty in deciding on an occupation than those who had taken other occupational courses. This may have been partly due to a greater lack of opportunity to farm than prevailed for the farm boys.

Another requirement of occupational choice is prior information about the occupations.

Although primary group channels were used most as sources for learning about jobs to consider, it was in this regard that the school also appeared to be most instrumental. "People on the job" were at the top of the list as sources of

learning, with friends and parents following in succession, except that town-city youth placed a higher priority on own experiences than parents (See Table 30). A sizable number of students also learned about jobs to consider from employment courses in the school system and through guidance counselors, who were somewhat more instrumental in providing initial information for the town-city youth than for those living in the country. This again, no doubt, is a partial function of the greater availability of guidance counselors to the town-city youth.

TABLE 30--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS NOT PLANNING TO ATTEND COLLEGE BY RESIDENCE AND SOURCE OF INFORMATION ABOUT JOBS TO CONSIDER

Source of Learning about Jobs to Consider	Total (Percent) (n=320)	Residence	
		Country (Percent) (n=207)	Town-City (Percent) (n=113)
<b>Institutional</b>			
High School library	9.1	8.7	9.7
Employment courses	21.6	21.7	21.2
Guidance counselor	14.1	11.1 <sup>a</sup>	19.5 <sup>b</sup>
Career night	1.6	1.9	.9
Employment office	5.3	4.8	6.2
<b>Personal</b>			
Employment experience	39.4	35.7 <sup>c</sup>	46.0 <sup>d</sup>
Teacher	12.5	12.6	12.4
Parents	41.3	44.0 <sup>e</sup>	36.3 <sup>f</sup>
Friends	52.5	53.1	51.3
People on the job	58.8	60.4	55.8
Other	13.1	12.6	14.2

Of those tested the ab difference was statistically significant.

Personal, non-agency sources of occupational information were also more frequently labeled as *most useful* and as sources of *most information* than those provided through the school system (See Tables 31 and 32). People on the job were the most universally named for *most information*. They were also named by country boys as the source regarded as most useful. Although parents and friends, together with *own experience*, were generally next in order, town-city boys tended to rely somewhat less on friends and parents and slightly more on their own employment experiences. Of the sources available through the school system, employment courses, likely not available to many students, were most frequently mentioned as sources of most information and as most valued; but these were named by less than 8 percent of any group. Guidance counselors, next in line, were mentioned by less than 5 percent of the students, either from the standpoint of obtaining information or for evaluative purpose.

TABLE 31--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS NOT PLANNING TO ATTEND COLLEGE BY RESIDENCE AND SOURCE OF "MOST INFORMATION" ABOUT OCCUPATIONS TO CONSIDER

Source of Most Information About Jobs	Total (Percent) (n=320)	Residence	
		Country (Percent) (n=207)	Town-City (Percent) (n=113)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Institutional			
High school library	.6	.5	.9
Employment courses	5.9	6.8	4.4
Guidance counselor	2.8	2.9	2.7
Career night	.6	.5	.9
Employment office	1.3	1.0	1.8
Personal			
Employment experiences	11.3	9.2	15.0
Teacher	2.2	2.4	1.8
Parents	18.4	20.3	15.0
Friends	12.8	12.6	13.3
People on the job	23.1	23.7	22.1
Other	6.9	5.6	8.8
Unknown	14.1	14.5	13.3

TABLE 32--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS NOT PLANNING TO ATTEND COLLEGE BY RESIDENCE AND SOURCE OF MOST USEFUL INFORMATION ABOUT OCCUPATIONS TO CONSIDER

Source of Most Useful Information About Jobs	(Percent) (N=320)	Residence	
		Country (Percent) (N=207)	Town-City (Percent) (N=113)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Institutional			
High school library	1.6	1.0	2.7
Employment courses	7.2	7.2	7.1
Guidance counselor	4.1	2.9	6.2
Career night	.6	0.0	1.8
Employment office	1.3	.5	2.7
Personal			
Employment experiences	12.8	11.1	15.9
Teacher	3.4	3.4	3.5
Parents	14.4	15.5	12.4
Friends	12.5	15.0	8.0
People on the job	17.8	19.3	15.0
Other	7.5	6.8	8.8
Unknown	16.8	17.3	15.9

The composite ab difference for personal sources was statistically significant.

Thus, for the vast majority of students, the school was not a major source of occupational information, at least at the decisional level. The greatest use made of the school system sources was in first learning about jobs to consider. Interpersonal channels of communication, mainly in primary group relations, were by far the most used for all purposes. They were also used most at the decisional level.

Perhaps, as in other decisions involving elements of uncertainty, the friend or highly trusted "other" who has had the requisite experience is the one preferred. Yet the school is in a position to make students aware of occupational possibilities to consider, thus performing a very valuable service not available through the primary group relations. The last tend to restrict communication to own kind who know, believe, and think much the same way. Even though occupational decisions may still be made with heavy support through primary group relations, the school is in an excellent position to expand the scope of occupations to consider and provide factual information not otherwise available.

### OCCUPATIONAL ATTRIBUTES CONSIDERED IMPORTANT IN CHOOSING AN OCCUPATION

Although the great majority of students had not decided on a particular occupation at the time of the study, it is hardly conceivable that some thought had not been given to the matter. Proceeding on the assumption that most high school seniors had formulated some idea about the kind of occupation they would eventually like to have, and in view of the demonstrated importance of idealized images of occupations as factors in the selection of a job,<sup>15</sup> an attempt was made to determine what the students regarded as important criteria in deciding on a suitable occupation. The relative importance placed on the various considerations also was noted, both in regard to specific occupational attributes and the more generalized ways of viewing an occupation from an idealized point of view.

Each student was asked to (1) rate 23 occupational attributes on a *not a consideration, little or none, some, or very much importance* basis in relation to self, and (2) indicate which of the 23 attributes they regarded as first, second, and third most important from their own point of view. These items were selected from occupational attributes considered in previous studies, including Goldsen, *et al.*, regarding what college students think, plus certain additional items obtained from interviews with students about their occupational expectations. These items listed in Table 33, tend to exhaust the list of attributes usually appearing in studies of occupational attributes considered in choosing an occupation.

The responses of a subsample of 40 students among each of those *expecting, not expecting, and undecided* about going to college were factor analyzed using the

<sup>15</sup>A number of these criteria are enumerated and examined on a psychological distance of acceptance basis by Rose K. Goldsen, Morris Rosenberg, Robin M. Williams, Jr., and Edward A. Suchman, *What College Students Think*, New York: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1960, pp. 24-46.

For those matters more nearly related to the concept and meaning of work, see Walter L. Slocum, *Occupational Careers*, Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1966, pp. 8-24.

centroid method.<sup>16</sup> This provided four recurring views labeled as "materialistic doer," "management creativity," "extrinsic reward" and "personality fulfillment." These will be described in this section. The factors which characterized each of these views are listed in Table 33. Average factor loadings were obtained from

TABLE 33--AVERAGE SCORES OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS EXPECTING AND NOT EXPECTING TO GO TO COLLEGE ON IDEALIZED VIEWS OF OCCUPATION

Type of Idealized View	High School Seniors	
	Going to College (Average Score)	Not Going to College (Average Score)
Materialistic Doer (1)	1.09 <sup>a</sup>	1.31* <sup>b</sup>
Management Creativity (2)	1.83 <sup>c</sup>	1.87 <sup>d</sup>
Extrinsic Reward (3)	2.38 <sup>e</sup>	2.86* <sup>f</sup>
Personality Fulfillment (4)	2.60 <sup>g</sup>	2.19* <sup>h</sup>

Of those tested the ab, ef and gh differences were statistically significant.

item loadings on each of the factors in each of the subsamples. Operationally, an item was included in the average when it appeared in two of the three subsamples with a factor loading at an arbitrarily selected .30 level or above average. All but a few items appeared at the specified level in all three of the subsamples. The items and estimated factor loadings are listed in Appendix Table II. A student's score on each of the factors was obtained by adding and averaging the scores that he assigned to items in each factor (ways of viewing an occupation), with scores on items being assigned as follows:

- 0 Not a consideration
- 1 Some or little importance
- 2 Important
- 3 Very important
- 4 Third most important
- 5 Second most important
- 6 First most important

The resulting idealized views cannot be regarded as exhaustive and as in all empirical approaches such as this delineation of types, the latter is always a partial function of the content items included in the study. Other types or aggregates of views may occur for different students and for the use of other items. The ones obtained here provided a useful and meaningful way of (1) getting a more generalized picture of occupational attributes considered important by students for their anticipated occupational decisions and (2) making comparisons

<sup>16</sup>For a general treatment of methodological considerations relative to factor analysis, see L. L. Thurstone, *Multiple Factor Analysis*, Chicago: Chicago University Press, 1947.



between students going to college and not going and between those living in the open country and in the town-city environment.

In the paragraphs which follow (1) the four aggregates or idealized views are described, and (2) students' scores on the aggregate views are reported, compared and contrasted, with attention also being given to variations on specific items.

### The Nature of Idealized Views

*Materialistic Doers.* A materialistic doer's view emphasized out-of-door work close to nature, physical activities, and the use of tools and machines. It also specified a strong preference for working with "things" rather than people.

*Management Creativity.* The management creativity view specified a strong preference for management and responsibility for people as well as money. An emphasis on creativity and adventure was reflected in the high value placed on selling ideas and things and work requiring thought and the development of ideas. Other attributes found only in one sample stressed service to humanity, a desire for achievement, and a desire to work with people. Although excluded by the operational definition, they were consistent with the general pattern of emphasis on management and creativity.

*Extrinsic Reward.* The third idealized view stressed rewards external to the activity that the occupation involved, suggesting that occupation was viewed essentially as a means to desired ends that were not a part of the occupation itself or the way a person related to it. Good beginning pay, good retirement plan, being able to keep a job as long as one would want it were paramount considerations; availability of jobs in the field which was in accord with this view, was another consideration.<sup>17</sup> Within the general pattern those not intending to go to college or undecided about it tended to stress immediate rewards while those expecting to go to college were much more concerned with deferred benefits. Also, peripheral to the pattern, the college-oriented high school subsample of students showed a slight tendency to favor *feeling of accomplishment* and consideration of *the people with whom they would associate* in their work. However, none of these were central to the extrinsic reward view or admissible under the operational definition of appearance in two or more of the subsamples.

*Personality Fulfillment.* This view emphasized satisfactions intrinsic to the occupational activity itself. This was manifest in a desire for a feeling of accomplishment, service to humanity, and concern about the people with whom one would be associated. The desire for expression of self or personality fulfillment was also implied in a concern with how own interests and abilities fit in. Per-

<sup>17</sup>The extrinsic reward view here considered and the intrinsic reward view typified by what we have referred to as *personality fulfillment* parallels the differing views of an occupation found in the occupationally oriented University of Missouri freshman, a study made simultaneously with this one. See Herbert F. Lionberger, C. L. Gregory and H. C. Chang, *op. cit.*, pp. 44-46.

haps there were differences in views of how self-expression should be manifested. Some apparently preferred to work with people and some with inanimate objects. In a sense, the seniors who were undecided about college did not load on this factor. Such tendency to self-expression that did occur in this group tended to emphasize management and responsibility for people, service to humanity, and people with whom they would associate, all of which were slightly more closely aligned with the previously described management creativity orientation. This was the point at which factor alignment in the three subsamples was least distinct. Indeed, one avenue of personal goal fulfillment intrinsic to the occupation surely could be through management creativity. An inclination of the college undecided sample to emphasize management and responsibility for people is suggestive of a tendency to seek self-expression with and in relation to other people. Although this inclination to equate management creativity with personality fulfillment occurred in only this subsample, it could hardly be regarded as incongruent with the basic definition of the factor.

### Variation in Views Held by Student Groups

Table 33 data indicate that the predominating view held among students planning to go to college was *personality fulfillment*. Such a view tends to regard an occupation as a means of self-expression and service to humanity from which feelings of accomplishment can be derived and one in which association with the "right" kind of people, presumably those that they could enjoy and appreciate, would be assured. Although students not going to college also registered an interest in these considerations, it was at a considerably lower level. It was the extrinsic reward view that prevailed in their thinking. This specified an occupation was valued mainly for what it could provide in the way of satisfaction quite devoid of the occupational activity itself, e.g., good retirement plan, good beginning pay, security. The emphasis on "jobs available in the field" as a consideration suggests that a variety of occupations might qualify so long as the specified extrinsic reward considerations are met. Although scores were lower on the materialistic doer view than on the other factors, high school seniors not planning to go to college stressed this view more than those planning to go.

The intrinsic and extrinsic reward views were manifest in the proportion of students assigning *most important* ratings to the various items. For students not intending to go to college much more frequently than *others* marked *how my interests and abilities fit in* as the most important consideration in choosing an occupation (See Table 34). Few students who did expect to go to college placed a high priority on this consideration. Country and town-city views were very similar, with a slight tendency for country boys to be somewhat less concerned with how their interests and abilities fit into an occupation than the town-city youth.

Dropping down the importance scale from the *most important* consideration to the more numerous *very important* ratings, two other considerations appeared in sharp perspective. These were *being able to keep a job* as long as they wanted it

TABLE 34--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS PLANNING AND NOT PLANNING TO ATTEND COLLEGE REGARDING DESIGNATED OCCUPATIONAL ATTRIBUTES AS MOST IMPORTANT BY RESIDENCE

Occupational Attributes	Residence			
	Country		Town-City	
	Planning to Attend (Percent)	Not Planning to Attend (Percent)	Planning to Attend (Percent)	Not Planning to Attend (Percent)
	(N=130)	(N=207)	(N=207)	(N=113)
Good beginning pay	14.6 <sup>a</sup>	24.2 <sup>b</sup>	13.5 <sup>c</sup>	23.9 <sup>d</sup>
Chance for advancement	14.6 <sup>e</sup>	23.7 <sup>f</sup>	13.0 <sup>g</sup>	23.0 <sup>h</sup>
Work with people	5.4	3.9	3.9	2.7
Work with things	.8	1.0	1.0	.9
Work with tools and machines	4.6	5.3	0.0	6.2
Physical activities	0.0	1.0	1.0	1.8
Work requiring thought and development of ideas	4.6	.5	5.3	1.8
Work requiring management and responsibility for people	.8	1.9	1.9	0.0
Work requiring management and responsibility for money	.8	.5	0.0	.9
Being able to keep job	3.8	8.2	2.9	8.0
Work out of doors	2.3	5.8	1.9	5.3
Work inside	0.0	1.0	0.0	.9
Service to humanity	2.3	1.0	6.3	1.8
Importance of occupation	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Good retirement plan	.8	2.9	1.0	3.5
Being own boss	5.4	3.4	3.9	2.7
How interests and abilities fit in	23.1 <sup>i</sup>	5.8 <sup>j</sup>	27.5 <sup>k</sup>	3.5 <sup>l</sup>
Jobs available in the field	5.4	0.0	3.9	.9
Selling ideas or things	0.0	1.0	.5	0.0
People with whom associate	2.3	1.9	0.0	.9
Opportunity to be close to nature	2.3	.5	.5	1.8
Feeling of accomplishment	3.8	1.0	7.7	3.5
Length of training period	0.0	1.0	0.0	.9
Other	2.3	4.5	4.3	5.4

Of those tested the ab, cd, ef, gh, ij and kl differences were statistically significant.

and *good retirement plan*. Again, country and town-city boys were very similar in their views but with slightly fewer of the latter showing a strong concern about security matters (see Table 35, also Appendix Table 3 for complete ratings on items). In a sense this was the most widely held major emphasis, since, theoretically, only one *most important* consideration could be mentioned. Thus, the high priority on *how own interests and abilities fit in* on the part of some and *good beginning pay* and *chance for advancement* for the others rested on a broad base of concern about security in the job and in terms of resources for eventual retirement.

TABLE 35--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS PLANNING AND NOT PLANNING TO ATTEND COLLEGE REGARDING DESIGNATED OCCUPATIONAL ATTRIBUTES AS VERY IMPORTANT BY RESIDENCE

Occupational Attributes	Residence			
	Country		Town-City	
	Planning to Attend (Percent)	Not Planning to Attend (Percent)	Planning to Attend (Percent)	Not Planning to Attend (Percent)
	(N=130)	(N=207)	(N=207)	(N=113)
Good beginning pay	22.3	31.9	20.3	23.0
Chance for advancement	42.3	49.8	39.1	52.2
Work with people	20.0	16.9	21.3	15.9
Work with things	13.8	22.2	11.1	20.4
Work involving machines & tools	8.5	32.4	4.3	23.9
Work requiring physical activity	11.5	14.5	4.8	11.5
Work requiring thought	21.5	15.0	19.8	13.3
Work requiring management of people	13.1	13.5	16.4	15.0
Work requiring management of money	10.0	23.7	7.2	21.2
Being able to keep job	35.4	59.4	29.5	58.4
Work out of doors	22.3	29.5	9.7	15.0
Work inside	6.2	1.9	5.3	3.5
Service to humanity	16.2	6.3	14.0	10.6
How important occupation is	10.8	20.3	8.2	10.6
Good retirement plan	17.7	50.7	12.6	44.2
Being own boss	22.3	24.6	13.5	14.2
How interests and ability fit in	51.5	40.1	51.2	37.2
Jobs available	43.1	31.4	39.6	31.0
Selling ideas or things	4.6	5.3	7.2	7.1
People with whom I associate	21.5	22.2	15.5	21.2
Opportunity to be near nature	13.1	20.3	4.8	10.6
Feeling of accomplishment	32.3	36.7	39.6	38.1
Length of training period	10.0	21.3	11.6	13.3
Other	0.0	2.4	2.4	2.7

## FULFILLMENT OF POST HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATIONAL PLANS

This section is concerned with the frequency with which students planning to go to college or seriously considering vocational school actually carried through on these plans in the year immediately after high school graduation. High school principals and guidance counselors with whom arrangements were originally made to conduct the study were sent questionnaires approximately one year after the students completed their questionnaires with a request that they indicate the ones on the list who were enrolled in college, those in vocational schools, and insofar as possible, those who had entered military services or obtained jobs after high school.

Because entry into college required more intimate and direct contacts with the schools and school officials than pursuit of other alternatives, it is likely that knowledge concerning the college enrollees was the most accurate. Thus, it may well be that statements regarding students enrolled in vocational educational schools were underestimates or at best conservative indicators of actual attendance. Also, many who obtained jobs had moved from the community, thus reducing the possibility that school officials would have first-hand knowledge of the courses of action they had taken.

In Figure 5, note that the proportion actually attending college was almost identical to the percentage who planned to go at the time the study was made. This is not to say that all of those planning to go to college actually did go and that all undecided or planning not to go did not. Approximately 84.0 percent of those planning to go to college did; also, 24.6 percent of the undecided, and 5.6 percent who indicated (at mid-senior year) that they would not (see Appendix Table 4) wound up in college.

Some variations occurred by residence but little by social area. An even 80 percent of the country boys planning to go to college did attend, compared to 86.5 percent for the town-city group. It is likely that other students entered college at some subsequent date. However, the proportion actually attending college deviated from those planning to attend by no more than 2 percent in any social area.

Serious thought given to attending a vocational school was highest (43.9 percent) in Social Area D and was almost as high in Social Area E. The highest proportion attending one year later was in Social Area D (9.1 percent) and lowest in Social Area E where less than 2 percent were reported to be attending such schools. Thus, comparatively few had acted affirmatively on their prior serious consideration of the vocational school alternative after high school. It is likely interest exceeded opportunity to attend such schools. It was significant that the proportion attending vocational schools was highest in the social area where college attendance was the lowest, thus suggesting a greater demand for the occupational school alternative in the Ozark Social Area D and perhaps, also, in Social Area E, although actual attendance was lowest for the state.

About 12 percent of the remaining students had allegedly entered the military services, 34.1 percent had obtained jobs, while the current activities of 8.2 percent were unknown to the reporting school officials.

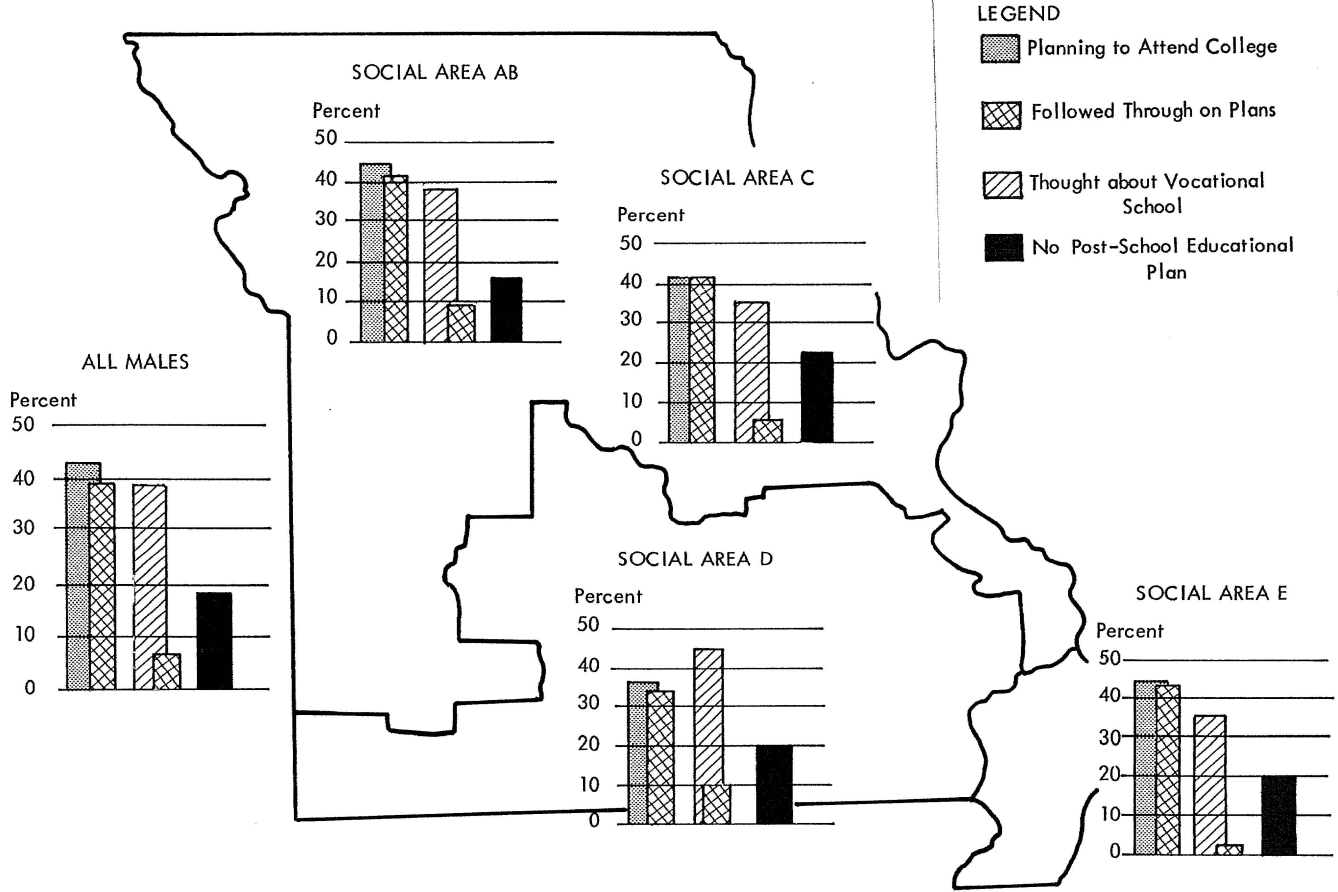


Figure 5 Post High School Educational Plans and Action of Male High School Seniors

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study was concerned with the educational and occupational plans of a sample of 791 male high school seniors living in the open country and small cities in Missouri, exclusive of the larger urban centers.

Twenty-five schools and 1516 high school seniors, 791 of whom were males, were included in the survey. Data were assembled regarding their educational and occupational plans and conditions thought to be relevant to these plans. The information was collected in the fall and early winter of 1964. The sample of schools and students was selected to be generally representative of all major regions of the state exclusive of the large urban centers, St. Louis, Kansas City, St. Joseph, Springfield, and Joplin. The area basis for delineation was provided by Gregory's rural social areas. This included the southeast Missouri area, the economically disadvantaged Ozark region, the prosperous corn, hog, cattle farming areas of the northwest and an area along the Missouri and Mississippi rivers in which German and French ethnic influences were still manifest.

Specific objectives were to determine:

- (1) the proportion of male senior high school students living in cities and the open country who planned to attend college;
- (2) the conditions and processes related to these decisions;
- (3) the past high school educational or occupational plans of those not expecting to attend college;
- (4) the interrelationship and conditions of educational and occupational plans; and,
- (5) the idealized views held of occupations they hope to choose for themselves.

### General Situation and Educational Plans

Approximately 36 percent of the male students lived on farms, another 15.5 percent in the open country. Being much alike in educational plans and background, the two were combined into a country contingent in the study, constituting 51.3 percent of the total. The remaining 48.7 percent lived in towns and small cities.

The high schools (grades 9-12) ranged from 125 to 800 enrollment and were quite evenly distributed over the state. All students had access to college preparatory courses, more than half to vocational agriculture courses, and about three-fourths to guidance counselors. The availability of other vocational education courses was very limited.

With the senior year half over, plans after high school were a serious consideration for most of the students. Just under 43 percent had decided to go to college, 32.0 percent from the open country and 53.8 percent of those living in towns and small cities. About the same percent did attend college the first year after high school graduation. Approximately 17 percent were still undecided about attending college. The remainder had chosen other alternatives, mostly occupa-



tional. The highest proportion (47.8 perent) of students going to college was found in the progressive corn, hog, cattle farming north and west central Missouri area, referred to in this report as Social Area AB (See Figure 1). Also, the proportion still undecided was highest in prosperous Social Area AB, possibly because alternative opportunities on the farm were better than elsewhere. Indecision was lowest in the German-French ethnic influence Area C. Social Area D had a distinct depressing effect on college attendance for farm boys, but not for those from the town and small cities.

### Process, Conditions and Reasons for Educational Choices

For most students the decision to enter college was a long-term consideration with no point in time discernible as the time of decision. For them orientation to college attendance was essentially a long socialization process which tended to exclude consideration of other alternatives. However, for some, consideration of college attendance was a more recent and very conscious process.

Many of the college-committed students recalled that they had first seriously thought about going to college as early as grade school or as long ago as they could remember. This was more true of the town-city youth than of those living in the country. On the other hand, few high school seniors delayed first serious consideration of college attendance to as late as the senior year. Plans to attend or not attend for most were quite well crystalized by the time they were interviewed. Country boys delayed first serious consideration longer and decided later about college attendance than the town-city youth. More students began first serious consideration of college attendance during the junior year than in any other year.

The reasons they gave for going to college quite clearly paralleled those frequently heard in adult society; thus a strong occupational orientation predominated over all others, with such reasons being given as "job opportunity resulting from a college degree" or "the vocation I chose required a degree." Thus, it may be that in many cases parents still insist on tentative occupational commitments as reason for going to college and that their sons and daughters respond in kind.

A category of reasons generally second in importance and high on the list included a desire to gain knowledge or a general understanding or simply wanting to further one's education. Perhaps third in line and much less frequently mentioned were anticipated intrinsic rewards from a college education, e.g., "opportunity for an interesting and enjoyable life."

There was a general strong intolerance for escape-interlude types of reasons. This might be expected in a society that sets a period of time off between childhood and adulthood in which training for adult responsibility is specified. Thus, such reasons as "wasn't ready to get a job," "wasn't anything better to do," or "postponing military obligations" were seldom expressed as reasons for going to college. If we compare internalized beliefs of importance of a college education with what teachers, counselors, and high school principals try to do to encourage

students to go to college, the internalized beliefs are by far the most important reason for attending college. Yet country youth somewhat lacking in peer and perhaps even parental support depend more on people in the school system, particularly the guidance counselors, for support in their college attendance plans. Ideally, the school system should provide support worthy of college attendance candidates where such support from other sources is relatively less or missing. The fact that country youth placed a higher reliance on institutionalized sources of support while apparently receiving less support than other students, particularly from guidance counselors, suggests a default in the services where needed support is already weak. Perhaps the cause is due to an acquiescence to a climate of opinion deficient in support of college attendance for country boys. Certainly, this should not be the case.

While a very high proportion of the country boys and those from economically disadvantaged families regarded their parents as highly favorable to a college education, perceived parental support was relatively low for them.

Students not planning to go to college perceived their parents as highly favorable to a college education less often than those who planned to attend. Although this could be rationalization of a position already taken, there is reason to believe that this perceived attitude was a consideration in the college choice, non-choice decision, particularly where attitudes of deemphasis of a college education were associated with perceived lack of ability and unwillingness to pay part or all of college expenses.

Among the facilitating mechanisms for college attendance considered, parental involvement in educationally related decisions and the use of rewards and reprisals designed to insure adequate preparation for college attendance were very important. Almost all parents encouraged their sons to make higher grades in school, but the parental activity that most clearly distinguished the undecided and nonattenders from those planning to attend college was the insistence by parents that their sons take college preparatory courses. Surely this was also associated with the exercise of many other persuasive influences in the direction of college attendance, e.g. consultation with the guidance counselor, which was also highly associated with college attendance plans. This last was much more frequent among the town-city than the country youth. Town-city parents were more likely to impose restrictions on activities like insistence on study on school nights and withholding of privileges because of poor grades. Country parents were somewhat more likely to use rewards as an incentive.

The most frequently reported restriction on freedom to associate socially was insistence on being home at a set time on school nights. This restriction was very highly associated with college attendance plans, particularly among the town-city youth. Perhaps there was less need for such restriction on youth living in the open country where alternative opportunities to study were perhaps less frequent. Paradoxically, this type of restriction was more frequently reported by students undecided about college plans than for any other group. This was true both

for town-city and country boys. The same tendency was noted for withholding privileges because of poor grades. Thus, it seems that the parental pressure was being exerted on the undecided at least as strongly and perhaps more so than on students with plans to go to college, but apparently with less results.

Parental emancipation or demonstrated ability to make own decisions and "stand on one's own feet" is a requirement of achieving adult status in Western societies. The way and degree to which this occurs at different points in time varies from family to family and perhaps from individual to individual within families as in the tendency to treat the youngest child as the baby after reaching physical maturity. A few more students that planned to go to college than undecided ones or ones who rejected college had their own bank accounts and sources of income, but differences were very small and likely more a reflection of the socioeconomic status of the family than a determinant of potential college attendance. However, the fact that a few more students that did not plan to go to college had to ask their parents for money when they needed it may have heightened their evaluation of the utility of a job over college attendance.

However, the biggest difference was use of an automobile. Decidedly fewer college choosers owned an automobile. Although those going to college were more frequently given access to the family car on request, use of a car by this means was surely subject to much more restriction than if they were driving their own. Also, particularly for the town youth, parents of the students expecting to go to college imposed more restriction on their sons' freedom to circulate socially than the parents who did not expect their sons to go or those whose sons were undecided about college.

Certainly as expected, enrollment in college preparatory courses in high school was highly associated with plans to attend college, while the converse was true for enrollment in the vocational subjects. Perception of own high standing (being in the upper third of one's graduating class) was also closely associated with plans to attend college. Realistically, the great majority of those in the lower third had no college attendance plans, although the inclination to do so was greater among the city than among the country youth. On the other hand, one-fifth of the country youth and 8.2 percent of those living in towns and small cities who regarded themselves as being in the upper third of their class did not intend to go to college.

Participation in extra-curricular activities was associated with plans to go to college, irrespective of kind. Apparently this develops or is associated with a commitment to school that has an impelling influence on plans to attend college. There was little difference in whether participation was in varsity sports or of an essentially academic nature.

Characteristically, students obtained information about college from a variety of sources, but college publications (brochures, pamphlets, and catalogues) were most universally used, most valued, and also the source from which they allegedly obtained most of their information. Friends were next in order as a source of in-

formation for both country and town-city boys but in both cases were closely rivaled by guidance counselors and visits to the prospective college of attendance. Guidance counselors were more frequently named as most valued sources of information by country than by town-city youth. Thus, here as elsewhere, it appears that somewhat more country than town-city boys looked to institutional sources of psychological support for plans to attend college. This is further indicated by the higher value placed on guidance counselors as consultants in these matters.

Although slower in deciding to enter college, farm boys were quicker to choose a specific college to attend and, understandably, more likely to pick the College of Agriculture at Columbia than other students. Although available in limited degree elsewhere, agricultural subjects are most inclusive and available in this state at the Columbia campus. More than 40 percent of country boys had made a decision on a particular college before the senior year, which was about 10 percent higher than for the town-city boys.

In the aggregate, about one-fourth of the students had chosen to enter the University of Missouri - Columbia, an additional 6.9 percent had chosen branches of the University of Missouri elsewhere, and about half had picked other colleges within the state. Approximately 23 percent of the town-city seniors were expecting to attend out-of-state colleges, a figure about twice that for the country boys. Among influences rating high in importance in the choice of a particular college were contacts with the school before enrollment, friends at the college, and trips to the college involving conversations with personnel at the college.

Of 25 reasons which students rated for selecting a specific college, country boys rated more reasons very important than did the town-city boys. Personal influences, contacts with college personnel, were most frequently mentioned as very important by both groups. Much less mentioned but next in importance were the *parents' desire and influence of close friends*. Of those things related to the college, "the best place to get what I wanted" was rated as most important. For both groups, size, distance from home, and cost were important or very important considerations and "academic reputation of the college" more for the town-city than country boys. Country boys appeared to be more concerned about size and distance from home than the town-city residents.

Those going to schools other than the University of Missouri - Columbia were more concerned with nearness to home and avoiding very large schools than those expecting to come to the Columbia campus. The former were most concerned with cost and distance from home. Somewhat more students coming to the Columbia campus and those going to out-of-state schools marked "the best place to get what I want" as being very important than students planning to attend other in-state schools. Of all reasons considered, the most students marked this as very important. Apparently, more students who visited the Columbia campus were impressed with their visits than were impressed with visits to other campuses. Academic reputation, prestige of the college, and scholarships were

also emphasized more by students intending to come to Columbia than by students planning to go elsewhere.

In occupational as in other choices, students regarded parents and guidance counselors as generally favorable when consulted. Yet this potential service was not used in many cases. People on the job were the leading source of information for first learning about jobs to consider. This was followed by friends and parents except city youth rated own experience above parents. Other sources included occupational courses in high school and guidance counselors. Personal non-agency sources of information were also most frequently labeled as sources of most information with people on the job again heading the list. Thus, it would appear that school did not function in any appreciable degree as a source of first or most occupational information.

Although prior occupational experiences seemed to have been the rule, jobs selected generally bore little relationship to prior occupational experience. Many college rejectors had taken some vocational courses in high school. Although no systematic attempt was made to relate jobs tentatively selected to prior vocational training, it was observed that more vocational agriculture students than students in other vocational courses selected farming as an occupation. This no doubt was in a large part due to the greater availability of farming as an occupation to students who took the vocational agriculture courses. Farm boys tended to select either farming or skilled trades irrespective of the courses taken in high school.

### Consideration of Non-College Alternatives

About 68 percent of the boys in the country and 46.2 percent in the town-city were either undecided about going to college or did not plan to go. Of the alternatives after high school open to youth, three were considered: (1) military service, (2) post high school vocational education, and (3) employment.

Less than 15 percent of the country boys and a few more of the town-city youth had seriously considered military service. About 43 percent had tentatively decided to get a job immediately after graduation or soon thereafter. Yet, over half of the country boys and about two-thirds of those living in the town-city had considered some kind of occupational education, mostly trade and technical school, before seeking employment. This alternative was considered with the perceived support of their parents in a vast majority of the cases. However, a followup directed to high school principals and counselors one year later indicated that only about 4.0 percent had followed this course of action. Even though this was probably an understatement, the proportion attending was much less than those who had considered this alternative. This suggests a considerable unmet demand for such schools.

Whether by rationalization or actual desire, 70 percent of the group not planning to go to college said they had no desire to do so, a view more characteristic of country than town-city youth. Although about one-fourth of those planning not to attend apparently had never seriously considered college attendance, some

40 percent did not definitely dismiss the possibility until their senior year in high school. Judging from their perceived class standing, a high proportion of those who had given serious consideration to college attendance were good prospects for success in college. Although the most frequently mentioned "most important reason" for rejecting college was cost and desire to start earning own money, there were other important reasons. Many of the rejectors expressed a fear of lacking ability to do college work and apprehension concerning their grades in high school. This fear seemed to be well founded since only a very small percent rated themselves in the upper one-third of their class academically. Country boys who gave cost as a major reason for not going to college also expressed a strong desire to earn their own money and thus, perhaps, a desire for present over deferred benefits.

Even though considerably more college rejectors than choosers regarded their parents as unwilling to pay all or some of the college expenses, this was surely a partial function of lack of interest in college on their part.

### Occupational Plans

Although a job immediately after high school graduation was a likely destination of most of the students not planning to go to college, only 38 percent had decided on a particular one, mostly in the skilled trades. For many, this would require prior vocational education before assumption of duties. The proportion who had selected a particular job was about equal to the number who had been offered jobs after high school.

### Idealized View of an Occupation

What does a person consider important in choosing an occupation for self? Do students view occupations in characteristic ways? These were two questions considered in this study. All students were accordingly asked to indicate the relative importance they either placed or would place on 23 occupational attributes in choosing an occupation for themselves. Responses from a subsample of 40 students expecting to go to college, 40 still undecided, and 40 who did not intend to go were factor analyzed to determine if there were any characteristic ways of viewing an occupation from an idealized point of view. Four such views labeled *materialistic doer*, *management-creativity*, *extrinsic reward*, and *personality fulfillment* emerged.

The *materialistic doer* view emphasized outdoor, physical work done close to nature, preferably with tools and machines. It further specified working with things rather than with people.

The *management-creativity* view stressed a strong preference for management and responsibility for people and money; also selling ideas and things, and work requiring thought and the development of ideas.

The third or *extrinsic reward* view of an occupation focused on occupation as a means to achieving desired ends external to the occupational activity itself.

Thus, good beginning pay, good retirement plan, and being able to keep the job as long as one wants to were paramount considerations; also, availability of jobs in the field, an important concern in considering an occupation as a means to other ends, was rated high.

Finally, the *personality fulfillment* view emphasized satisfactions intrinsic to the occupational activity itself; thus it emphasized occupation as a means of creating feelings of accomplishment, as service to humanity, and as providing an opportunity to associate with the "right" kind of people. There was a further concern of how one's interests and abilities fit in, an important factor in achieving feelings of accomplishment.

The personality fulfillment view prevailed among students planning to go to college. Although those not planning to attend college also shared this view in considerable degree, the extrinsic reward view predominated for them. Thus, many jobs would suit them if the pay was right, and the job offered a good retirement plan and assurances they would be able to hold the job as long as they desired.

Students not planning to go to college and those still undecided were more dedicated to the *materialistic doer* point of view than were the college oriented. Although both residence categories of students were much the same in their idealized view of an occupation, some differences were apparent. Country youth were slightly less concerned with security matters than were town-city youth. Town-city youth were somewhat more concerned with how their interests and abilities fit than the country boys.

## APPENDIX

TABLE I--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS BY RESIDENCE AND IMPORTANCE OF REASON FOR ATTENDING COLLEGE

Reason for College Attendance	Country (N=130)			Town-City (n=207)		
	Importance of Reason			Importance of Reason		
	Little or Not A Consideration	Some	Very	Little or Not A Consideration	Some	Very
<u>Occupational Status-Achievement</u>						
Job Opportunities that result from a college degree	3.1	23.1	73.8	3.4	22.2	73.9
Vocation chosen re- quires a college degree	20.0	26.9	50.0	8.7	31.9	58.5
Prestige of a college education	61.5	29.2	7.7	61.4	30.9	4.8
Future Importance of a college education	2.3	27.5	69.2	0.5	19.8	79.7
<u>Intellectual</u>						
Wanted to futher my education	9.2	55.4	35.4	6.3	42.0	51.7
Gain knowledge and understanding	5.4	53.1	40.0	5.8	47.3	45.9
<u>Interlude-Escape</u>						
Opportunity for an interesting enjoyable life	30.0	44.6	23.8	35.3	42.0	22.2



Table I (Cont.)

Reason for College Attendance	Country (N=130)			Town-City (N=207)		
	Importance of Reason			Importance of Reason		
	Little or Not A Consideration	Some	Very	Little or Not A Consideration	Some	Very
Wasn't anything better to do	93.1	3.1	1.5	94.7	1.4	1.9
Wasn't ready to get a job	84.6	8.5	3.8	85.0	10.6	3.9
Opportunity to meet girls	71.5	20.8	6.9	83.1	9.7	6.8
Getting away from home and feeling independent	77.7	17.7	2.3	80.2	16.9	1.9
Postpone military obligations	87.7	7.7	3.8	92.3	3.4	3.4
<u>Peer, Parents and Professional</u>						
Parents wish Parents willingness to help	33.1	51.5	14.6	29.5	55.6	14.0
Close friends	28.5	40.0	30.8	21.7	55.6	22.2
High school counselor	60.8	30.0	7.7	47.3	40.6	10.6
Teacher	40.0	26.9	6.2	49.8	26.6	6.8
Principal	60.8	32.3	5.4	64.7	27.1	6.8
	70.8	18.5	7.7	76.8	17.9	3.4
<u>Other</u>						
Personal satisfaction	16.2	46.9	34.6	13.0	51.7	34.3
Cost	33.8	49.2	15.4	36.7	42.5	19.3
Find a wife	92.3	4.6	0.0	91.8	4.3	2.4

TABLE II--IDEALIZED VIEWS (FACTORS) AND DERIVED LOADINGS OF OCCUPATIONAL ATTRIBUTES ON IDEALIZED VIEWS

Idealized Views Occupational Attributes	Estimated Loadings*
<u>Materialistic Doer</u>	
Work requiring much physical activity	.69
Work out of doors	.68
Opportunity to be close to nature	.63
Working with things	.60
Work involving much use of tools and machines	.59
<u>Management Creativity</u>	
Work that requires managing of and responsibility for people	.66
Work that requires management and responsibility for money	.57
People with whom I would associate	.54
Selling ideas or things	.50
Working with people	.45
Work that requires considerable thought and development of ideas	.45
<u>Extrinsic Reward</u>	
Good retirement plan	.56
Good beginning pay	.55
Chance for advancement	.53
Being able to keep the job as long as I want to	.46
Jobs available in the field	.40
<u>Personality Fulfillment</u>	
Service to humanity	.49
How my interests and abilities fit in	.45
How important people feel the occupation is	.44
Feeling of accomplishment	.44+
People with whom I would associate	.41
<u>Other Items Upon Which Loading Did Not Occur<sup>o</sup></u>	
Length of training period required	
Being my own "boss"	

\*Based on items selected as distinctive for factors in the three student subsamples.

+This item was not included in the University sample.

<sup>o</sup>At or above the .30 confidence level.

TABLE III--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS BY RESIDENCE AND IMPORTANCE OF OCCUPATIONAL CHOICES MADE OR UNDER CONSIDERATION

Reasons for Occupational Choice	Country (N=406)			Town-City (N=385)		
	Importance of Reason			Importance of Reason		
	Little or None %	Some %	Very %	Little or None %	Some %	Very %
<u>Materialistic Doers</u>						
Work requiring much physical activity	44.9	39.6	14.5	39.8	47.8	11.5
Work out of doors	39.6	29.5	29.5	55.8	27.4	15.0
Opportunity to be close to nature	45.4	31.9	20.3	63.7	23.9	10.6
Working with things	18.4	58.5	22.2	24.8	53.1	20.4
Work involving much use of tools and machines	24.2	43.0	32.4	35.4	38.9	23.9
<u>Management Creativity</u>						
Work that requires manag- ing of and responsibility for people	51.2	34.8	13.5	44.2	37.2	15.0
Work that requires manage- ment and responsibility for money	40.6	34.8	23.7	47.8	30.1	21.2
People with whom I would associate	25.1	52.2	22.2	31.9	45.1	21.2
Selling ideas or things	73.4	19.8	5.3	69.9	19.5	7.1
Working with people	25.6	56.5	16.9	27.4	34.9	15.9
Work that requires consid- erable thought and development of ideas	40.1	43.5	15.0	42.5	43.4	13.3
<u>Extrinsic Reward</u>						
Good retirement plan	15.9	32.9	50.7	23.0	31.0	44.2
Good beginning pay	11.6	55.6	31.9	12.4	63.7	23.0
Chance for advancement	9.7	38.6	49.8	9.7	36.3	52.2
Being able to keep the job as long as I want to	4.8	34.8	59.4	10.6	29.2	58.4
Jobs available in the field	18.8	48.8	31.4	24.5	43.4	31.0

TABLE III--(Continued)

Being able to keep the job as long as I want to	4.8	34.8	59.4	10.6	29.2	58.4
Jobs available in the field	18.8	48.8	31.4	24.5	43.4	31.0
<u>Personality Fulfillment</u>						
Service to humanity	56.5	34.8	6.3	57.2	31.0	10.6
How my interests and abilities fit in	6.8	51.2	40.1	14.2	46.9	37.2
How important people feel the occupation is	41.1	37.2	20.3	51.3	36.3	10.6
Feeling of accomplishment	12.1	50.7	36.7	16.8	44.2	38.1
People with whom I would associate	25.1	52.2	22.2	31.9	45.1	21.2
<u>Other Items Upon Which Loading did not Occur</u>						
Length of training period required	34.3	43.0	21.3	38.1	47.8	13.3
Being my own "boss"	46.9	27.1	24.6	57.5	25.7	14.2
Work inside	82.1	15.0	1.9	83.2	11.5	3.5

TABLE IV--PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS BY RESIDENCE AND BY EDUCATIONAL PLANS IN HIGH SCHOOL AND SUBSEQUENT ACTION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL

Action Taken After High School Residence	Total	Plans in College		
		Planned to go to College	Were Undecided	Did not Plan to go
All Students	(N=791)	(N=337)	(N=134)	(N=320)
Went to college	42.2	84.0	24.6	5.6
Went to trade school	4.0	1.5	6.7	5.6
Went to military	11.5	3.9	17.9	16.9
Presumably got job	34.1	9.5	43.3	56.3
Unknown	8.2	1.1	7.5	15.6
Country	(N=406)	(N=130)	(N=69)	(N=207)
Went to college	32.8	80.0	26.1	5.3
Went to trade school	4.4	2.3	7.2	4.8
Went to military	10.3	5.4	17.4	11.1
Presumably got job	41.6	10.8	40.6	61.4
Unknown	10.9	1.5	8.7	17.4
Town-City	(N=385)	(N=207)	(N=65)	(N=113)
Went to college	52.2	86.5	23.1	6.2
Went to trade school	3.6	1.0	6.2	7.1
Went to military	12.7	2.9	18.5	27.4
Presumably got job	26.2	8.6	46.2	46.9
Unknown	5.3	1.0	6.0	12.4