

**THE IMPACTS OF GENDER DISCRIMINATION, SOCIO-ECONOMIC
CAPITAL & UNIVERSITY ENROLLMENT PLANS:
A Case Study in Ankara Distinct**

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Abstract

Drawing on a sample of 726 non-clinical adolescents (aged 17-18 years) from high schools in Ankara/ Turkey, this study investigated the interacting relationships between Turkish adolescents' university plans and personal capital variables such as gender, school achievement, self-esteem, anxiety/depression, goal setting, course attendance and family atmosphere such as parental supporting, parental monitoring, parental separation and socio-economic capital variables, such as family income, parental education parental occupation, family size, and cultural capital such as parental expectations for university attendance. Findings suggest that gender, school achievement, family size, parental university expectations and preparatory courses are significant predictors for educational demands of adolescents.

Key words: Turkish students, university enrolment plans, family structure, social capital, economic capital, cultural capital personal capital

**Cinsiyet Ayrımcılığının Sosyo-Ekonomik Kapital ve Üniversiteye Gitme
Planlarına Etkileri: Ankara Bölgesinde Bir Örnek Çalışma**

Özet

Bu çalışmada, ANKARA'daki liselerden alınan 726 kişilik klinik olmayan ergen (17-18) örneklemini üzerinden, Türkiyede ergenlerin üniversiteye gitme planları ile toplumsal cinsiyet, okul başarısı, öz benlik saygısı, kaygı/depresyon, amaç edinme, kursa gitme gibi kişisel kapitaleri ve ebeveyn desteği, kontrol, ebeveynin ayrılması gibi aile atmosferi ve ailenin geliri, ebeveynin eğitimi, ebeveynin mesleği, aile büyüklüğü gibi sosyo- ekonomik kapitaleri ve ebeveynin üniversite beklentisi gibi kültürel kapitaleri arasındaki karşılıklı etkileşim araştırılmıştır. Araştırma bulgularına göre toplumsal cinsiyet, okul başarısı, aile büyüklüğü, ebeveynin üniversite beklentisi ve üniversiteye hazırlık kursları gibi değişkenlerin, ergenin eğitim taleplerinin temel belirleyicileri arasında olduğu saptanmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Türk öğrenciler, üniversiteye gitme planları, aile yapısı, sosyal kapital, kültürel kapital, kişisel kapital.

INTRODUCTION

In modern societies, as a function of industrialization necessities for occupying social positions are becoming more complex and require specialization. At first glance, it seems that, this situation decreases the importance of ascribed status determinants such as gender, family, race or nationality. On the other hand, in the context of improving abilities and enriching the knowledge repertoire, it increases the importance of education (Gosling, 1965). Due to the fact that the social mobility is too high in the industrial societies, the young people are obligated to decide on their occupational positions in isolation (Sebald, 1968). Their parents can no longer counsel the youth about occupations because of the extreme specialization and the rapid changes (Shipman 1970). Schooling is a component of specialization and social change. Depending upon their success, schools classify the students. This classification, to a considerable extent, determines the place of the individual in the social scale and his social achievement. Hence, both the youth and the parents believe that university education has increasingly shaped the possibilities and the opportunities for achieving success during adulthood. As discussed by Oguzkan (1985), in Turkey, university attendance is seen as a unique way to have an occupation with high prestige and to find a good job with a high income. In consistent with Bliese and Halvorsen (1996)'s suggestion that organizational practices and structural factors may systematically affect the level of demands. As there is no student counsellor program for early occupation orientation and preparation during high school period and as the status and the grades of vocational- technique high schools are lower than the standard high schools for university attendance in Turkey, most students and parents preferred the standard high school education which was seen as an easier carrier to university. Hence, every student from different types of social categories either from private or state, standard or technique schools wants to go to university (Baymur, 1961; Gokce, 1982).

In this content, in the present study it is intended to discover the essential components of university-going decision in terms of gender and family that are the essential ascribed status variables.

Hence, primarily, one of the focuses of this study is gendered patterns in educational attainments. As discussed by Thompson (2003), while certainly some distinct changes have taken place, gendered patterns are still pervasive in the workplace and in political leadership. Women continue to earn considerably less than men for comparable work and enjoy a lower status than men do. In this content, women are forced to achieve high grades. As a result of this pressure it is seen that in many countries, women graduating from collage often out number of men. From an educational perspective in European countries, and the

USA, the outlook for girls and women appears bright indeed. Taken by themselves, the statistics on girls' and women's education achievement seem to tell a story of progress.

Table 1 Enrollment ratios by education level and gender

	Female	Male
Primary school	87.04	92.37
Secondary school	38.77	47.29
Tertiary school	11.07	12.58

State Statistical Institution DIE: 2002

Despite the girls' attach for educational achievement in Turkey is in the same direction for the developed countries it is found that, unfortunately, gender inequity is still pervasive in the all levels of education (Table-1). High school students face only with two choices when they graduate; either they should go straight into the label market or to university. In reality, in terms of gender, there may occasionally be the obligation for some women to choose the traditional progress to be a wife and a mother (Chodorow, 1978) that is very pervasively seen in Turkey as well as in all other traditional societies.

The placement to university programs in Turkey is made through an exam conducted by OSYM (Student Selection and Placement Centre). Each year, approximately 1.5 million students take this exam and only one third the total get a chance to be educated at university undergraduate, and distance education programs. Furthermore, the probability of gaining the right to be educated at a good university for a young person via this exam is lower than one in ten. This means that, the preparation for this exam necessitates an intense studying from the end of primary school which also necessitates taking specialized courses on test techniques for a very long time. Hence, both the parents and the students have to spend their time, extra energy and economic capital. The results of these exams in previous years have been indicating that girls were more successful than boys by 84.7% to 74.3% (OSYM, 2004). In the recent years, girls have been competing with boys in all fields which require high professionalism.

Table 2 Female participation ratios in Tertiary students by education fields

Education field	Turkey	Japan	USA
Agriculture	42	40	49
Education	46	76	77
Engineering, manufacturing, construction	24	13	19
Health & Welfare	57	70	80
Humanities & Art	50	71	62
Science	43	25	43
Service	36	79	55
Social Sciences, Business & Law	47	34	55
Global	46	76	77

Tertiary education organized as Universities in Turkey.

Data derived from UNESCO, Institute for Statistics.

As discussed by Thompson (2003), strikingly, it is the fact that, more women than men graduate from collage or earn master degrees but this does not mean that these women have higher incomes than men, nor does it mean that they enjoy a higher status than men do, for the reason that most of the master degrees that women earn are traditionally feminine and relatively low-paying fields such as education, nursing, and social work. However, in Turkey, interestingly, more women earned achievements in the fields such as engineering, sciences and construction that are still accepted as masculine even in developed countries (Kasapoglu, 2005) (Table-2).

The main approach of the present study based on three theories; Feminist theory-socialization theory, Social/Cultural Capital Theory, and Family attachment theory.

Basic varieties of feminist theory also try to answer the descriptive question; what about the women? Feminist theory is a generalized, wide-ranging system of ideation about social life and human experience that developed from a women-centred perspective. Distinctions within theories answers to the explanatory questions; Why is women' situation as it is?

Gender difference theories believe that in some situations the experiences of women is different from the men's because of their location. According to the institutional and socialization explanations, gender differences, result from the different role that women and men are thought to play or simply come to play within various institutional settings. A major determinant of difference is seen to be the sexual division of labour that links women to the functions of wife, mother and household worker, to the private sphere of the home and family, and thus to a lifelong serious of events and experiences very different from those of men. Socialization theories (Cooley, 1964; Mead, 1962) of gender often seem to suggest that fairly permanent gendered base of behaving or gendered traits of personality may be put in place, particularly during primary socialization. Social-psychological explanations of gender regard the ways those deep structures in the culture. As long as teachers and parents did not treat girls unfairly or missocialize them in consider, they could not succeed in different subjects, socialization theorist argued, girls could meet the same academic standards as boys.

As education has been considered a tool to destroy every kind of hierarchy and to eliminate all artificial inequalities based on race, ethnic origin, gender or social class, since the 18th century, it is observed that there have been democratization attempts for education in all modern societies, and in Turkey as well. However, it is recognized that, the legal regulations (the formal restructuration) in isolation are not effective to provide expected changes because of behavioral patterns, traditions, customs, habits, and attitudes of the informal socializing agents such as family. Bourdieu's (1979) cultural capital thesis posits that the "high culture" of a society's dominant socioeconomic classes plays a major role with respect to the reproduction and legitimating of socioeconomic inequality. Cultural capital, like other forms of capital, is unequally distributed within Western capitalist societies (Bourdieu, 1973). The amount of cultural capital that students inherit from their family origin is a function of their socioeconomic status (Bourdieu, 1979). Cultural capital thus functions to support the legitimating belief that educational competition is meritocratic (Bourdieu, 1979) and graduate education is plying also an increasingly significant role with respect to the reproduction of socioeconomic inequality (Bourdieu and Boltanski, 1978). According to Coleman, in a parallel manner with Bourdieu, social capital is conceived of as an intangible social resource, inhering in social relations those individuals can draw upon to

facilitate action and to achieve their ends (Coleman, 1990). The interpretation of the theory in the education context has been drawn as the ways in which students benefit by membership in certain communities or networks which allow them to draw on positive role models, encouragement, support, and advice (White and Glick, 2000). The ability of building stronger communities and networks has been facilitating the development of social capital with subsequent positive effects for these children's outcomes. However, as discussed by Bourdieu and Passeron (1964-1972) educational attainment should not be conceived as mechanically determined due to the resources of the social capital, in other words, social capital does not ensure success. In this content, Clausen's concept of 'planful competence' is very useful. According to Clausen (1991), students who succeeded having goal could make the right choices, and prepared themselves throughout their adolescence. McCarthy and Hagan (2001) accept planful competence as a key dimension of personal capital. As a result the family, as being the primary, earliest and the most basic socialization agent (Cooley, 1964; Mead, 1962) transfers its values, attitudes, behavioural patterns, and statue orientations to their offspring directly or indirectly, consciously or unconsciously, purposively or no purposively (McKinley, 1966; Gecas, 1990; Barber and Erickson, 2001) with using their -in terms of Coleman's (1988) concept- social, human and as well as their economic capital. It is clear that the family characteristics and value orientations about university and future expectations for their offspring can determine the faith of the youth in terms of their decision on how they use their capitals.

However, there are few studies that have been attended to reveal the impact of family structure on the university-going decision. Due to the attachment and family system theories, family atmosphere may also make a difference. Meeus et.al. (2002) suggested that parenting and parental attachment was especially important for school success and occupation; warm and supporting parenting preceded the later development of capability beliefs with respect to school and the grade level attained. But, it was found that parental involvement, encouragement, expectations, and aspirations with respect to school, were more predictive of attained grade level than parental emotional support, and positive parental control. On the other hand, as discussed by Hammen (1996), startling evidence had revealed that children in single-parent households, compared to those raised in mother-father households were at a greater risk for academic difficulties. This increased tendency for academic difficulties was limited by economic capital coupled with stress of poverty that caused less adult support, monitoring, and expectation. Hence, the unfavourable family atmosphere and negative role models reduced the success of the student at school and his or her desire to university attendance.

Under the highlights of those theories, in this study, the variables that were considered as have an impact on university plans of students as follows:

Self- Esteem	Academic achievement and self esteem are positively correlated.	Bankston and Zhou, 2002; Lockett and Harrell, 2003; Ross and Broh, 2000; Schmidt and Padilla, 2003; Verkuyten and Brug, 2002; Wong and Watkins, 2001; Purky, 1970; O'Malley, 1976
Anxiety/Depression	An adequate number of studies have found a significant relationship between academic achievement and anxiety. Generally there is a consensus that a specific degree of anxiety may motivate. However, a high anxiety score may be one of the obstacles to academic achievement	Diaz, Glass, Arnkoff and Tanofsky-Kuff, 2001; Sarason, 1977; Heinrich, 1979;
School Achievement	Individuals with higher ability are more able to reap the benefit from investment in high school education. High school achievement is therefore used as an indicator of ability	Christense et al. 1975; Borus and Capenter 1984; Rouse 1994; Ganderton and Santos 1995; McElroy 1996; Averett and Burton 1996; Hilmer 1998, 2001; Carpenter and Fleishman, 1987; Hause, 1971.
Gender	Other individual characteristic for enrolment to university is being gender. Many of the recent studies which are conducted on human capital and feminist theories suggest that gender is a predictor for educational attitudes.	Borus and Carpenter 1984; Kane 1994; Hilmer 1998,2001; Acker, 1992; Butler, 1997; Connell, 1992; Bennet, 1994; Carter and Strong, 1993; Eccles et al., 1984; Eccles, 1994 63; Farmer, 1995; Lehman, 1936; Terrien and Miles, 1936; Yum 1942
Goal Setting	Goal setting and individual preparation can provide advantage over the life course of individuals. Many studies have shown that planning to attend is a	Clausen, 1991; McCarthy and Hagan, 2001; Shanahan, Elder and Miech, 1997; Atanda, 1999; Ekstrom, 1985; Horn, 1998.

	major predictor for actually attending university.	
Family Income	Human capital theory suggests that family background and place has an important role in the decision to go to university and family income has long been to be a significant determinant of the university-going decision.	Christensen et al. 1975; Corman 1992; Kane 1994; Rouse 1994; Evans and Schwab 1995; Kao and Tienda 1995; Vernez and Abrahamse 1996; White and Glick 2000; Richmond 1986; Richmond and Kalbach 1990
Parental Education Level	According to many previous studies, parental education is one of the main significant factors has impact on the decision to go to college	Christensen et al. 1975; Willis and Rosen 1979; Kane 1994; Rouse 1994; Evans and Schwab 1995; Averett and Burton 1996; McElroy 1996; Ellwood and Kane 2000; Vernez and Abrahamse 1996; White and Glick 2000; Kao and Tienda 1995
Parental Occupation	Students whose parents have higher occupational status are therefore more likely to attend university rather than labor market entry	Averett and Burton 1996; Ordozensky 1995; Richmond 1986; Richmond and Kalbach, 1980.
Family Structure/ Parental Separation	A few studies have been attended to reveal to impact of family structure on university going decision. In those studies, findings were not showing a consistency.	Evans and Schwab, 1995; Ellwood and Kane, 2000; Anguiano, 2004.
Number of Siblings/Family Size	Many studies invested that the presence of siblings in the family reduces the probability of enrolling in collage	Rouse 1994; Ganderton and Santos 1995; Averett and Burton 1996
Family monitoring and support	Due to the attachment and family system theories, parental support and monitoring may also make a difference.	Epstein, 1986; Mooney, 1978; Sewell et al., 1980; Guneyusu and Magden, 1987
Parental Expectation	Extensive research has	Kao and Tienda, 1995;

		document the significance of parents' educational values for adolescent academic achievements and choices.	Vernez and Abrahamse, 1996; Whit and Glick, 2000; Zhou 1997; Carpenter and Fleishman, 1987, Eccle, Adler, and Kaczala, 1992; Hossler and Stage, 1992; Parrikakou, 1997; Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn and Dornbush, 1991, Dangler, 1976.

Method

In the current study, 726 Turkish final class students (aged 17-18) in grade 11 were administrated a comprehensive set of questions at assessing two levels of factors; individual (gender, self esteem, anxiety/depression, school achievement, goal setting and course attendance) and family structure (socio-demographic variables such as family income, parental education level, parental occupation and family atmosphere such as parental support, monitoring, separation, and parental expectation). This investigation was completely based on self-reports of students. The questions of subscales were derived from Adolescent Health and Development Questionnaire (AHDQ).

Data collection involved group testing in a classroom setting at each of the participating school. Search team administrated the questionnaire. All of the participants were administrated the questionnaire during one specific time during the school day. Their participation was completely voluntary.

Self-esteem was measured with a single item; “On the whole, how satisfied are you with yourself?” with the answers, a) very satisfied, b) pretty satisfied, c) not too satisfied, d) not satisfied at all.

Depression was assessed using the 21-item Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) (Beck et. al., 1961)

Academic achievement was measured by self reported cumulative achievement average. Their reports of school success were checked by their academic averages which were taken from the school administration.

University plan was measured with a single item; ‘Is it important to you to go to university?’ a) very important, b) important, c) not too important, d) not important at all.

Goal setting was measured with a single item, ‘Are you planning to go to university and if your answer is ‘yes’, what is your occupational choice? The occupational choices of the students were scaled from “0” to “6” in respect of

the required grades to enrol which are determined by OSYM. In that scale, “0” represents the non planners.

Due to the theories, it was accepted that course attendance is another essential indicator of goal setting. Course attendance was measured with a single item; ‘Do your parents provide you to take preparatory course/courses?’ ‘Yes’ answers were coded with one (1) point.

Regarding the aim of the study, the sample group of the final year high school students was derived from Ankara schools and some of the other datum collected from this sample were published in the previous articles. Ankara, as being the capital city of Turkey, has 3.5 million population and 348 high schools with 175,616 students. There are 122 state high schools and 52 private high schools located in 24 districts (MNE, 2003). Schools in the sampling were chosen from the regions representing high, mid and low socio-economic status. The schools representing low income families were: Tuzlucayır High school with 141 respondents, Abidinpaşa High school with 17 respondents. The school representing mid income families was Cankaya High School with 366 respondents and the schools representing high income families were Tevfik Fikret High School (private) with 79 respondents, Fatos Abla High School (private) with 15 respondents, Aykan High school (private) with 30 respondents, Bilim High School (private) with 50 respondents and Köksal Toptan High School (private) with 28 respondents.

Separate questions for father and mother’s education were designed as ‘How far did your father go in school?’ and ‘How far did your mother go in school?’ Parental education combines indicators of mother and father’s education was coded as number of schooling completed and Cronbach alpha for this scale was 0.84.

Separate questions for father and mother occupation were designed as “What kind of job does your father have?” and “What kind of job does your mother have?” The answers were scaled from carrier occupations to non employees from “1” to “11”.

Parental separation was measured by a single item ‘Are your parents living together?’ with the answers a) yes; b) No, they are divorced; c) No, they are separated; d) No, my mother/father is not alive. Whether parents divorced, permanently separated, or is/are not alive were all considered as parental separation and were coded with one (1) point. Family size was also measured with a single item “who are living in the household with you?”

Family Support was derived from 5-item scale. The items were: ‘My parents often tell that they love me’; when you have problems can you talk about them with your parents;’ I have a good relationship with my parents’, Are your parents interested in what you think and how you feel?’ ;’ My family life is happy’’. Each question was coded with one (1) point so ‘yes’ answers for all questions got the highest score. Questions for measuring behaviors of both parents combine indicators of the mother’s and the father’s answers. Higher scores indicated the higher levels of supporting.

Parental monitoring was measured by three items: 'Do your parents make sure they know whom you are spending your time with?'; 'Do your parents ask about your school achievements?'; 'Do they go to your school meetings and talk to your teachers?'. Each question was coded with one (1) point, so 'yes' answers for all questions got the highest score (three points). Higher scores indicated the higher levels of monitoring.

Parental expectation was measured with a single item 'Do you perceive that your mother/father expect you to attend university after high school?' Parental expectations combine indicators of mother's and father's expectation and Cronbach Alpha of this scale was 0.89. 'No' answers were coded with zero(0), 'yes' answers for a single parent (mother or father) were coded with one (1) point and 'yes' answers for the both parents (mother and father) were coded with two (2) points.

For statistical analysis, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to produce parametric (regression) and non parametric (chi-square) statistical test results.

Results

The basic demographic, personal and familial characteristics of the sample are presented in Table 3

Table 3 Descriptive Profile of the Sample

	<i>LOW INCOME FAMILY</i>				<i>MID INCOME FAMILY</i>				<i>HIGH INCOME FAMILY</i>			
	<i>Female</i>		<i>Male</i>		<i>Female</i>		<i>Male</i>		<i>Female</i>		<i>Male</i>	
<i>Self-Esteem (0...1)</i>	0.80 ^a	0.40 ^b	0.80	0.40	0.82	0.38	0.85	0.36	0.85	0.35	0.87	0.34
<i>Anxiety/Depression (0...8)</i>	4.97	1.92	3.97	2.33	5.21	1.91	4.34	2.04	5.05	2.12	3.68	2.05
<i>School Achievement (0...16)</i>	10.75	1.62	9.79	1.49	11.79	1.83	11.33	1.80	11.56	1.79	10.60	2.04
<i>Course Attendance (0...1)</i>	0.29	0.89	0.19	0.39	0.81	0.39	0.78	0.42	0.99	0.09	0.92	0.27
<i>Parental Education (1...8)</i>	2.73	0.86	2.80	1.24	4.52	1.58	4.75	1.57	5.74	1.15	5.83	1.27
<i>Mother Occupation (1...13)</i>	11.08	2.44	10.67	3.25	9.63	4.04	9.26	4.30	7.18	4.80	6.63	4.91
<i>Father Occupation (1...13)</i>	5.97	3.99	5.66	3.77	3.26	3.37	3.57	3.44	2.25	1.99	2.14	2.11
<i>Family Size (2...5)</i>	4.05	0.94	4.07	0.90	3.95	0.89	3.91	0.88	3.21	0.85	3.30	0.84
<i>Parental Separation (0...1)</i>	0.10	0.31	0.09	0.29	0.19	0.39	0.16	0.37	0.14	0.34	0.12	0.33
<i>Family Monitoring (0...4)</i>	3.02	0.93	2.62	1.16	3.15	1.02	3.06	1.02	3.63	0.66	3.19	0.99
<i>Family Support (1...7)</i>	5.01	1.19	4.97	1.35	5.17	1.37	5.06	1.11	5.46	1.09	5.15	1.33
<i>Parental Expectation (0...2)</i>	1.58	0.76	1.54	0.82	1.54	0.80	1.60	0.77	1.21	0.93	1.65	0.71

- (a) Indicates the mean values.
- (b) Indicates the standard deviation of the means

In this study sample, it is found that while self-esteem, depression, course attendance, parental education, mother and father occupation, parental monitoring, and parental support were positively; family size and parental separation were negatively correlated with family income. At the same time, students of the mid income families were found more successful than the other level of income families and parental separation was also seen more frequently in the middle income families. In consistent to the expectations, the ratio of course attendants was low in low income families (30%) and was high in high income families (98%).

Table 4 The Criteria for Occupation Preference

	<i>Low Income</i>		<i>Mid. Income</i>		<i>High Income</i>	
	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>
<i>Prestige of University</i>	13.1	10.3	11.4	12.1	11.5	16.3
<i>Prestige of Occupation</i>	26.2	38.2	30.8	32.1	36.5	34.9
<i>High Income</i>	10.7	16.2	21.9	17.1	20.2	27.9
<i>High Probability for Job Finding</i>	48.8	33.8	34.8	34.3	30.8	12.8
<i>Perpetuation of Family Occupation</i>	1.2	1.5	1.0	4.3	1.0	8.1

In the study sample, gender emerged statistically significant predictor on school achievement and university plans. In the study sample, it was found that girls were more successful in their lessons than boys. Within this content the ratio of girls (3.7%) who reported that going to university is not important, were lower than boys (11.7%). 0.5% of girls and 0.7% of boys reported that they had no plan to enroll in a university. In this term, also more girls (75.9%) reported course attendance than boys (68.3%) ($\chi^2:4.862$, df: 1, $p<0.027$). In the study sample, the cumulative findings demonstrated that girls had higher odds of attending university than did boys. On the other hand, in respect of gender, girls were found more depressive while more successful in their lessons than boys. Not surprisingly, girls also were monitored and supported by their families more than boys. Table: 5 show the valid percentages of occupational

preferences of the students. In short, girls generally preferred the fields such as social science, service and education. However, boys preferred the fields such as engineering and construction and services. In terms of occupational choices, while girls were making their preferences according to the presence of possibility for finding a job and prestige of occupations, the boys were making their preferences according to income and the prestige of occupation (Table:4).

Table 5 Valid Percentage of Fields Preferences for University Education

	<i>Low Income</i>		<i>Mid. Income</i>		<i>High Income</i>	
	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>
<i>Agriculture</i>	1.2	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	1.1
<i>Education</i>	34.9	9.7	10.0	1.4	3.6	0.0
<i>Engineering & Construction</i>	5.8	15.3	15.3	26.9	11.7	28.1
<i>Health & Welfare</i>	11.6	8.3	10.0	4.1	2.7	3.4
<i>Humanities & Art</i>	5.8	12.5	11.0	10.3	12.6	3.4
<i>Science</i>	3.5	1.4	2.9	3.4	1.8	1.1
<i>Services</i>	12.8	18.1	21.5	15.9	32.4	42.7
<i>Social Science & Law</i>	16.3	11.1	15.8	15.2	27.0	7.9
<i>Security & Military</i>	1.2	4.2	1.0	3.4	0.9	0.0
<i>No University Plans</i>	1.2	2.8	0.5	0.7	0.0	0.0
<i>No special preference</i>	3.5	1.4	1.0	2.1	1.8	2.2
<i>Goal Setting for Occupation</i>	37.2	44.4	46.4	46.9	52.3	47.2
<i>Goal Setting for University</i>	32.6	13.9	34.4	35.9	44.1	40.4

Table: 6, reports the Pearson chi-squared test results of the suggested variables on the dependent variable “University plan” of the present study. Hence, at the first step, it was possible to see the impacts of the independent variables on University plan. In this content, non significant variables were excluded from the further statistical research.

Table 6 Pearson Chi-Squared Tests for the Variables

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>.Sig. *</i>
Gender	15.885	2	0.000
Self-Esteem	3.331	2	0.189
Anxiety/Depression	24.139	18	0.151
School Achievement	61.750	4	0.000
Goal Setting	55.258	14	0.000
Course Attendance	42.771	2	0.000
Family Income	15.447	4	0.004
Parental Education Level	16.560	12	0.167
Mother Occupation	24.863	20	0.207
Father Occupation	29.061	22	0.143
Parental Separation	6.252	2	0.044
Family Size	22.610	6	0.001
Family Monitoring	21.298	8	0.006
Family Support	27.503	12	0.007
Parental Expectation	24.133	4	0.000

In the study sample, self-esteem and anxiety depression were not found in correlation with university planning. However, self-esteem, anxiety/depression and school achievement were found as positively correlated (for self-esteem, χ^2 :24.540, *df*: 2, $\rho \leq 0.000$; anxiety/depression, χ^2 :40.014, *df*: 18, $\rho < 0.002$).

In the study sample, parental education and occupation were not significantly correlated with the students' university plans in Ankara sample but it was found that there was a significant relationship between family income and school success. However, parental education and occupation was significantly positively correlated with family income (for mother occupation, $\chi^2:148.994$, $df: 20$, $p \leq 0.000$; father occupation, $\chi^2:233.449$, $df: 22$, $p \leq 0.000$; for parental education, $\chi^2:325.033$, $df: 12$, $p \leq 0.000$) The Students of middle (54.9%) and high income families (52.0%) were seen more successful in their lessons than the students of the low income families (37.3%).

As a second step a linear regression model (Table: 7), with the university planning is the dependent variable, was established on ten significant variables: Gender, school achievement, goal setting and course attendance as personal capital, family income as familial economic capital, parental separation and family size as family structure, parental monitoring and support as family atmosphere and parental expectation as familial cultural capital. Table: 7 shows the results of the linear regression analysis, where the variables were forced-entered in to the model with stepwise addition to predict university plan as a dependent variable.

Table 7 The Stepwise Forced Regression Analysis

	R ²	F	B	β	Sig ^a
Gender	0.011	7.477	-0.123	-0.103	0.006**
School achievement	0.051	18.673	0.112	0.203	0.000***
Goal Setting	0.053	12.786	0.012	0.038	0.315***
Course Attendance	0.105	19.483	0.307	0.235	0.000***
Family Income	0.105	15.566	-0.005	-0.006	0.899***
Parental Separation	0.107	13.142	-0.060	-0.037	0.313***
Family Size	0.115	12.022	-0.050	-0.080	0.044***
Parental monitoring	0.117	10.467	0.011	0.019	0.638***
Parental support	0.121	8.349	-0.005	-0.011	0.814***
Parental expectation	0.153	9.326	0.100	0.139	0.001***
a) Shows the significance of the model. *, $p < 0.05$, **, $p < 0.01$, ***, $p < 0.001$					
B; shows unstandardized coefficients, β ; shows standardized coefficients.					

School achievement was found as one of the powerful-significant predictor for the university plans of students. In the study sample, it was found that the students who were successful in their lessons and had a high academic average also had more serious university plans.

As this research also explored how social capital was utilized in the family system, the family size was in its consideration. It was found that the family size was a significant predictor with low impact on the university plans of students. In the study sample, it was seen that with the increasing in numbers of family members, the number of university planners were reducing. Family size was also correlated with family income ($\chi^2:93.611$, *df*: 6, $\rho \leq 0.000$). While only 2.9% students of single child families reported that they had no university plans, it was seen that this ratio reached 13.5% in crowded families which have five or more family members.

It was also found that taking university preparatory courses was a significant predictor for university plans. While only 4.4% of students among course takers reported to have no university plans, this ratio was seen that it reached 12.2% in non- course takers. It was also revealed that there was a strong relationship between taking course and school success ($\chi^2:13.716$, *df*: 2, $\rho < 0.001$), taking course and family income ($\chi^2:232.240$, *df*: 2, $\rho \leq 0.000$). Course takers were more successful (54.8%) in their lessons than non-takers (39.9%).

In the study sample, parental university expectations was found as another significant predictor on university plans for students. In Ankara sample, it was found that parents had university expectations more likely for their boys ($\chi^2: 5.648$, *df*: 2, $\rho < 0.005$).

In the present study sample parental separation was not found as a significant predictor for university plans. However, there was a significant relationship between parental separation and university plans. On the other hand, surprisingly, there was no significant relationship between school success and parental separation. More surprisingly, in the study sample, it was found that parental separation and course attendance were positively correlated ($\chi^2: 5.082$, *df*: 1, $\rho < 0.024$). Under the highlight of the present study findings, parental separation had two sided impact on the models. At one side, it was revealed that parental separation was negatively correlated with university plans; while 11% students of the single parent families reported that they have no university plans, this ratio reduced 6.4% for students of families included both parents. On the other side, it was found that parental separation was positively correlated with course attendance. While, 18.3% of the students have broken families reported that they did not go to the course, this ratio reached 29.0% of the both parent families' students. At first glance, it seems that the

CONCLUSION

In Turkey sample, at first glance, it is revealed that two essential factors have a great impact on university-going decision; school success and course attendance. However, at the back stage, it was seemed that the different components of social capital have different impacts on university-going decision. In order to understand the modelling more correctly those background variables should be taken into consideration. Under the highlight of the scientific studies, and the statistical data related to Turkey in global we can summarize the findings of the study as follows;

In consistent with Bae et al. (2000); Mahaffy (2004); Eccles et.al. (2004)'s findings, gender emerged statistically significant predictor on school achievement and university plans. The present study shows that; with the similar tendency for the many countries in the world, Turkish girls also had academic achievement more than boys. In this term, girls were seemed to be more motivated towards academic achievements than boys. This is the positive impact of the informal gender discrimination.

Gender informal discrimination attitudes in the education field were gradually disappearing with the increasing level of education. Despite of the presence of the obliged primary school enrolment, the gender difference in initial schooling was the essential base of gender difference. In this term, girls who were involving in the education system were more successful and more motivated.

It was important to take account of the gender of a child when examining parent-child interactions. In the study sample, in consistent with Mooney Marini, (1978) and Sewell et.al.(1980)'s findings, parental university expectations was found as another significant predictor on university plans for students. While Marini (1978) reported its affect on girls rather than boys, Sewell (1980) and his friends reported its affect on both of the gender. Conversely to those, in Ankara sample, it was found that parents had university expectations more likely for their boys In Turkey, although girls were more successful in academic performance, interestingly, parents still had college expectations for their sons rather than their daughters. This result shows that patriarchal tendencies are still pervasive. Girls are more successful than boys, because in patriarchal societies they are obliged to show their abilities, performances. Hence, this is the only way that they can change their regressive social statue in the social structure.

In terms of the decisions, for their future academic life, Turkish boys are taking the family and the community values into their considerations more seriously than girls. (Table: 8)(χ^2 : 36.996, *df*: 4, $p < 0.000$).

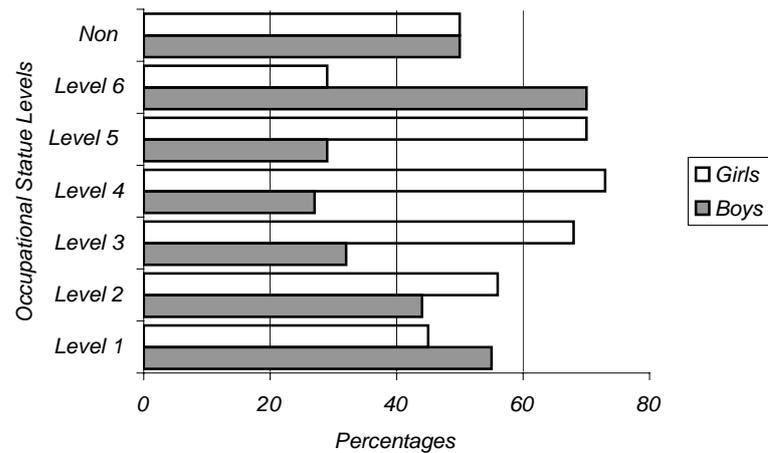
Table 8 Important Agents for University- Going Decision

	Girls (%)	Boys (%)
No one. My self-decision is important	89.5	71.9
My family's opinion is important	5.1	11.2
My teachers' critics are important	0.8	1.1
Society's judgments are important	2.8	11.2
Others	1.8	4.6

As it is presented in table 4, while boys were making their academic plans for prestige and income, girls were more likely making their preference for finding a job easily. This result can be evaluated as in the following; girls were trying to find an alternative for their primarily important housewife role which was ascribed by the society.

Strikingly, in consistent with the previous findings, there was also gender difference for the occupational career chooses. (χ^2 : 44.045, *df.* 7, $\rho < 0.000$). As it is seen in figure 2, while boys were focusing either on the high or on the low respected occupations, generally girls were making their preferences neither from the high nor the low respected occupations. (Occupational statue levels were scored according to the lowest passing grades which were determined by the results of state university entrance examination due to the supply and demand of the departments).

Figure: 2 Genders and Occupational Preference



As it was mentioned above, the desire of the girls for taking their place in the labor market could be the pushing factor of their academic achievement. At the same time, this desire might constitute the base for their high anxiety/depression level. As discussed by El-Anzi, 2005, to some extent, anxiety could provoke the individual for success. Thus, here it is more accurate to mention about two sided interaction. As revealed by Ulusoy (2005), in Turkey sample, it was found that there was a positive correlation between academic achievement and suicidal ideation for girls.

Inconsistent with Rumberger, (1987) and Anguiano, (2004)'s findings, in the study sample parental separation was not found as a significant predictor for university plans however, it was interesting to reveal that parental separation had two different impacts on school success and course attendance; in terms of economic capital, single child of both parents were seen more prone to university-going than intact and relatively crowded families. However, on the other hand, an interesting finding of the present study was in terms of course attendance: the students of the broken family were seemed positively affected by their parental separation. It seems to be in conflict with the previous studies findings. But, broken family model was generally seen in the families of working and well educated mothers and naturally in single parent families, the number of children was low. Hence, despite of the positive correlation between anxiety/depression and parental separation, children of this type of families could take an economic support for their course attendance by their parents. As a result, it should be emphasized that parental separation has two impacts in the reverse side according to family size and family SES.

As discussed previously, it was revealed that expand family size had negative impacts on school success and course attendance, since there was a negative correlation between family size and family income. This result was also showing a consistency with the findings of Guneyisu and Bilir (1988) that was with the increasing number of siblings, university expectations of parents and students were reducing.

Naturally, there was a significant correlation between university plan and school achievement, in consistent with this result, in consistent with Anguiano (2004) there was also, significant relationships between course attendance, university plan and school achievement. Unsurprisingly, it was found that taking university preparatory courses was a significant predictor for university plans.

However, When the results of this study were compared with Eccles et. al. (2004)'s findings as university plans would affect academic performance, it could be interpreted that this study revealed a converse finding: School achievement was also one of the powerful-significant predictor for the university plans of students.

Thus, families were obliged to use their economic capital which was highly correlated with their social capital such as their education level and high prestiged occupations. This result, also explains why university preparatory courses have approximately 35 billion dollar participation in the market.

It is understandable that why the students of the high income, well educated parents were demanding high incomed and high prestiged occupations. It is obvious that in consistent with the role modelling theories high SES parents were playing role models for their offspring as well as using their economic and social capital.

Strikingly, inconsistent with many findings such as Fernandez et.al., (1989); Ozen (1987); Rumberger (1995); St.Germaine (1995), and Velez (1989), parental education and occupation were not significantly correlated with the students' university plans in Ankara sample. However, as a consequence of the social capital, the ratio of non planners for university attendance was increasing with the decreasing level of SES. Non planners were not present at the high SES group. On the other hand, although the enrolment in a university is possible by the university entrance examination, as the scores of the private universities are relatively lower than the state universities, economic capital can run for the advantage of the high SES families' students.

One other finding; family income had been running in progress in negative correlation with school achievement. Students in mid income group had seemed relatively more successful than high income group'. It may be

described as the “struggle” to ensure the equality. Students of mid income group should be more successful to win. While, the others belonging to high income group already have a chance to get university education in a private university.

The difference of the occupational preference for mid and high income groups may give hints about the dynamics of mobility in socio-economical statuses. The students of mid income were not reluctant to prefer the occupations such as engineering, medicine, military, and law which require more academic effort and also hard working conditions in addition to relatively high income and prestige. However, the students of high income were choosing the occupations such as administration and business which require relatively more comfort conditions for education and also in working life. This circumstance seems to be an occasion to achieve higher status and income

Besides, in consistent with many other findings (Mahaffy, 2004; Epstein, 1986), parental support and monitoring were not found significant for university plans.

Briefly, households with higher incomes could access essential resources from educational systems for students to succeed in high school. Households with higher incomes had the financial resources to register their children in famous high schools and university preparatory courses to increase their children’s chance of placement into university. Hence, it was recognized that potential desires and plans were different from current actions and possibilities. This means that generally, the resources of life chance as being the main determinant of SES were being transmitted from family to child directly or indirectly; in Turkey graduating from a university today, is not more independent from SES than in the past. At this point, it can be said that, there is a natural selection in terms of SES or social and economic capital.

It should be noted that there were some limitations of the present study. First, the lack of interviews could be conceived as an important limitation. Another one was the composition of the study sample. The study relied on 11th grade students who were preparing themselves for the central university entrance examination carried out by the state. Sample of the study was based on a relatively narrow age (aged 17-18) range which was purposively selected. The last limitation of this investigation was the fact that it was completely based on just self- reports of adolescences without considering parents assessments and without validating external measures and finally several variables in this study were based on single item indices.

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