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FACTORS RELATED TO THE MIGRATION PREFERENCES
OF UTAH'S 1980 HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS

by

A. John LaCognata

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree

of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

in

Sociology

Approved:

UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY

Logan, Utah

1983

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A. John LaCognata

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
LIST OF TABLES	v
LIST OF FIGURES	vi
ABSTRACT	vii
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Purpose of the Study	1
Statement of the Problem	2
Theoretical Orientation	5
Significance of the Study	7
Justification	9
Limitations of the Study	9
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	11
The Migration Reversal	11
Theoretical Perspective	13
Migration Preferences	16
Family Influences on Migration	20
Parental Influences and Preference	23
Family Status	25
Length of Residence	26
Religion	28
Sex	29
Present Place of Residence	29
Hypotheses	30
III. DATA AND METHODS	33
Sample Design	33
Instrument	33
Methodological Approach	34
Operational Definitions	34
Migration Preferences	35
Perceived Parental Preference	36
Consistency	36
Family Status	36
Length of Residence	37
Present Place of Residence	38
Religion	38
Sex	39

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

Chapter	Page
Statistical Methods	39
IV. FINDINGS	40
Current Residence Type and Migration Preferences	40
Migration Preferences and Personal Attributes	41
Sex	41
Religion	42
Family Status	43
Length of Residence	44
Consistency of Personal and Perceived Parental Preferences	45
Sex	46
Religion	47
Family Status	49
Length of Residence	49
Summary	51
V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	59
Conclusions	63
REFERENCES	66
APPENDIX	70
VITA	84

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Percentages of Metropolitan and Nonmetropolitan Youth Preferring to Stay and Perceiving Parents as Preferring them to Stay in Current Residence by Sex, Religion, Family Status, and Length of Residence	52
2. Extent of Consistency Between Youths Personal Preferences and Perceived Parental Preferences for Youth in Utah by Type of Residence	54
3. Percentage of Youth Expressing Same Place of Preferred Residence as they Perceive their Parents Wanting them to Live by Sex, Controlling for Type of Residence and Where Parents Want them to Live	55
4. Percentage of Youth Expressing Same Place of Residence as they Perceive their Parents Wanting them to Live by Religion, Controlling for Type if Residence and Where Parents Want them to Live	56
5. Percentage of Youth Expressing Same Place of Residence as they Perceive their Parents Wanting them to Live by Family Status, Controlling for Type of Residence and Where Parents Want them to Live	57
6. Percentage of Youth Expressing Same Place of Residence as they Perceive their Parents Wanting them to live by Length of Residence, Controlling for Type of Residence and Where Parents Want the to live	58

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Lee's Theory of Migration	5
2. Speare's Model of Residential Satisfaction	15

ABSTRACT

Factors Related to the Migration Preferences of
of Utah's 1980 High School Seniors

by

A. John LaCognata, Master of Science

Utah State University, 1983

Major Professor: Dr. Michael A. Toney
Department: Sociology

This study examines the personal migration preferences of Utah high school seniors in 1980 and their relationship to perceived parental preferences, family status, length of residence, religion, sex, and type of residence. A focal area of the thesis is an examination of the consistency between personal preferences and preferences of parents as perceived by the youth. The primary data used for this study came from a sample survey of 1980 high school seniors who were selected using a stratified sampling technique. Cross-tabulations were used with chi square to test for significance of association.

The results of this study suggest that parental preferences play an important part in influencing the decision-making process of youth contemplating migration. The research suggests that the plans of metropolitan youth are more consistent with the perceived preferences of their parents than are those of nonmetropolitan youth. The research also suggests that the plans of LDS (Mormon) youth are more consistent with their parents perceived preference as compared to the plans of non-LDS youth. With respect to personal

preferences, Utah youth living in nonmetropolitan areas prefer to migrate more often than metropolitan youth. Research also shows that males, LDS youth, youth from intact families and long-term residents all prefer to stay more often in their present place of residence when compared to females, non-LDS youth, youth from broken families and short-term residents.

(84 pages)

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to increase the understanding of migration preferences. More specifically, the study is aimed at increasing the understanding of how personal migration preferences are related to where youth perceive their parents want them to live. Whether the relationships differ for a number of personal, social, and economic factors which previous studies have indicated play an important part in determining migration, will be examined. The consistency between youth's personal preferences and the preferences of parents will also be studied. An important part of the analysis in this study will attempt to explain differences between the migration preferences of nonmetropolitan and metropolitan youth. In discussing migration preferences it is important to point out that preferences are different from actual migration. Preferences are the desires, wishes, and attitudes of individuals to live in a particular place or kind of place. Preferences also differ from intentions or expectations to migrate. An intention to migrate is a more formulated decision and commitment than a preference. Similarly, an expectation to move is a more concrete decision than a preference. One way of distinguishing these terms is by saying that intentions and expectations are related to theories of

migration decision-making, whereas preferences are related to theories of migration behavior.

Statement of the Problem

This thesis will study migration preferences. In recent studies (Zuiches, 1980; DeJong, 1977) researchers have noted that migration preferences are important because they can influence actual migration. Migration preferences also reflect important values of individuals. In recent years migration and migration preferences have received increasing attention due to the reversal in the flows of migration (Wardwell, 1982). A key cause of this migration reversal might be preferences and therefore to adequately understand this reversal, preferences must be understood.

Past research has shown that parents are often distressed when their children move away (Papalia and Olds, 1975). This implies that parents may influence the migration plans of youth. Parents influence their childrens' migration plans just as they influence other aspects of their child's life--school, career, peer group and other areas. Generally, youth look to their parents for guidance as role models. Past research on the influence of the family on migration plans has shown a strong association (Smith, 1979). When the individual considers migration, an important factor in this decision is the degree of attachment the individual feels for his family. Crawford (1966) has stated that the family is the most important reference group when young people are considering whether to migrate. Since parents are the pivotal members of the family for

youth it seems reasonable to expect their influence to be substantial.

In this study two aspects of family influences will be studied. One of these will be "perceived" parental preferences. Perceived parental preferences are those preferences that youth see their parents having form them. The other family variable is a family status variable which indicates whether the marriage of the youth's parents is intact.

Until 1970, the migration that took place in the United States was primarily nonmetropolitan to metropolitan. Since 1970, this trend has changed. National public opinion polls have long shown that most Americans prefer to live in small towns or rural places (Tucker, 1976). Recent increases in these preferences may be an important factor in explaining the increase in the actual flow of migrants into nonmetropolitan areas. Statistics from the Census Bureau also show that nonmetropolitan areas are experiencing a net in-migration from the large metropolitan areas. According to Wardwell (1982), between 1960 and 1970 nonmetropolitan areas lost nearly four million people. Since 1970, these areas have increased by approximately three million people. Wardwell reports that the turnaround cannot be attributed to any single factor but to a number of factors. An increase in strength of preferences for living in nonmetropolitan areas is one of the primary factors Wardwell lists as possibly responsible for the migration turnaround. These studies indicate a need to contrast preferences of metropolitan and nonmetropolitan residents as is done in this study.

This study will examine the relationship between preferences of Utah's 1980 high school graduates and parents' perceived preferences and whether the relationships are different by sex, religion, family status, length of residence and place of residence. Studying youth migration preferences is important because this phase in life is quite possibly a critical stage in the life course, one in which preferences are developed and subsequent migration determined. Youth migration preferences are also important because they reflect important attitudes and desires of youth. Since parents are a major influence at this point of the life cycle an examination of the consistency of these two preferences is important in understanding the preferences of youth. The study attempts to contribute to literature in the areas of demography and social psychology. The need to link demographic and social psychological processes has been emphasized in recent years (DeJong, 1977). The variables to be included in this study are:

Personal Preference

Parental Preference

Family Status

Parents Average Length of Residence

Present Place of Residence

Religion

Sex

Present place of residence is a stratifying variable employed throughout the analysis. Personal preferences and perceived parental

preference and the consistency between these two migration preferences are the dependent variables examined in this study. Migration subsequent to measurement of youths' preferences is not available. Therefore, the influence of the preferences on actual migration is not an empirical concern of this research.

Theoretical Orientation

The theoretical framework guiding this study is Everett Lee's (1966). Lee's theory is not so much a theory as it is a general framework to guide researchers. This framework may be useful for understanding migration preferences as well as actual migration. Lee's theory of migration, in brief, states that there are four sets of factors which combine to determine every migration decision. He labels these factors as: 1) Origin factors, 2) Destination factors, 3) Intervening obstacles and 4) Personal factors. The following diagram shows Lee's theory in graphic form. This model is similar to the push-pull obstacles theory.

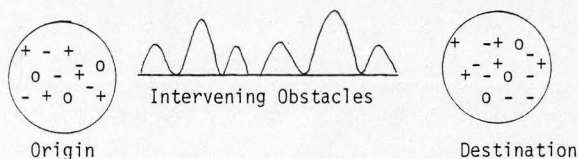


Figure 1. Lee's Theory of Migration

Although Lee did not specify this framework for migration preferences its implications for them are clear. Preferences may be viewed as developing in relation to the sets of factors included in

Lee's scheme. At both origin and destination areas there are positive and negative factors as represented by the respective pluses and minuses in the diagram. The positive factors attract residents while the negative factors repel residents. There are also factors -zeros- which have no effect. Lee sees these sets of positive and negative factors as being defined differently for categories of potential migrants. His concept of intervening obstacles can be defined as those obstacles between the place of origin and the place of destination. These obstacles can affect different people in different ways. The effect of intervening obstacles also depends on the number and types of impediments with which the potential migrant is faced. With respect to preferences, obstacles may help determine the flow of information about places which individuals use in establishing preferences. The personal factors are divided into two basic types. The first type is the personal characteristics of the migrant, such as age and sex. Personality, intelligence, and personal sensitivities make up the second type of personal factor (Lee, 1966). This second type of personal factor would also include social psychological factors, one of which is the parents' wishes concerning their child's migration plans, as these wishes may influence the migration plans and preferences of youth.

Lee's theory of migration has many advantages in its use. One major advantage that Nijim (1977) has pointed out is that Lee's model is general and inclusive. Yet it is because of this

generalness, in addition to other reasons, that Lee's theory has been criticized by others.

Though Lee's theory of migration is one of the leading theories of migration, there are some other theoretical orientations to which this study is relevant. Kammeyer (1971) has developed a theory of migration which has gained much recent support. He states that there are three levels of analysis: the societal level, personal-structural level, and the personal-psychological level. At these different levels the influence of the economy and family can be conceptualized and relationships can have hypotheses formulated. This theory formulated by Kammeyer is helpful because of the focus on three levels. The theories of Speare, DeJong, Zuiches and Fuguitt, and the push-pull theory of migration will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter Two, which focuses on the review of literature.

Significance of the Study

This thesis can have a great deal of significance in the study of migration preferences. It has only been recently in migration literature that preferences for migration have been studied. Present migration literature offers very little data and few studies on the migration preferences of young people. This is a critical period in the life cycle in which migration propensities are at their highest. Studies of preferences at such a point should play a key role in helping to explain why actual migration is so prominent. The study will also be able to reflect the importance of parental

influence in shaping the youths migration decision. Perhaps as important, studies are needed which examine the attitudes of individuals because of their nondependence upon actual behavior. Social psychological literature on other topics have indicated that attitudes do not necessarily determine behavior (Zuiches, 1980).

Within the last decade the pattern of migration has reversed from a nonmetropolitan - metropolitan stream to a metropolitan - nonmetropolitan major stream. This study will be relevant in assessing the stability of this reversal in the sense that preferences may indicate the likelihood of individuals in these respective settings making a change in their future type of residence. With additional data on migration preferences being brought forth, the time may soon come when a migration theory on preferences is developed.

A final contribution of this study is the value it has to a number of fields in Sociology. With respect to sociology of the family, this study has value in showing the influence of the family on migration and specifically the influence of parents on the migration preferences of youth. A final value of this study is in the field of demography and the research on migration preferences and the relationships between preferences and actual migration.

Justification

Migration decisions are among the most important decisions an individual makes during their lifetime. Migration is important for a number of reasons: 1) in initiating a work career, 2) for

occupation mobility, 3) for the parents of those migrating--the effect the migration has on them and the role and influence they had in the migration decision, and 4) to the communities involved in the in and out-migration. Many migration experts view the analysis of preferences as being essential in understanding the decision to migrate (Zuiches, 1980; Zuiches and Fuguitt, 1975). Past research has shown a fairly strong relationship between migration preferences and migration (Zuiches and Fuguitt, 1975). Migration preferences are not only important for their influence on the migration decision. Even if preferences did not influence migration they would still be important because they represent basic human values, desires, and attitudes important in understanding the individual. Studying preferences is important not only because they can influence the migration decision but also because it can give us an insight into the individual.

Limitations of the Study

Because this research is limited to the population of Utah, it is difficult to generalize the findings to other populations. However, detailed studies of unique populations are important for determining the extent to which the generalities hold up across unique populations. A second limitation of the study has to do with actual migration and migration preferences. Trying to fully test a theory is impossible but some follow-up studies of both the 1975 and 1980 studies could be done to see how closely the preferences relate to actual migration. While a large follow-up study would not

be practical, a sample follow-up could be conducted and conclusions made from it. A third and very important limitation is that there are no data from parents. I would have been helpful to get the parents' preferences and attitudes about where they want their children to live to better evaluate the influence of parents on their childrens' migration plans and preferences.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature reviewed in this chapter will focus on a number of areas related to migration preferences. Some of the literature to be reviewed in this section deal with actual migration because of their implications for migration preferences. In the first section of this literature review, the migration reversals which have taken place recently will be examined. The second section will deal with theoretical perspectives related to migration and this study. The third section will deal with literature concerning migration preferences. Family influences on migration will make up the fourth section and will also contain relevant literature concerning parental influence and family status. Other literature sections will discuss length of residence, religion, sex, and present place of residence.

The Migration Reversal

Recent migration literature and research results show that within the last ten years a reversal of two historical migration patterns has taken place. The first of these patterns is metropolitan to nonmetropolitan migration trend, the second is the nonsouth to south migration reversal.

A predominant migration pattern in the U.S. now is the movement from metropolitan to nonmetropolitan areas. Beale (1975) has corroborated these findings with a study revealing that areas

with the highest growth rates since 1970 have been the nonmetropolitan areas. Studies show that in 1950, five million people migrated from nonmetropolitan to metropolitan areas with 1,400 nonmetropolitan counties losing population. In 1960, 1,300 nonmetropolitan counties lost population while two million more people migrated from metropolitan than to nonmetropolitan areas (Tucker, 1976). Since 1960 a number of nonmetropolitan areas which lost population began to grow and since 1970 a net migration gain has been reported for nonmetropolitan areas as a whole.

National public opinion polls also indicate small towns and rural areas are preferred places of residence to most Americans (Beale, 1975). These surveys have also shown that while people prefer not live in a metropolitan area, they would like to live close to a metropolitan area (Wardwell, 1980; Zuiches, 1980).

Why has the change in migration from metropolitan to nonmetropolitan occurred? One explanation given by Blackwood and Carpenter (1978) for the preference to live in a nonmetropolitan area could be explained as an attitude of anti-urbanism among those who are migrating. According to their findings, metropolitan areas would lose a great number of people, urban areas would increase slightly and the rural areas would increase quite substantially if migration took place. Wardwell (1982) has attempted to explain the migration turnaround by stating a variety of reasons for the increased rural migration. Growth of employment opportunities, an increase in real income, the development of cheap energy, the increased mobility of retirement-aged people, and the growth of

local governments in nonmetropolitan areas are all seen as reasons by Wardwell for the metropolitan to nonmetropolitan migration pattern. Wardwell also attempts to explain the migration turnaround using three hypotheses (Wardwell, 1982:24). Movement to rural areas is influenced by age and retirement, according to Wardwell's first hypothesis. In the second hypothesis, a decline in the preferences for metropolitan areas has occurred for a number of reasons--crime, pollution, etc. Finally, there are pre-existing preferences for rural areas. Wardwell also states that the desirable things available in the metropolitan areas have now become available in nonmetropolitan areas. As a result, people who move to nonmetropolitan areas are still able to have the attractive features of urban and metropolitan life, while giving up the undesirable features (Wardwell, 1982:25). This move to nonmetropolitan areas is also evident in Utah's nonmetropolitan counties, particularly those counties in close proximity to a metropolitan center.

Theoretical Perspective

Before Everett Lee's theory of migration became so widely known, the push-pull theory of migration was one of the predominant theories used to explain migration (Bogue, 1969). The push-pull theory can be easily adapted to the study of migration preferences. Stated simply, the push-pull theory hypothesized that there are certain factors that push a person out of an area and there are certain factors that pull a person into an area. The push-pull theories usually contend that actual migration is based on the

perceptions individuals have of alternate location. Preferences are often viewed similarly as based on perceptions and evaluations of attractions offered by alternative places or types of places (Zuiches, 1980). For this study it can be said that certain factors cause a person to prefer to migrate out of an area and another set of factors causes a person to prefer to move into an area. Some of the common push factors are: 1) a decline in the availability of a resource, 2) loss of employment, 3) discrimination, 4) community alienation, 5) loss of opportunities, and 6) hazardous living conditions--earthquakes, floods, etc. Pull factors have been identified as: 1) increased opportunities for employment, 2) increased financial opportunities, 3) increased education opportunities, 4) preferable living conditions and environment, 5) dependency one has for a certain area and 6) opportunities for new activities (Bogue, 1969:754).

After 1950, the push-pull theory lost some prominence due in part to the emergence of Lee's theory and the recognition that the determinants of migration decisions were more complex than the push-pull theory had assumed. Lee's theory does, however, include some of the ideas of the push-pull theory. As was stated earlier, Lee's theory deals with the positive and negative factors which affect a migration decision. Intervening obstacles and personal factors also affect this migration decision. Lee's theory is not so much a theory as it is a general framework to guide researchers.

Speare's (1974) theory of migration, although not a general theory, is also cogent in the text of this study, being more narrowly focused. Speare views residential satisfaction as being the key variable in determining migration (Speare, 1974). The decision to migrate, according to Speare is dependent on the strength of certain bonds that a potential migrant may have. These bonds include: attachment to a home, job, or community organization. The stronger these bonds are, the higher the level of satisfaction, which indicates that the persons is less likely to want to migrate. Speare's theory predicts that a highly satisfied person will not migrate even if that person could be better off somewhere else. In the following diagram the theoretical relationship of residential satisfaction and migration intentions are represented.

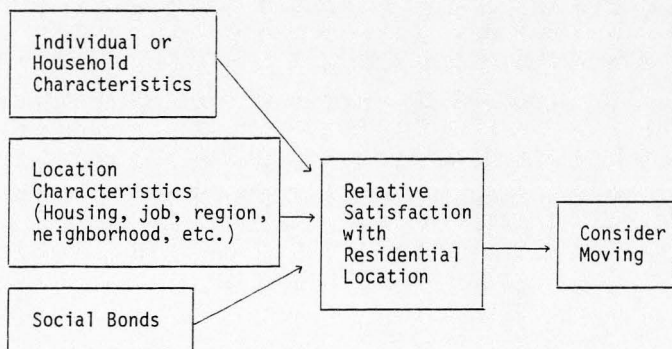


Figure 2. Speare's Model of Residential Satisfaction

Within Speare's theory of residential satisfaction he also explores causes of dissatisfaction, introducing Wolpert's concept of

stress-threshold (Speare, 1974:178). Wolpert's premise is that there exists a level of dissatisfaction beyond which an individual begins thinking of moving. The person will review his alternatives in relation to his present area and if an alternative area is found to be more satisfactory, the person will move. Factors of dissatisfaction include the job and housing market, the needs of the household, and change in the community. Once the person has found a new location he evaluates his move through what Speare calls the "cost-benefit model" (Speare, 1974:180). The cost-benefit model includes factors of monetary and non-monetary reasons and weighs the cost versus the benefit. This model is similar to one presented by Sjaastad (1962), who examined the money and non-money costs of migration as well as the money and non-money returns of migration.

Migration Preferences

By studying migration preferences, the understanding of migration may become clearer. For this reason it is important to discuss migration preferences and later in this chapter discuss some of the factors which influence migration preferences.

One theoretical perspective formulated by Zuiches and Fuguitt looks at preferences for other residential locations. Using data from a NORC survey, Zuiches and Fuguitt found that nearly 50 percent of the sample lived in a city of 50,000 population or more, that one-third lived within thirty miles of a 50,000+ city and that only 20 percent of those surveyed lived in more distant, smaller surroundings. In examining their residential preferences, Zuiches and Fuguitt found a rather large difference between actual and

preferred residences. The results showed that only 25 percent preferred to live in large cities, more than half would prefer to live within thirty miles of a 50,000+ city and those living farther away in smaller locales remained about the same in comparison to actual and preferred residence, about 20 percent. These results indicate that most people would like the advantages of urban living with the benefits of a rural, nonmetropolitan environment. Those surveyed who preferred a large city gave reasons for these preferences, the most common being: higher wages, better job opportunities, and recreational facilities. Those who preferred rural areas predominantly mentioned quality of life reasons such as: better air quality, better water quality, less crime, and a better place to raise children (Zuiches and Fuguitt, 1975:499).

DeJong in his research on residential preferences, substantiates some of the findings of Zuiches and Fuguitt, Speare, and others. DeJong maintains that little guidance has been provided by migration theory on how residential preferences help to explain the metropolitan to nonmetropolitan movement. DeJong also maintains that residential preferences are a part of the entire migration decision-making process and this is an important reason why preferences need to be examined. In his study, DeJong came to conclusion similar to that of Zuiches and Fuguitt--while people may not want to live in a large city, they don't want to live too far from a large city. In examining his results, DeJong found that the relationship between preferences and actual migration is quite high if the two areas are similar or if the distance of the move is

short. If the size of place is different from the place of origin, then the relationship is low between preferences and actual migration (DeJong, 1977:176).

Heaton found that preferences play an important role in the decision to migrate. Their study found that those with a preference to live in a different community than their present community were five times more likely to intend to move than those who preferred not to move or who had attained their preferred type of residence. Heaton also found in their study that preferences influence intentions to migrate and that preferences are complex. The complexity of preferences is between them and the relationships between background factors, community satisfaction, migration intentions, and actual migration. Because of this complexity, further research is needed to better understand these relationships and their effect on migration (Heaton et al, 1979:572).

Another perspective is one formulated by Frederickson. In their study they develop a behavioral model of migration intentions in which they deal with the intention to migrate rather than actual migration. They found that residential preferences reflect an evaluation of alternative community environments and preferences and the decision to migrate are related positively. In conclusion, Frederickson et al. states that preferences may exert an influence on the decision to migrate as well as the direction of movement. People may not move to the place they prefer but this does not reduce the role of preferences on the decision to migrate,

according to Frederickson et al. They find a dynamic relationship between preferences and migration and this relationship is always changing because of the changing preferences throughout the life cycle (Frederickson et al, 1980:294).

Zuiches and Fuguitt in their results found that origins do influence preferences but present location is a much more important influence. They state that while nonmetropolitan areas are highly preferred and appealing to those migrating in, the most preferred location of those surveyed was their present place of residence. Rural or nonmetropolitan residents especially expressed a desire to stay in their area. Zuiches and Fuguitt also found that the size of the present location influenced the size of area preferred (Zuiches and Fuguitt, 1975:502).

Zuiches states that preferences are expressions about two values of Americans--the geographic environment they would like to reside in and how they would like their community organized and structured--socially, politically, economically, and physically (Zuiches, 1980:254). He concludes by stating that studies on preferences have only scratched the surface and further research needs to be conducted on the influence of preferences.

Many factors influence migration preference and are related to migration preferences. The first of these factors is the family influence on migration. In the following section, family influences on migration will be looked at as well as two more specific types of family influence--parental influence on preferences, and family status.

Family Influences on Migration

The family plays an important role throughout an individual's life. The role of the family is even greater when the individual is still dependent on the family of orientation for help economically as well as emotionally (Nijim, 1977:51). The individual grows and develops and eventually there comes a time when the decision to move or stay is made. A factor in this decision to migrate is the amount or degree of attachment that the individual feels for his family. Research on family attachment shows different findings--some show that high degrees of family attachment slow down migration (Bieder, 1973, Crawford, 1966, Mincer, 1978) and other studies have shown the opposite (Litwak, 1960).

In reviewing the literature on family life and migration behavior, one comes across the work of Bieder. Bieder investigated the role between kinship ties and migration. What Bieder found in his analysis was that strong family or kinship ties were effective in slowing down out-migration (Bieder, 1973:437).

These results are similar to those found by Crawford in his study of migration plans and family attachment in a sample of 790 high school students (Crawford, 1966). Crawford's hypothesis was that those high school seniors with a high attachment to family were less likely to migrate than those seniors who had a low attachment to family. Crawford found his hypothesis to be supported. Those with low family attachment who planned to move totalled 49 percent, while those with high family attachment who also planned to move totalled 37 percent (Crawford, 1966:298). Crawford states in

conclusion that the family is "probably the most important reference group when young people are making decisions about migrating" (Crawford, 1966:300). While Crawford's findings are important they should be kept in perspective and it should be pointed out that Crawford's hypothesis was tested only in a rural setting. For more generalized conclusions, his hypothesis should be tested in urban and metropolitan areas as well.

Mincer found in his studies that family ties deter migration. Mincer also found that having a family decreased one's chances of migrating as opposed to a single person (Mincer, 1978:771).

Toney, in a study on social ties and migration, found that those with relatives in a destination area were much more likely to have a long-term residence. Toney also found that residences where family ties were evident stayed longer than places where no family ties were evident. Toney's research found that kinship ties serve to hold people to their communities (Toney, 1976).

Ritchey has also found if relatives and friends are located in the individual's community, migration is deterred. If the friends and relatives reside elsewhere, however, migration is more likely and is directed toward their friends' and relatives' location. Ritchey comes up with three hypotheses suggesting a relationship between kinship ties and migration. First, the presence of relatives and friends is so valued it constrains migration. Second, the distant location of family encourages migration to those areas and third, the distant location of relatives encourages migration because of the ease of adjustment to the new area (Ritchey, 1976).

Lansing and Mueller have done a number of studies on kinship ties and migration. They report that migration intentions are greater among those families who have no relatives in the area when compared with migration intentions of those with relatives in the area. Lansing and Mueller note when migration occurs, most movement is towards relatives and friends. Nearly 7 out of 10 moves follow this pattern, according to Lansing and Mueller (1967).

Tilly and Brown report that migration for reasons of kinship are most common among the young and they find the presence of families and friends influences the choice of destination for the migrant. Tilly and Brown also found a considerable amount of aid was given to migrants by their kin for the purpose of moving to their destination area (Tilly and Brown, 1967).

Another study by Litwak found those people with a high family attachment were just as likely to migrate as those with low family attachment. This contradicts the studies of Bieder and Crawford. Litwak's study was based on a sample of 920 which showed that when occupational factors are entered into the migration decision, that high and low family attachment become unimportant (Litwak, 1960).

Choldin in his research found that kinship ties play an important part in the migration process. Choldin found that a great deal of the kinship involvement is involved in the settlement and adjustment process of the migrant. Choldin also found that moves made by migrants were primarily to areas where kinfolk were already established. Of those in Choldin's study, 68 percent of those had someone waiting for them in their new destination. Choldin also

found those migrants who moved to cities with kinfolk had an easier time adjusting to their new environment and this adjustment was a positive one. Choldin also found the more support given to the migrant by his kinfolk, the more positive the individual's feelings were. Choldin concluded by stating kinship networks are considerably involved in the migration process and they do offer assistance to those migrating in terms of settlement, adjustment, employment, and providing morale (Choldin, 1973).

Parental Influence and Preference

Another important and specific type of family influence is parental influence and preference.

Parents exert a great influence upon their children in many areas--career, school, peer group, and even migration habits and preferences. Youth in high school feel a conflict going on inside them between wanting to be independent of their parents and realizing just how dependent they are on their parents (Papalia and Olds, 1975). This conflict also exists between the influence of the parent and the influence of the peer group. Most young people like and respect their parents and want to get along with them (Papalia and Olds, 1975:519). More than any other time, however, the conflict between parent and child is great because of the competition of parents against the peer groups. However, the single most important influence in the lives of youth remains their parents (Papalia and Olds, 1975:521). Parental encouragement and support influence aspirations and achievements of youth. Parents also

influence their children as role models. Evidence shows parental influence is important in the lives of their children. Parental influence with respect to migration is also important, because the influence of the parent can affect the individual's migration plans and preferences. An individual with a great deal of respect for his parents would be less likely to move somewhere his parents did not prefer him to move than would an individual whose parents did not have a great influence on him.

More studies need to be conducted on the more specific influences of parents and how they affect their childrens' migration preferences. Studies have already shown that parents tend to influence a variety of attitudes, desires and the actual behavior of individuals. For example, Smith (1979) has shown that preferences for educational and occupational attainment are partly determined by the influence of parents. Other studies by Kerckhoff and Huff (1974) and G. W. McDonald (1977) also show the influence of parents on their children. However, the role of parents in shaping migration preferences has not been explicitly examined. While parents can influence their children to migrate or to stay with a positive influence, a negative environment can also influence the migration preferences of youth and cause the youth, in Lee's words, to be repelled or pushed out of the area. This negative environment can be influenced by the family status of the individual.

Family Status

In this study the question pertaining to family status asks the respondent whether his parents are separated, divorced, living together (married), mother dead, or father dead. The death of a parent or parents being married and living together, while affecting family structure to a degree, do not change it as drastically as separation or divorce. For this reason, separation and divorce have far-reaching effects on the individual. Divorce or separation are traumatic experiences for everyone in the family. The children of divorce react more severely than they would react to the death of a parent (Papalia and Olds, 1975:521). The children of divorce feel afraid, guilty, hurt, and angry. The children of divorce go through an emotional divorce of sorts as they feel all of these emotions. Children of divorce are much more likely to run away, get into trouble, and have other problems as well (Papalia and Olds, 1975:521). This literature seems to indicate that children of divorce or separation could have a stronger preference to migrate from their communities. They prefer to migrate so they can leave those who have hurt them the most and also so they might be able to have a new beginning. Children of divorce or separation may prefer to migrate out of their areas but feel they are being pushed out of these areas by the divorce or separation feelings they have.

For children whose parents die, either a mother or father, must deal with many adjustments and also may have many problems. They must deal with the parent's death and deal with the absence of that parent. The death of a parent affects each youth differently. A

boy who loses his father may have trouble achieving a masculine identity, and may become delinquent, or do worse in school. Girls losing their mothers have trouble maintaining their feminine identities and may also become rebellious. The major difference between the death of a parent and a divorce of the parents is with a death of a parent the youth does not feel rejected, guilty, or unloved, which are all feelings of a divorced child. In other words, while adjustments need to be made by youth who lose a parent, a perfectly happy, normal life may continue and the family is not broken but is an intact family. Those students coming from an intact family, where both the parents are living and are still married or where one of the parents is deceased, will be less likely to prefer to migrate than those children of divorce or separation. Those students coming from two-parent, happily married homes will be less likely than students from any of the other family situations to prefer to migrate. The youth who come from this type of environment will be basically happy and well adjusted and less likely to prefer to migrate.

Length of Residence

Length of residence influences the preference to migrate but the degree of influence is unsure, due to differing research. Morrison (1971) found length of residence to be important because it could identify those in the population that were highly mobile as well as those who were stayers. Morrison also reports that mobility is facilitated and curtailed by several social factors. Duration or

length of residence is one of these factors and is found to have a moderate influence. Other factors include: age, home ownership, and income. Speare found that length of residence had a negative influence on migration and that length of residence was important in understanding migration and was a significant factor in the study. Speare also found that social bonds were important in relation to length of residence. Social bonds take time to develop and as length of residence increases, friends in the area are more likely to develop. Satisfaction with local facilities and services also increase as length of residence increases. Economic bonds such as home ownership and employment are also important in relation to length of residence (Speare, et al, 1982:554).

Toney found that length of residence varies with the degree of social ties found at the destination area and when social ties are apparent the length of residence was larger than in those places where social ties were absent. These results suggest the importance of social ties particularly family and personal contacts, on length of residence (Toney, 1976). Other studies, including Nijim's, have found that as the length of residence of an individual increases, the desire to leave decreases. Nijim found those residing in an area for less than six years were more likely to migrate than those living in a community for more than six years (Nijim, 1977:147). As length of residence increases, the preference to migration diminishes.

Religion

The relationship between religion and migration preferences is not consistent and no relationship is evidence. Toney (1973) in a study of religious preference and migration between Catholics and Protestants in Rhode Island found that Catholics move to Rhode Island at a higher rate than expected and move out at a lower rate. Toney suggests that the religious composition, which suggests greater community and family ties, attracts Catholics to Rhode Island and holds them there. Utah, however, with a population of 70 percent Mormon is different from any other part of the country. Kan and Kim, in a study of religious affiliation and migration intentions, found that religion and specifically the Mormon church was significant in influencing the migration intentions of residents. Being a member of the Mormon church retards the intention to move, while being a non-Mormon does not retard the intention to move (Kan and Kim, 1981).

Using Everett Lee's framework that religious composition may be viewed as a feature of Utah that attracts members of the Mormon church and is a pull factor. At the same time it may be that religion also acts as a push factor or repelling force for those who are not members of the Mormon church. Kan and Kim's conclusion is religion exerts a significant influence on migration preferences and intentions, though this may be true only of Utah or other religious homogenous areas.

Sex

The relationship between sex and migration preferences shows no consistent pattern. In most studies the relationship was zero (Zuiches, 1980:174). Thadani and Todaro (1979) propose that separate models need to be developed on male and female migration because females differ from males with respect to sex role constraints, employment, and income. In addition, they suggest that the push and pull factors affecting female migration are different from males. Nijim also found this to be consistent with his research, though he did find rural females migrate more than their urban or metropolitan counterparts (Nijim, 1977:158). The implication for preferences and parental wishes is that there is not one sex which is more likely to abide by their parents' preferences.

Present Place of Residence

Another important part of the migration decision is the type of place the student is now residing in, with type of place referring to nonmetropolitan and metropolitan. Studying present place of residence is important in determining migration patterns. Studies by Zuiches and Fuguitt (1975) and Wardwell (1982) have shown the reversal in migration from nonmetropolitan-metropolitan to metropolitan-nonmetropolitan. Their studies also show that preferences to migrate are common of metropolitan residents. Understanding the reversal in migration patterns is important as it signifies a change in the attitudes and preferences of the population. Therefore, the setting or type of residence is

important in understanding migration and migration preferences. Long (1972) found those individuals living in rural areas were much more likely to migrate than those from other areas because economic and educational opportunities were greater in the urban and metropolitan areas. Increased migration for rural residents is also substantiated in studies by Bohlen and Wakely (1950), and Nijim (1977). In Nijim's study there are some interesting results with respect to place of residence and the decision to migrate. Nijim found only six percent of rural high school students planned on staying in rural areas. Rural students who planned to move to metropolitan areas made up 53 percent and 41 percent planned to move to urban areas. In comparison, urban students who planned to stay in urban areas made up 31 percent and 43 percent of the metropolitan students planned to stay in metropolitan areas (Nijim, 1977:95-6). These results are similar to the findings of Long.

Hypotheses

This review of literature suggests that many factors may be related to migration preferences. One of the primary factors seems to be the type of setting with respect to metropolitan and nonmetropolitan distinctions. Because of its overall importance in migration research, a variable which indicates whether current residence is metropolitan or nonmetropolitan is applied as a stratifying variable throughout the analysis. This separate analysis for setting permits an assessment of the relationship

between various independent variables and migration preferences within the respective settings.

The general hypothesis of this study is that personal migration preferences, perceived parental migration preferences, and the consistency between these two preferences will vary by sex, religion, family status, and length of residence. It is also hypothesized that the relationship between the consistency variable and the independent variables will vary by where the youth think (perceive) their parents want them to live. To help guide the analysis, the following more specific hypotheses were formulated around these three dependent variables.

I. Personal Migration Preferences

1. Females will prefer to migrate more often than males.
2. Non-LDS youth will prefer to migrate more often than LDS youth.
3. Youth from broken families will prefer to migrate more often than youth from intact families.
4. Short-term residents will prefer to migrate more often than long-term residents.

II. Perceived Parental Preferences

5. Females will perceive their parents as wanting them to stay less often than will males.
6. Non-LDS youth will perceive their parents as wanting them to stay less often than will LDS youth.

7. Youth from broken families will perceive their parents as wanting them to stay less often than will those from intact families.
8. Short-term residents will perceive their parents as wanting them to stay less often than will long-term residents.

III. Consistency Between Preferences

9. Metropolitan youth will have higher consistency between personal and parental preferences than nonmetropolitan youth.
10. Males will have higher consistency between personal and parental preferences than females.
11. LDS youth will have higher consistency between personal and parental preferences than non-LDS youth.
12. Youth from intact families will have higher consistency between personal and parental preferences than for broken families.
13. Long-term residents will have higher consistency between personal and parental preferences than short-term residents.

IV. Consistency Between Preferences and Independent Variables

14. The relationship between consistency between personal and parental preferences and sex, religion, family status and length of residence, respectively, will vary by where the youth perceive their parents will want them to live.

CHAPTER III

DATA AND METHODS

Sample Design

The primary data used for this study come from a sample survey of Utah's 1980 high school seniors. In 1980 there were 92 public high schools in the state of Utah that function within 29 counties with an enrollment of 20,282 seniors. Because of research interest in making comparisons across metropolitan and nonmetropolitan settings, the 29 counties were classified along this dimension and a stratified sampling technique was employed. The classification revealed 26 nonmetropolitan counties and four metropolitan counties. There were 5,022 students attending non-metropolitan schools and 15,260 attending schools in metropolitan counties. All seniors from the rural area high schools and 23 percent of the seniors in the urban area high schools were included in the sample and make up the nonmetropolitan area students. Of the metropolitan students, nine percent were selected randomly to make up the metropolitan area sample. The response rates for the nonmetropolitan and metropolitan schools were 73 percent and 62 percent respectively. The overall response rate was 68 percent.

Instrument

Although the questionnaire focuses on migration preferences, it also ascertained information about other important items. In addition to migration preferences, students were surveyed concerning

their attitudes toward their community, level of family solidarity, community satisfaction and other personal and social background items. The questionnaire consisted of 45 questions in an 11-page 9" x 6" red booklet.

Collecting the necessary data from the questionnaire was done in the following way. First, the questionnaire, along with written instructions, were personally delivered to the schools for their administration. A letter explaining the questionnaire and its purpose to the respondents was included as part of each questionnaire. The questionnaires were then delivered to the schools three to four weeks prior to graduation and two to three weeks later a majority of the questionnaires were either mailed back or collected. A fee was provided to compensate for the time spent administering the questionnaire.

Methodological Approach

This study was designed to contrast high school seniors residing in metropolitan and nonmetropolitan areas. Cross-tabulations will be the primary method of analysis, with chi square being used to assess differences and associations.

Operational Definitions

A number of variables will be examined in this study to identify which factors are related to migration preferences. For this study there are four independent variables and three dependent variables. The independent variables are 1) family status, 2) parents' length of residence, 3) religion, and 4) sex. The

dependent variables for this study are 1) the personal migration preferences of youth, 2) perceived parental preferences, and 3) the consistency between youths' migration preferences and perceived parents' preferences. Conceptual and operational definitions of these variables are provided below.

Migration Preferences refers to a preference or desire an individual has for where to live. DeJong has said that preferences are a part of the overall decision-making process (DeJong, 1977:177). A preference to migrate is similar to an intention to migrate. In both, the individual plans on whether or not to move. The difference between the two is intention to move is a more formulated decision than a preference. A preference to migrate also deals more with an attitude or desire to move than does a migration intention. The concept of migration preference in this study is measured by the following question from the questionnaire:

Question 5. "Most students seem to have several places in mind in which they might live after graduation. Please complete the chart below about the places in which you are most like to live after graduation" (see Appendix A).

The coding of this question will consist of four categories: 1) stay in Utah, 2) move within nonmetropolitan Utah, 3) move within metropolitan Utah and 4) move out of Utah. Those students who state a preference for a different place than their current county of residence can be considered to be students with a preference to migrate. Those who prefer their present place of residence can be considered to be preferring to stay.

Perceived Parental Preference refers to where youth think or perceive where their parents want them to live. The influence of parents and family on the migration preferences of their children has been discussed briefly in the literature review. The parents' preferences for their children's residence seem likely to have an effect on where that individual prefers to live. The concept of perceived parental preferences is measured in question four below:

Question 4. "Where do you think your parents (guardians) want you to live after graduation? City _____ State _____"

The coding of this question, like question 5, will consist of four categories of classification: 1) stay in Utah, 2) move within nonmetropolitan Utah, 3) move within metropolitan Utah, and 4) move out of Utah.

Consistency refers to whether the county in which the youth prefer to live is the same as or different from the county in which the youth perceives their parents as wanting them to live. The counties are ascertained on the basis of response to the two previous questions, numbers four and five. The preferences were defined as being 1) consistent, if the counties were the same and as 2) inconsistent, if the counties were different.

Family Status refers to the type of family the individual comes from. Family status is measured by using the following question:

Question 16. Are your parents:

() living together (married)

() separated

() divorced

() mother dead

() father dead

For analysis purposes this question will be coded into two categories, intact family and broken family. The intact family will consist of living together (married), mother dead, and father dead, while the broken family will consist of separated and divorced parents.

Length of Residence refers to the amount of time the respondent has lived in their present place of residence. Length of residence can be measured in the following question:

Question 26. "How long have your parents (guardians) lived in this community (since last moved to it)?"

Father: _____ years _____ months

Mother: _____ years _____ months

For analysis purposes, length of residence will be measured by taking the mother's and father's length of residence and averaging them together. The length of residence will be divided into six classifications: 1) 2 years or less, 2) 3 to 5 years, 3) 6 to 10 years, 4) 11 to 16 years, 5) 17 years or more, and 6) all life or native. These classifications are necessary for simplification of analysis and also associations will be easier to find.

Present Place of Residence refers to the place where the student is presently residing. The residence classifications for this study are nonmetropolitan and metropolitan. Students living in counties which are part of an SMSA as designated by the Census Bureau are defined as having a metropolitan place of residence.

These are counties which have a central city of 50,000 or more or other counties whose population is economically integrated into a city that is within another county. Metropolitan counties in Utah included in this study are Utah, Weber and Salt Lake. The other metropolitan county, Davis, is not represented in this study. Counties not meeting criteria to be classified as metropolitan are defined as nonmetropolitan. There were 25 nonmetropolitan counties in Utah when this study was designed. Since the 1980 census Tooele County has been designated as part of an SMSA.

Religion refers to the religious preference of the respondent. Religion was determined through use of the following question:

Question 41. "What is your religion?"

- () LDS
- () Catholic
- () Protestant
- () None
- () Other: Specify _____

Because of the large proportion of LDS (Mormon) in the state of Utah, the other four classifications of religion will be combined into one for analysis. Two religious classifications will then be used, Mormon and non-Mormon (LDS and non-LDS). Religion is important in understanding its influence on the preferences to migrate and especially the influence of the Mormon church on the preference to migrate.

Sex refers to whether the respondent is a male or a female and is measured in the following question:

Question 38. "What is your sex?"

() Male

() Female

Statistical Methods

To test the hypotheses, cross-tabulations were used with chi square to test for significance of association. The city of first preference is the dependent variable, with perceived parental preferences and the consistency between personal migration preferences and perceived parental preferences also acting as dependent variables. The independent variables in this study include: family status, length of residence, religion and sex. In explaining the analysis, three sections will be used. The first section will describe the relationship between current place of residence and migration preferences. The second section describes the relationship of personal attributes - sex, religion, family status, and length of residence with personal migration preferences of youth and perceived parental preferences. The third section describes the consistency between personal and perceived parental preferences.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Current Residence Type and Migration Preferences

Current residence type is significantly related to personal and parental migration preferences. Nonmetropolitan youth are less likely to express a preference for staying in their current place of residence than metropolitan youth. About 66 percent of the metropolitan youth prefer not to move whereas only 41 percent of the nonmetropolitan youth express this preference. The differences are similar with respect to perceived parental preferences. Nonmetropolitan youth are less likely to perceive their parents as preferring them to stay than are youth living in metropolitan areas of Utah. Data are not available to determine why these differences exist. The most reasonable explanation may be that both personal and perceived parental preferences are formulated according to levels of overall opportunity for socio-economic advancement. Since occupational and other opportunities have traditionally been higher in metropolitan areas, the youth and parents may perceive these areas as more suitable places of residence. However, the objective of this study is to determine if metropolitan-nonmetropolitan differences exist in the context of the turnaround. Initially it seemed reasonable to expect that the overall increased retention of nonmetropolitan residents might mean that youth in these areas no

longer preferred to leave to a greater degree than youth in metropolitan areas.

In both metropolitan and nonmetropolitan settings parents are perceived as wanting the youth to stay more frequently than the youth express a preference for staying. Of the metropolitan youth, 79.9 percent perceive their parents as wanting them to stay in their current place of residence whereas only 65.9 percent of the youth expressed a desire to stay. Similarly, of the nonmetropolitan youth, a higher percentage perceived their parents as wanting them to stay than expressed an expectation of wanting to stay, 56.1 and 41.2 percent respectively. These findings are illustrated in Table 1. Interestingly, the percentage point differences of 14 and 15 points are very similar for the two settings. This suggests the degree of consistency may be about the same across the settings. This will be examined more specifically in the latter portion of the analysis.

Migration Preferences and Personal Attributes

In this study four socio-economic or personal attribute variables were examined in relationship to migration preferences of youth and are described below.

Sex. Sex was found to be significantly related to migration preferences. Hence the first hypothesis of this study is supported. Within the types of residences, both metropolitan and

nonmetropolitan, males were more likely than females to express a preference for staying (See Table 1). In metropolitan areas, 69 percent of the males and 63 percent of the females plan to stay while in nonmetropolitan areas the percentages were 44 and 38 percent respectively. These results are not consistent with the bulk of research showing that males and females have similar actual migration propensities (Zuiches, 1980). Each sex was more likely to prefer to migrate if they resided in a nonmetropolitan area.

Similarly, in both areas males were more likely to perceive their parents as wanting them to stay than were females (see Table 1). In metropolitan areas the difference is not statistically significant, while in nonmetropolitan areas there is statistical significance (.01). These results support hypothesis five.

Religion. Religion was found to be significantly related to migration preferences. Therefore the findings support hypothesis two of this study. Whereas 44 percent of the nonmetropolitan LDS students prefer to remain in their current place of residence, only 24 percent of the non-LDS in nonmetropolitan areas prefer to remain in their present areas (see panel 2, Table 1). In metropolitan areas, 53 percent of the non-LDS students and 70 percent of the LDS students prefer to remain in their present areas. The difference between the two religious groups are about equal from one setting to the next. This is consistent with results obtained for adults in nonmetropolitan Utah (Kan and Kim, 1981).

In both settings Mormon youth are also more likely to perceive their parents as wanting them to stay than are non-Mormon youth.

These results support hypothesis six of this study. One possible explanation for this finding is the value and emphasis the Mormon church places on the family. As a result, Mormon youth coming from a close knit family may be more likely to prefer to stay close by and perceive their parents as wanting them to stay. Or it may be that non-Mormons are not integrated into Mormon dominated communities as readily as Mormons.

Family Status. The relationship between migration preferences and family status is not significant. In terms of definition, an intact family is one where the parents are living together and married or where one of the parents is dead. A broken family is defined as any family where the parents are separated or divorced. In non-metropolitan areas, 41.3 percent of the students coming from an intact family prefer to stay compared to 36 percent of the students coming from broken families. This difference, five percentage points, has no statistical significance. Of those coming from broken families in metropolitan areas, 63.3 percent plan to stay compared to 66.6 percent of those from intact families. As was the case with sex and religion, both groups of family types are more likely to have preferences for migrating from nonmetropolitan than from metropolitan areas (see panel 3, Table 1). These findings do not support hypothesis three.

With respect to parental preferences, youth from intact families are not more likely to perceive their parents as wanting them to stay than are those from broken families. Indeed, metropolitan youth from broken families are as likely to perceive

their parents as wanting them to stay as were those from intact families. Youth from intact families in nonmetropolitan areas were a little more likely to perceive their parents as wanting them to stay. The differences are not great enough to support hypothesis seven.

Length of Residence. The relationship between length of residence and migration preferences is significant in metropolitan areas (see Table 1). The relationship in nonmetropolitan areas is marginally significant with respect to personal preferences and no significance is found with respect to perceived parental preferences in nonmetropolitan areas. This does not support hypothesis four as the desire to stay in nonmetropolitan areas is nearly the same for those residing two years or less and those living in the area all their life. This is true with respect for both personal preferences and perceived parental preferences in nonmetropolitan areas. In metropolitan areas hypothesis four gains support as the desire to stay is increased as length of residence increases. With respect to personal preferences, those residing two years or less numbered 54.4 percent and those living in the area all their life numbered 71.6 percent who wanted to stay. Perceived parental preferences in metropolitan areas showed a similar pattern, with 66.7 percent perceiving a preference for them to stay among those who had resided two years or less and 80.3 percent who had lived there all their life (see panel 4, Table 1). These findings support hypothesis four partially.

With respect to perceived parental preferences, youth living in metropolitan areas perceive their parents as wanting them to stay more often than nonmetropolitan youth perceive their parents as wanting them to stay. As a result, metropolitan youth have a higher personal preference for staying when compared to nonmetropolitan youth. Hypothesis eight of this study is not supported in nonmetropolitan areas as perceived parental preferences in nonmetropolitan areas do not increase as length of residence increases. In metropolitan areas the percentage perceiving their parents as wanting them to stay increases with length of residence, thereby supporting hypothesis eight with respect to this particular setting.

Consistency of Personal and Perceived Parental Preferences

Overall, all of the hypothesis were supported. For all categories of youth there appears to be inconsistency between personal and perceived parental preferences. That is, within each subgroup in Table 1, the percentage preferring to stay in their present place of residence is less than the percentage perceiving their parents as wanting them to stay. Overall the percentage of youth preferring to stay in their current place of residence is about 15 percentage points lower than the percentage perceiving their parents as wanting them to stay. This measurement of inconsistency may be misleading since it does not provide a direct comparison of personal and perceived parental preferences.

Results of a direct comparison of the two measures are reported in Table 2. As might be expected, this measure reveals a somewhat higher degree of inconsistency than the previous gross measure did. Of the metropolitan youth, 20.2 percent expressed a preference to live in a place other than the one they perceived their parents as having for them. Of the nonmetropolitan youth with 30.5 percent expressing inconsistency between personal and parental preferences.

Sex. Sex was found to be only marginally significant in relation to consistency between preferences. Analysis shows that 68.8 percent of nonmetropolitan males and 70.3 percent of nonmetropolitan females prefer to live in the same place (county) as they perceive their parents as wanting them to live. About 82 percent of metropolitan males and 78.1 percent of metropolitan females express personal preferences that are consistent with their parents preferences. These results support hypothesis ten of this study only partially as females are more consistent in nonmetropolitan areas but are less consistent in metropolitan areas (see Table 3). The differences are marginally significant in metropolitan areas but not in nonmetropolitan areas.

Hypothesis 14 of this study is supported as the consistency among males and females does vary depending on where their parents are perceived as wanting them to live. The highest degree of consistency between personal and parental preferences among nonmetropolitan youth exists when parents prefer youth to move to metropolitan Utah. In this category of nonmetropolitan youth, the consistency for males is 75.7 percent while consistency for females

is 88.7 percent. This is a statistically significant difference (.01). In metropolitan areas, when parents prefer youth to stay 84.1 percent of males and 78.7 percent of metropolitan females express a preference consistent with their parents perceived preferences and they also prefer them to stay. In conclusion it can be stated that when parents perceived preference is for youth to stay, males are more consistent but when the parents perceived preference is to move, within Utah, females are more consistent with their parents perceived preferences. Males, however, in nonmetropolitan areas when parents perceived preference is to move out of Utah are more consistent than females. High consistency between preferences is evident when parents perceived preference is to move out of Utah. Percentages, with the exception of metropolitan males, are higher for both males and females when compared to the parents perceived preference for youth to stay.

Religion. Religion was found to be significant in relation to consistency between parents perceived preferences and personal preferences. The findings support hypothesis 11 of this study. Whereas 73.2 percent of the personal preferences of nonmetropolitan LDS students are consistent with their parents perceived preference, only 57.3 percent of the personal preferences of non-LDS in nonmetropolitan areas are consistent with their parents preferences. In metropolitan areas, 73.3 percent of the non-LDS youth and 83.9 percent of the LDS youth expressed personal preferences which were consistent with those they perceived their parents as having for them. These differences of 16 and 10 percentage points are both

significant (.01). These differences show that the consistency of LDS students is higher than for students who are non-LDS (see Table 4).

Hypothesis 14 of this study is also supported as the degree of difference between LDS and non-LDS in consistency varies according to where the parents are perceived as wanting youth to live. Consistency is still significant between personal and perceived parental preferences when the parents preference is for the youth to stay, in fact the significance is even more so. When the perceived parental preference is to move, the consistency of LDS and non-LDS changes and the percentages become less significant and little difference is found with respect to consistency for the two religious groups. This is true with the exception of metropolitan students whose perceived parents preference is for them to move to nonmetropolitan Utah. In this case the consistency is higher for non-LDS students and is marginally significant. It is not possible to empirically determine why differences are not significant when the youth perceived their parents as wanting them to leave the state. It may be that in cases where the move is more dramatic, more discussion and resolution of differences have occurred.

Family Status. Family status was found to be only marginally significant in relation to consistency between personal and perceived parental preferences. The findings thereby support hypothesis 12 of this study marginally. In nonmetropolitan areas, 70 percent of youth in intact families and 63 percent of youth in broken families express personal preferences which are consistent

with their perceived parents preference regarding where they should live. In metropolitan areas, 80.1 percent of youth in intact families and 77.6 percent of youth in broken families have personal residential preferences which are consistent with preferences they perceive their parents as having for them (see Table 5).

Findings support hypothesis with respect to the relationship between family status and consistency with parental preferences controlled. The differences in consistency between youth from intact and broken families does vary but is only according to where parents prefer youth to live.

Length of Residence. Length of residence was found to be significant in metropolitan areas and marginally significant in nonmetropolitan areas with respect to consistency between personal and perceived parental preferences. The analysis shows that consistency in nonmetropolitan areas is nearly the same for those residing two years or less and those who have lived in the area all their life, 68.9 and 69.2 percent respectively. For nonmetropolitan areas hypothesis thirteen is not supported. In metropolitan areas there is significance (.05) as 78.6 percent of those residing two years or less are consistent, while 83.2 percent of those living in the area all their life are consistent. These statistics support hypothesis thirteen as long-term residents do show increased consistency. Thus, hypothesis thirteen is partially supported by the analysis (see Table 6).

Hypothesis fourteen of this study is supported as the relationship between consistency and length of residence does vary

depending on where parents want their youth to live. The greatest differences are for nonmetropolitan youth when parents are perceived as preferring youth to stay or to move to nonmetropolitan Utah. Results indicate that when parents prefer youth to stay, those in metropolitan areas are more consistent but the statistics are only marginally significant. Interesting differences can be seen in nonmetropolitan areas when the parents' perceived preference is to move to nonmetropolitan areas. Consistency between preferences for 0-2 years of residence is 63.6 percent and drops to 56 percent for those who have lived in the area all their life. A similar pattern develops in metropolitan areas when the perceived parents preference is a move out of Utah. Consistency between preferences is 86.7 and 81.8 percent for the length of residence periods of 0-2 years and all life.

Summary

This chapter investigated several hypotheses with respect to their relationship with the dependent variables in this study--personal migration preferences, perceived parental preferences, and consistency between preferences. Of the 14 hypotheses tested, only hypotheses three and seven are rejected, while hypotheses four, eight, ten and thirteen were partially supported.

Some of the important findings made in this analysis included:

- 1) Parents are perceived as wanting youth to stay in their current area of residence more frequently than the youth express a

preference for staying, 2) the plans of metropolitan youth are more consistent with their perceived parental preferences compared to nonmetropolitan youth, 3) females, non-LDS youth, youth from broken families, and short term residents of a community all perceived their parents as wanting them to stay less often than their respective counterparts.

Overall the results suggest that parents do influence the residential choices for their children but that the extent of this influence varies by setting, what the perceived parents preferences are, sex, religion, family status, and length of residence.

Table 1. Percentages of Metropolitan and Nonmetropolitan Youth Preferring to Stay and Perceiving Parents as Preferring them to Stay in Current Residence by Sex, Religion, Family Status and Length of Residence

	Personal Preference Percent N	Parental Preference Percent N
<u>Residence Type</u>		
Metropolitan	65.9 (1140) ^a	79.9 (1097) ^a
Nonmetropolitan	41.2 (1697)	56.1 (1511)
<u>Sex</u>		
	<u>METROPOLITAN</u>	
Male	69.1 (544) ^a	81.3 (536)
Female	62.9 (596)	78.6 (561)
	<u>NONMETROPOLITAN</u>	
Male	44.5 (830) ^a	60.9 (751) ^a
Female	38.2 (867)	51.4 (760)
<u>Religion</u>		
	<u>METROPOLITAN</u>	
LDS	70.6 (856) ^a	83.0 (845) ^a
Non-LDS	53.5 (273)	70.8 (240)
	<u>NONMETROPOLITAN</u>	
LDS	43.9 (1443) ^a	58.4 (1295) ^a
Non-LDS	24.5 (245)	40.4 (208)
<u>Family Status</u>		
	<u>METROPOLITAN</u>	
Intact Family	66.6 (971)	79.9 (947)
Broken Family	63.3 (169)	80.5 (159)
	<u>NONMETROPOLITAN</u>	
Intact Family	41.3 (1537)	56.1 (1369)
Broken Family	36.5 (170)	52.6 (152)

Table 1. (continued)

	Personal Preference Percent N	Parental Preference Percent N
<u>Length of Residence</u>		
	<u>METROPOLITAN</u>	
0-2 years	54.4 (79) ^a	66.7 (78) ^a
3-5 years	60.7 (84)	78.2 (78)
6-10 years	62.2 (180)	79.7 (172)
11-16 years	60.6 (165)	74.5 (145)
17 years or more	71.3 (328)	82.5 (331)
Native or All Life	71.6 (148)	80.3 (137)
	<u>NONMETROPOLITAN</u>	
0-2 years	41.0 (156) ^b	57.7 (123)
3-5 years	30.5 (164)	45.5 (143)
6-10 years	37.3 (279)	56.0 (248)
11-16 years	46.6 (206)	56.0 (193)
17 years or more	42.4 (432)	55.7 (388)
Native or All Life	41.0 (229)	58.9 (207)

^a χ^2 significant at .01 level

^b χ^2 significant at .05 level

Table 2. Extent of Consistency Between Youths' Personal Preferences and Perceived Parental Preferences for Youth in Utah by Type of Residence

Residence	Students Current		Total (N)
	Consistent	Inconsistent	
Metropolitan ^a	79.8	20.2	100% (989)
Nonmetropolitan	69.5	30.5	100% (1500)
Total	74.6	25.4	100% (2489)

^a χ^2 significant at .01 level

Table 3. Percentage of Youth Expressing Same Place of Preferred Residence as they Perceive their Parents Wanting them to Live, by Sex, Controlling for Type of Residence and Where Parents Want them to Live

(PERCENT CONSISTENT)		
SEX	NONMETROPOLITAN	METROPOLITAN
Male	68.8 (686)	81.6 (468) ^c
Female	70.3 (714)	78.1 (521)
<u>Parents Preference - Stay</u>		
Male	71.9 (409) ^c	84.1 (377) ^b
Female	69.1 (372)	78.7 (409)
<u>Parents Preference - Move to Utah Metropolitan</u>		
Male	75.7 (70) ^a	83.3 (18)
Female	88.7 (123)	87.5 (24)
<u>Parents Preference - Move to Utah Nonmetropolitan</u>		
Male	53.5 (159)	56.7 (30)
Female	59.8 (174)	60.0 (45)
<u>Parents Preference - Move out of Utah</u>		
Male	83.3 (48) ^c	76.7 (43)
Female	71.1 (45)	86.0 (43)

^a χ^2 significant at .01 level

^b χ^2 significant at .05 level

^c χ^2 significant at .10 level

Table 4. Percentage of Youth Expressing Same Place of Preferred Residence as they Perceive their Parents Want them to Live, by Religion, Controlling for Type of Residence and Where Parents Want them to Live

RELIGION	(PERCENT CONSISTENT)	
	NONMETROPOLITAN	METROPOLITAN
LDS	73.2 (1205) ^a	83.9 (776) ^a
Non-LDS	57.3 (187)	73.3 (211)
<u>Parents Preference - Stay</u>		
LDS	72.9 (700) ^a	84.1 (634) ^a
Non-LDS	48.0 (75)	71.6 (148)
<u>Parents Preference - Move to Utah Metropolitan</u>		
LDS	85.0 (167) ^c	84.6 (39)
Non-LDS	81.5 (27)	100.0 (*)
<u>Parents Preference - Move to Utah Nonmetropolitan</u>		
LDS	77.8 (54)	81.8 (33)
Non-LDS	76.3 (38)	79.6 (49)

^a χ^2 significant at .01 level

^b χ^2 significant at .10 level

* (N) less than 5

Table 5. Percentage of Youth Expressing Same Place of Preferred Residence as they Perceive their Parents Wanting them to Live, by Family Stress, Controlling for Type of Residence and Where Parents Want them to Live

FAMILY STATUS	(PERCENT CONSISTENT)	
	NONMETROPOLITAN	METROPOLITAN
Intact Family	69.9 (1273) ^C	80.1 (850)
Broken Family	63.0 (135)	77.6 (143)
<u>Parents Preference - Stay</u>		
Intact Family	71.2 (711) ^C	81.9 (675)
Broken Family	61.4 (70)	78.6 (117)
<u>Parents Preference - Move to Utah Metropolitan</u>		
Intact Family	83.3 (174)	86.8 (38)
Broken Family	82.4 (17)	66.7 (*)
<u>Parents Preference - Move to Utah Nonmetropolitan</u>		
Intact Family	57.9 (316)	58.2 (67)
Broken Family	52.0 (25)	55.6 (9)
<u>Parents Preference - Move out of Utah</u>		
Intact Family	77.8 (72) ^C	80.3 (71)
Broken Family	65.2 (23)	85.7 (14)

^C χ^2 significant at .10

* (N) less than 5

Table 6. Percentage of Youth Expressing Same Place of Preferred Residence as they Perceive their Parents Wanting them to Live, by Length of Residence, Controlling for Type of Residence and Where Parents Want them to Live

(PERCENT CONSISTENT)		
LENGTH OF RESIDENCE	NONMETROPOLITAN	METROPOLITAN
0-2 years	68.9 (119) ^c	78.6 (70) ^b
3-5 years	72.0 (132)	65.8 (73)
6-10 years	67.2 (235)	78.7 (155)
11-16 years	72.9 (177)	82.2 (135)
17 years or more	68.5 (359)	82.7 (295)
Native or All Life	69.2 (195)	83.2 (131)
<u>Parents Preference - Stay</u>		
0-2 years	68.1 (69) ^b	77.8 (45) ^c
3-5 years	62.9 (62)	69.0 (58)
6-10 years	62.1 (132)	79.0 (124)
11-16 years	79.4 (97)	82.0 (100)
17 years or more	70.6 (197)	84.3 (242)
Native or All Life	69.0 (113)	85.8 (106)
<u>Parents Preference - Move to Utah Metropolitan</u>		
0-2 years	92.3 (13)	100.0 (*) ^c
3-5 years	89.5 (19)	00.0 (*)
6-10 years	81.8 (33)	80.0 (5)
11-16 years	87.5 (24)	88.9 (9)
17 years or more	82.0 (61)	88.9 (18)
Native or All Life	91.3 (23)	100.0 (*)
<u>Parents Preference - Move to Utah Nonmetropolitan</u>		
0-2 years	63.6 (22) ^b	50.0 (6) ^c
3-5 years	71.4 (35)	60.0 (5)
6-10 years	64.9 (57)	83.3 (12)
11-16 years	53.2 (47)	71.4 (14)
17 years or more	53.9 (89)	50.0 (22)
Native or All Life	56.0 (50)	54.5 (11)
<u>Parents Preference - Move out of Utah</u>		
0-2 years	60.0 (15) ^c	86.7 (15) ^c
3-5 years	87.5 (16)	55.6 (9)
6-10 years	92.3 (13)	71.4 (14)
11-16 years	66.7 (9)	91.7 (12)
17 years or more	75.0 (12)	100.0 (13)
Native or All Life	88.9 (9)	81.8 (11)

^b χ^2 significant at .05 level

^c χ^2 significant at .10 level

* (N) less than 5

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The aim of this study was to increase the understanding of how personal migration preferences are related to where youth perceive where their parents want them to live. In addition, other variables were included in this study which play an important part in determining migration. The dependent variables in this study were the personal migration preferences of Utah high school seniors, the perceived preferences of parents and the consistency between parents preferences and the preferences of youth. The independent variables in this study included: family status, length of residence, religion and sex. Type of residence, metropolitan and nonmetropolitan was a stratifying variable.

The theoretical framework guiding this study was Everett Lee's (1966). Lee's theory of migration states that there are four sets of factors--origin, destination, intervening obstacles, and personal factors which determines every migration decision. Migration preferences may be viewed as developing in relation to these sets of factors. Lee's theory is a version of the push-pull theory which hypothesizes that there are certain factors that push individuals out of an area and others that pull individuals into an area. Push-pull theories usually contend that actual migration is based on the perceptions individuals have of alternative locations and preferences are often viewed similarly as based on perceptions.

Empirical studies to which this research is most related are of migration preferences. Zuiches and Fuguitt (1975), who are among the leading researchers in this area, found a large difference between actual and preferred residence. They found people would like the advantages of urban living while living with the benefits of the rural environment. DeJong (1977) maintains that residential preferences are a part of the entire migration decision-making process. He came to a conclusion similar to that of Zuiches and Fuguitt--while people may not want to live in a large city, they don't want to live too far from one.

In studies by Heaton et al, (1979) and Frederickson et al, (1980) preferences were found to play an important role in the decision to migrate and exert an influence on the decision to migrate.

The literature concerned with the other variables also yielded valuable information. A majority of studies found that strong family or kinship ties were effective in slowing down out-migration and that those with a high attachment to family are less likely to migrate. Parents were also found to influence the preferences of their children to migrate and the influence that parents had over their children plays an important part in the lives of their children (Papalia and Olds, 1975). With respect to family status, it was found that the youth hurt the most are those who have suffered through a divorce or separation and these youth also have a stronger desire to migrate. In literature reviewed on length of residence it was found as length of residence increases the desire

to leave decreases. Religion and more specifically the Mormon church was found to be significant in influencing migration preferences and was found to retard migration of LDS students and to retard the migration of non-LDS students in Utah. The relationship between sex and migration preferences shows no consistent pattern according to the literature reviewed.

Some of the limitations of this research include: 1) findings are difficult to generalize to other populations because of Utah's homogeneous population, 2) follow-up studies need to be conducted to see how closely preferences are related to actual migration and 3) no actual data were collected from parents.

Using the data collected from a 1980 survey for high school seniors in Utah, 14 hypotheses were tested. The fourteen hypotheses can be divided into three categories, hypotheses rejected, support partially, and significantly supported.

Rejected

3. Youth from broken families will prefer to migrate more often than youth from intact families.
7. Youth from broken families will perceive their parents as wanting them to stay less often than will those from intact families.

Partially Supported

4. Short-term residents will prefer to migrate more often than long-term residents.
8. Short-term residents will perceive their parents as wanting them to stay less often than will long-term residents.

10. Males will have higher consistency between personal and parental preferences than females.
13. Long-term residents will have higher consistency between personal and parental preferences than short-term residents.

Significantly Supported

1. Females will prefer to migrate more than males.
2. Non-LDS youth will prefer to migrate more often than LDS youth.
5. Females will perceive their parents as wanting them to stay less often than will males.
6. Non-LDS youth will perceive their parents as wanting them to stay more often than will LDS youth.
9. Metropolitan youth will have higher consistency between personal and parental preferences than nonmetropolitan youth.
11. LDS youth will have higher consistency between personal and parental preferences than non-LDS youth.
12. Youth from intact families will have higher consistency between personal and parental preferences than broken families.
14. The relationship between consistency between personal and parental preferences and sex, religion, family status and length of residence, respectively, will vary by where the youth perceive their parents will want them to live.

Conclusions

Utah youth in nonmetropolitan areas have a greater preference to migrate than do students living in metropolitan areas. Metropolitan parents are also perceived by the youth as preferring them to stay to a higher degree than are nonmetropolitan parents. With respect to personal migration preferences, this research shows that females prefer to move more often than males, and that high school students who are non-LDS will have a greater preference to migrate than LDS youth. The analysis does not support the hypothesis that students coming from a broken family are much more likely to prefer to migrate than are students coming from intact families.

In addition, the hypothesis that students with a shorter length of residence will prefer to migrate more than students with a longer length of residence is only partially supported. The results with respect to perceived parental preferences indicate that females perceive their parents as wanting them to stay less often than males, and that non-LDS youth perceive their parents as wanting them to stay less often than LDS youth. The analysis does not support the hypothesis that youth from broken families perceive their parents as wanting them to stay less often than youth from intact families. In addition, the hypothesis that students with a short-term length of residence will perceive their parents as wanting them to stay less often than long-term resident youth is only partially supported.

Research with respect to consistency of personal and perceived parental preferences found that the plans of metropolitan youth are more consistent with the perceived preferences of their parents when compared to nonmetropolitan youth. The research marginally supports the idea that males will be more consistent with the perceived preferences of their parents when compared to females. The results of this study suggest that the preferences of LDS (Mormon) youth are more consistent with their parents perceived preferences when compared to non-LDS youth. Research also marginally supports the idea that the preferences of long-term residents are more consistent with the perceived preferences of their parents when compared to youth residing in the community a short length of time. Results with respect to consistency also found that consistency was highest when the parents are perceived as wanting youth to stay in their current place of residence and lowest when the parents are perceived as wanting the youth to move to a nonmetropolitan area. Surprisingly, youth who expect to leave the state of Utah perceive their parents as preferring such a move as frequently as those expecting to move within the state of Utah.

This thesis has value both practically and theoretically. In a practical sense this study can provide parents information as to the influence they have on youth's migration plans and the importance of their influence. This thesis also has value to religious leaders, showing them the influence of the Mormon church and how it attracts members of the Mormon church and repels non-members. Other

practical values are in evidence in this study but the theoretical value of this thesis is probably more important.

This study contributes knowledge to many fields in Sociology. Few studies have been conducted on parental preferences and this study provides relevant data concerning the relationship between parental preferences and personal preferences of youth. This study reflects the importance of parental influence in shaping the youths migration decision and this is important in the area of migration research as well as social psychology and sociology of the family. With respect to sociology of the family this research provides valuable information on the relationship between the family and parents on personal migration preferences of youth. More importantly this study contributes relevant knowledge concerning the attitudes, values and desires of individuals and can give further insight about the individual. The results of this study suggest perceived parental preferences do influence personal migration preferences of youth. The results also suggest that the influence of parents on migration preferences of youth vary by setting, perceived parental preference, sex, religion, family status and length of residence.

Future research needs to be conducted on migration preferences to see the impact on actual migration. Follow-up studies need to be conducted to see how closely migration preferences are related to actual migration. More importantly, surveys need to be conducted collecting data from parents to better evaluate the influence that parents have on migration plans and preferences of youth.

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APPENDIX

Appendix AStatewide Survey

STATEWIDE SURVEY
of the 1980 High School
Graduates of Utah



Conducted by the Department of
Sociology at Utah State University
in cooperation with the
Utah State Board of Education

DATE: _____

NAME OF SCHOOL: _____

1. Do you have definite plans about what you will be doing after graduation from high school?

☐ No
☐ Yes

If yes, what are the plans?

2. Do you have definite plans about where you will live after graduation from high school?

☐ No (If NO, skip to question #3)
☐ Yes (If YES, answer 2A, 2B, 2C, 2D and skip question #3)

- 2A. In what city (place) will that be? _____
 In what state? _____
- 2B. How long do you expect to live there? _____ Years _____ Months
- 2C. Why have you selected this particular place to live?
- 2D. If this place is different from your present community, when do you expect to move there? Month _____ Year _____

3. Do you have any idea as to a particular place that you are most likely to live after graduation?

☐ No (If NO, skip to question #4)
☐ Yes (If YES, answer 3A, 3B, 3C, 3D and go to question #4)

- 3A. In what city will that be? _____ State _____
- 3B. How long do you expect to live there? _____ Years _____ Months
- 3C. Why have you selected this particular place as the one that you are most likely to live?
- 3D. If this place is different from your present community, when do you expect to move there? Month _____ Year _____

4. Where do you think your parents(guardians) want you to live after graduation?
 City _____ State _____

5. Most students seem to have several places in mind in which they might live after graduation. Please complete the chart below about the places in which you are most likely to live after graduation.

		First Preference	Second Preference
Possible Place of Residence →	City-----→	_____	_____
	State-----→	_____	_____
Reasons for Preferring the Place (Use <u>letters</u> from below) →	Most important--→	_____	_____
	2nd most-----→	_____	_____
	3rd most-----→	_____	_____
	4th most-----→	_____	_____
At these places, how <u>many</u> of the following live there →	Brothers and Sisters--→	_____	_____
	Other adult Relatives--→	_____	_____
	Friends-----→	_____	_____
Check(✓) if you have: →	Lived there----→	_____	_____
	Visited there--→	_____	_____
What type of work would you expect to do (Include housewife or school if applicable) →			
How much money would you expect to earn per month, if applicable _____→			

A. To be near parents	J. Already have job there
B. To be near relatives	K. To earn the most money
C. To be far away from relatives	L. To go to school
D. To be near friends	M. Recreational and entertainment opportunity
E. To be near people of my religion	N. Small size place
F. Spouse's (husband/wife) choice of residence	O. Large size place
G. To find the <u>best</u> job	P. Climate
H. To find a <u>good</u> job	Q. Already acquainted with place
I. Type work	R. Others: specify _____
	S. To be near people of my own race _____

6. How many of your closest friends do you think will be living in the same area you most likely will be living?

☐ all
☐ most
☐ few
☐ none

- 6A. Approximately how many friends is this?
_____ (number)

7. Where do you think you are most likely to live most of the remainder of your life?

City _____ State _____

8. Which of the following are you planning to do just after graduation?
(you may check more than one)

☐ go to college
☐ become a housewife
☐ enter military service
☐ go on a church mission
☐ start a work career
☐ other: specify _____

If you did not mark one of the last two possibilities, skip to question #10.

9. Do you already have a full-time job (or a promise of one) at which you will be working after graduation?

☐ No (If NO, go to question #10)
☐ Yes

If YES, please supply the following information about the work. →

9A. Type of work _____

9B. For whom will the work be? _____

9C. What will the weekly pay for the work be? \$ _____

9D. Where is the work located? City _____ State _____

9E. How did you obtain the job (or promise of one)? _____

9F. Do you think you could find a better job if you moved to a different place?

☐ No
☐ Yes

9G. How long do you expect to work in this job? Months _____ Years _____

10. In the long run, what career (job) do you plan to engage in? _____

11. Would you please rank the things on the list below about a job you would most prefer, which comes next, which third and so forth?

<u>A job in which:</u>	<u>Rank from 1 (most preferrable) to 6 (least prefer)</u>
a. Income is steady	_____
b. Income is high	_____
c. There's no danger of being fired or unemployed	_____
d. Working hours are short, lots of free time	_____
e. Chances for advancement are good	_____
f. The work is important, gives a feeling of accomplishment	_____

12. Please fill in the chart below about places you have lived.

City	State	# of years lived there	Reason family(you) left the place

13. Where were you born? City (place) _____

State _____

Country _____

14. Where was your father born? City _____
State _____
Country _____
Don't know _____
15. Where was your mother born? City _____
State _____
Country _____
Don't know _____
16. Are your parents:
[] living together
[] separated
[] divorced
[] mother dead
[] father dead
17. How many brothers and sisters do you have?
_____ sisters
_____ brothers
18. How many of them are older than you?
_____ sisters
_____ brothers
19. How many of them presently live at home?
_____ sisters
_____ brothers
20. How many of them presently live in your present community but not in the same house as you?
_____ sisters
_____ brothers
21. How many of them live in another community in Utah?
_____ sisters
_____ brothers

22. How many of them live outside the State of Utah?

____ sisters
 ____ brothers

23. About how many other adult relatives do you have in the following places:

____ Number living in your present community
 ____ Number living in another community in the State of Utah
 ____ Number living outside the State of Utah

24. Here are statements about how people may feel about their families. Beside each of the statements listed below, please indicate whether you strongly agree (SA), agree (A), undecided (U), disagree (D), strongly disagree (SD) with the statement with respect to your own family.

	SA	A	U	D	SD
a. One ought to discuss important plans with her(his) family. -----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
b. One should confide more fully in members of his family. -----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
d. Home is the most pleasant place in the world. -----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
f. A person should be willing to sacrifice everything to his family. -----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

25. Would you please complete the following chart in order to supply us a little information about your parents (or guardians if you are not living with your parents).

	Name of Place Now Living		Age	Working Now	Present or Last Occupation	Employer	Highest Grade of School/College Completed
	City	State					
Father				Yes []			
				No []			
Mother				Yes []			
				No []			

26. How long have your parents(guardians) lived in this community (since last moved to it)?

Father: _____ Years _____ Months

Mother: _____ Years _____ Months

27. Does your family(guardian):

[] own your present place of residence

[] rent

[] other: specify _____

28. To what extent is your family satisfied with living in this community and in the present house(apartment)?

	Very Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Satisfied	Pretty Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
In the community					
With the house					

29. With whom do you live?

[] parent(s)

[] other: specify _____

30. Are you living:

[] in an apartment

[] in a house with no more land than for a small garden

[] on a farm

[] other: specify _____

31. How long have you lived in this particular house (apartment) (since last moving to it). _____

32. How many rooms, not counting bathrooms, are in your present home (apartment)? _____

_____ Total number of rooms (including bedrooms)

33. List about five characteristics (features) of your community that you like most and five that you dislike most in order of importance.

Five like most:	Five dislike most:
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.
5.	5.

34. Here are statements that describe how people in their own local communities often feel about each other. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement regarding your own community. Follow the same procedure as with question #24.

	SA	A	U	D	SD
a. Real friends are hard to find in this community. -----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
b. Almost everyone is polite and courteous to you. -----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
c. People in this community give you a bad name if you insist on being different. --	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
d. I feel very much I belong here. -----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
e. People are generally critical of others in this community. -----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
f. The community is very peaceful and orderly. -----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
h. You are out of luck here if you happen to be different. -----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

35. Have you held any school offices during high school?

[] No
[] Yes

35A. If YES, which ones? _____

36. Here is a list of some high school, church and community activities and organizations. Please supply the requested information about your participation in each.

	<u>Amount of Participation</u>				
	<u>Frequently</u>	<u>Fairly Often</u>	<u>Occasionally</u>	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Never</u>
Sports teams -----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Music groups (band, voice, etc.)----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Dramatic productions ----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
FFA -----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
PHA -----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Honor Societies -----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Student Government -----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Church-connected groups --	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Girls League, Boys League-	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts --	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Other: specify _____					

36A. Approximately what is your grade point average? _____

37. What is your marital status?

[] not dating any one person steadily
[] dating one special person but not engaged
[] engaged
[] married
[] other: specify _____

37A. If not married, by what age do you expect to marry?

_____ age _____ never

37B. If you are married or plan to marry, about how many children will you have?

38. What is your sex?

- ☐ male
☐ female

39. When were you born? _____ month _____ day _____ year

40. What is your race?

- ☐ Caucasian (White)
☐ Negro
☐ Indian
☐ Oriental
☐ Other: specify _____

41. What is your religion?

- ☐ LDS
☐ Catholic
☐ Protestant
☐ None
☐ Other: specify _____

42. How many times do you usually attend church services during a month?

_____ Number of times

In order to complete this study and determine what you and your fellow graduates do and how things are going for you, we must be able to contact you in the future. The following information will be used for that purpose only. All information will be kept confidential.

43. Your name and present address:

NAME _____
STREET (Box #) _____
CITY _____ STATE _____ ZIP _____
TELEPHONE NO. _____

44. Parents or guardians name and address:

NAME _____
STREET (Box #) _____
CITY _____ STATE _____ ZIP _____
TELEPHONE NO. _____

45. List two or three names (and address if you know) of other relatives, friends, church officials or school officials who you feel are most likely to know where you are in 6 months or one year.

NAME _____
STREET _____
CITY _____ STATE _____ ZIP _____
TELEPHONE NO. _____

NAME _____
STREET _____
CITY _____ STATE _____ ZIP _____
TELEPHONE NO. _____

NAME _____
STREET _____
CITY _____ STATE _____ ZIP _____
TELEPHONE NO. _____

Thank you very much. We appreciate your cooperation and assure you that the information is confidential and will not be used for purposes other than this study. Good luck in your endeavors!

VITA

A. John LaCognata

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: Factors Related to the Migration Preferences of Utah's
1980 High School Seniors

Major Field: Sociology

Biographical Information:

Personal Data: Born in Hawthorne, Los Angeles, California, July 27, 1956, son of Arthur and Donna LaCognata. Married, former Peggy Linge of Centerville, Utah, June 16, 1978, two children, Lachelle, age three, and Michael, age eight months.

Education: Attended elementary school, junior high, and high school in El Segundo, California, graduated from El Segundo High School in June of 1974, attended Ricks Junior College, Brigham Young University and Utah State University, received the Bachelor of Science degree from Utah State University with a major in Sociology in 1980, completed the requirements for the Master of Science degree in Sociology at Utah State University in 1983.

Awards: Teaching Assistant, Utah State University, 1982.