

*Gender Differences in the Predicators of Intention to Attend University using an
Extended Theory of Planned Behaviour Model*

Grant Cooper, RMIT University, Australia
Rob Strathdee, RMIT University, Australia
Tasos Barkatsas, RMIT University, Australia

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Abstract

Despite claims made in previous research reporting the elicitation of students' intentions to study at university, from a social cognitive perspective, these studies' conceptualisation of intent may be closer to students' hopes or aspirations. There is evidence to suggest that behavioural intention, as it is defined in this study, is an effective proxy measure of future behaviour (Ajzen, 2014). The aim of this study is to investigate if there are significant differences between genders in relation to the predicators of intention to attend university using an Extended Theory of Planned Behaviour Model (TPB). 252 year 12 students completed a survey questionnaire eliciting the constructs described in the extended TPB model. Structural Equation modeling (SEM) and multigroup analysis was used to examine predicators of students' behavioural intention to attend university and afterwards, differences in these predicators between gender. The results reported in this study may support the idea that males' attitudes are more important in the formation of behavioural intention compared to females. At the same time, females were typically more influenced by subjective norm and perceived behavioural control. These results may have implications for those designing interventions aiming to increase university attendance.

Keywords: Theory of Planned Behaviour, higher-education, social-psychology

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Introduction

A construct that has received much attention in the field of social psychology is that of intention. Intention is formed by a number of beliefs representing the perceptions that people have about a behaviour including its likely consequences, the normative expectations of others, and the likely barriers of performing a particular behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen, 2005; Fishbein & Cappella, 2006; Kautonen, Gelderen & Tornikoski, 2013). Intention is considered a highly significant predictor of future behaviour (Ajzen, 2005) and this study aims to extend understanding of students' intentions to attend university and its predictors. If the salient predictors of intention can be measured, the intention to attend university, and theoretically future behaviour, can be incorporated into interventions aiming to increase such outcomes. The TPB has been utilised successfully to explain the predictors of a range of behaviours (Armitage & Conner, 2002). While Ajzen's conceptualisation of intention has been used across different fields of research, the field of education research has not been as eager to embrace a psycho-social explanation of intention and/or behaviour (Taylor, 2015).

Although there are studies that report to elicit students' intentions to study at university (e.g. James, 2002; Davies, Qui and Davies, 2014), at least from a social cognitive perspective, these studies' conceptualisations of intention could be considered inadequate. The ontological limitation of how intention has been defined in the current literature is a seminal reason supporting the rationale for the present study. For example, James (2002) asks students in his survey instrument if they are "Definitely planning to enrol in a university course" (p.31) and "Hoping to go to university but may not be able to" (p.31). In order to accurately measure one's intention to perform a future behaviour, research instruments must ask a series of validated questions that measure their attitudes, subjective norms and perceptions of behavioural control (Ajzen, 2005). Compared with Ajzen's explanation of intention, James' questions are more representative of students' hopes or aspirations. Additionally, there was no evidence of reliability testing of the instrument (e.g. Cronbach's alpha). James' research raises questions not only about statistical reliability, but more importantly, about the ontological merits of how he has conceptualised intention. This is not an issue of semantics; the main concern here is the validity of the evidence purporting to represent students' intentions to go to university. More recent research by Davies, Qui and Davies' (2014) highlights similar problems. Davis et al's study (2014) attempted to synthesise economic analyses theory and sociological concepts to explore students' intentions to participate in higher education. They reported that students' intentions were predominantly formed by their own prior educational achievement, parent's education, students' knowledge, their interpretations of the labour market and expectations of graduate premium (e.g. Higher pay job with a degree). While it could be argued that Davis et al's study highlighted important influences on students' intentions to study at university, their measurement of what they describe as intention did not include any discussion of salient predictors of behaviour such as self-efficacy or consideration of social influences other than parents (e.g. Peers or teachers). Compared with Ajzen's treatment of intention, Davis et al's conceptualisation of intention is arguably too heavily rooted in human capital theory (e.g. Fiscal/labour market trends as significant motivators to attend university) to explore other salient psychosocial factors that are likely to affect students' intentions. The core weaknesses of both James' and Davis et

al's research is a evidence base supporting their framing of intention as somehow representative of students' future behaviour.

A major contribution of the present study is to advance the conceptualisation and measurement of students' intentions in the education research field. The ontological framing of intention used in this study is expected to be a more accurate measure of the future likelihood of students actually attending university in the future compared to previous research (e.g. James, 2002; Davies, Qui & Davies, 2014). Based on the former, there is a strong rationale for using a psychosocial model to investigate students' intentions to attend university.

The Theory of Planned Behaviour

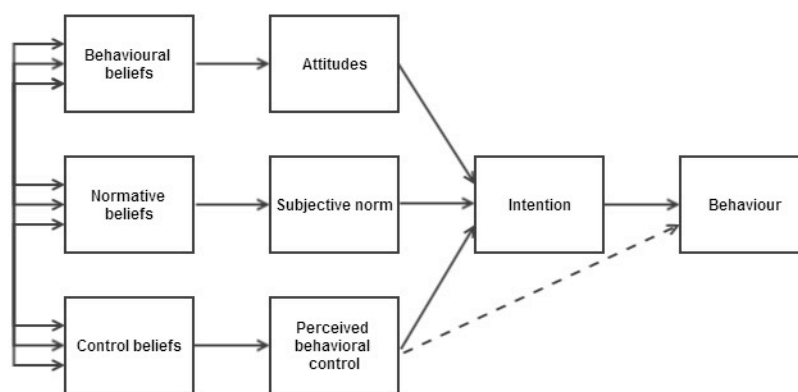


Figure 1. Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991)

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991, Figure 1) is used as the primary theoretical framework of this study. The TPB has been in studies examining intention and entrepreneurial behaviour (Kautonen , Gelderen & Tornikoski, 2013), environmental conservation intent (Wauters, Bielders, Poesen, Govers & Mathijs, 2010), safe sex practices (Fisher, Fisher, Bryan & Misovich, 2002; Sutton, McVey & Glanz, 1999), exercise behaviours (Ickes & Sharma, 2011), sleeping patterns and intentions (Knowlden, Sharma & Bernard, 2012), dangerous driving behaviours (Elliott, Armitage & Baughan, 2003) and drug use (Hu & Lanese 1998; Norman, Conner & Bell 1999). Researchers have used the TPB in a number of ways to predict and explore reasons for different human behaviour.

Attitudes

Attitude is defined in the TPB model as the perceived positive or negative evaluation of the behaviour in question (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). For example, a person who strongly believes that a particular behaviour is likely to produce a favourable outcome is more likely to perform that behaviour. Likewise, if a person strongly believed that a particular behaviour would result in a negative outcome, they would have negative attitudes towards that behaviour and therefore be less likely to perform the particular behaviour. Attitudes can be categorised as cognitive and affective. For example, one's perception of enrolling at university may include cognitive beliefs about the act,

such as whether they believe that studying for a degree is beneficial as well as affective evaluations, such as whether they feel that studying for a degree is advantageous.

Subjective norm

The second proximal construct underpinning intention is subjective norm. Subjective norm is determined by the person's beliefs about how important others think about the specific behaviour and whether important others would approve or disapprove of a given behaviour (Ajzen, 2005; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1976). There is a strong body of research that suggests behaviours are shaped strongly by the social context in which one lives (Ajzen, 2005; Fishbein & Cappella, 2006; Gale, Parker, Rodd, Stratton & Moore, 2013; Norman, Conner & Bell, 1999). Research indicates that social influences varies according to the behaviour being examined (Ajzen, 2005). Depending on the behaviour in question, important others may include family, friends or spouse (Ajzen, 1991). In professional fields, important others may include job supervisors (Renzi & Klobas, 2008) or lecturers in a university environment concerning students (Cooper, Kenny & Fraser, 2012). Of particular relevance to this study, Taylor (2015) reported that the two main normative influences on students' subject choices in their study in the UK, were parents and teachers.

Perceived Behavioural Control

The third proximal construct of the TPB is Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC). PBC is defined as the person's own perception of how easy or difficult it is to perform a particular behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). In other words, PBC measures an individuals' perception that they are sufficiently knowledgeable, skillful, disciplined, and able to perform a particular behaviour (Ajzen, 2005; Kraft, Rise, Sutton, & Roysamb, 2005). Ajzen (1991) stated that the framing of perceived behavioural control stemmed from the concept of self-efficacy. Likewise, Fishbein and Cappella (2006) stated that PBC and self-efficacy are the same concept.

The author is unaware of any research that has used the TPB to explain students' intentions to attend university. There is also a limited amount of research using the TPB to explain and predict students' pathways at different levels of education (e.g. High school). The studies discussed above indicate that use of the model may be of significant value if applied to students' intentions to study at university. Supported in-part by the studies discussed, the thesis advances the argument by aiming to improve current understanding of why students intend to study higher education, and in particular, possible differences between genders.

Limitations of the TPB

It is important to consider the limitations of the TPB because of its significant to this study. Considering the prevalent use of this model, it is perhaps unsurprising that researchers have extensively critiqued the TPB, and identified ways that the model can be improved. A meta-analysis of 185 studies investigating the predictive power of the TPB for a variety of health-related behaviours, reported an average of between 27% and 39% of the variance in behaviour and intention respectively (Armitage &

Connors, 2002). However, Bogers, Brug, Van Assema and Dagnelie's (2004) analysis suggest the predictive power is much higher. These authors dispute the results of Armitage and Connors' meta-analysis, arguing some of the studies included in the meta-analysis were poorly designed and not aligned with the guidelines suggested by Ajzen. As discussed, and of particular significance to the present study, Taylor (2015) used the TPB to explain students' subject choices in senior secondary schools. Her study indicated that the TPB constructs explained between 66% and 68% of the variance in intentions (Taylor, 2015). Taylor concluded that students are likely to spend considerable time planning their subject choice considering the high stakes and possible consequences of a 'bad decision'. Therefore, the behaviour is likely to be highly planned (Taylor, 2015). Nevertheless, Ajzen (2014) conceded that the model does not fully explain future behaviour. Even when the measures are carefully constructed reliabilities rarely exceed 80% (Ajzen, 2014).

Using an Extended Theory of Planned Behaviour Model to examine Students' Intentions to study at University

As with any framework there are limitations and it is accepted that the TPB model is not likely to capture all the beliefs or factors underpinning intent and behaviour. Considering the complexity associated in explaining intention and behaviour, it is generally accepted there are other determinates that may improve the efficacy of the model to explain and predict behaviour. Attempts have been made to address the perceived weaknesses of the TPB by extending the original model (Cristea, Paran & Delhomme, 2013; Heath & Gifford, 2002; Rise, Kovac, Kraft & Moan, 2008).

The construct of self-concept has commonly been used to improve the efficacy of the TPB model in explaining participants' intentions (Armitage & Connor, 1998; Booth, Norman, Harris & Goyder, 2014). An important element of a person's self-concepts is one's academic self-concept (Marsh, 2002). There is research to suggest that academic self-concept and academic achievement are significantly associated with each other (Guay, Marsh and Boivin, 2003; Marsh, 2007; Parker, Marsh, Ciarrochi, Marshall & Abduljabbar, 2014). Moreover, academic self-concept may have a considerable effect on students' educational pathways including post school transitions to further education (Marsh, Byrne & Yeung, 1999). Others state similar findings, suggesting that students with low academic self-concept are less likely to choose more difficult coursework in schools, engage in additional educational opportunities and apply for more competitive courses (Marsh, 2007; Nagy, Trautwein, Baumert, Koller, & Garrett, 2006). A major contribution of the present study will be to investigate academic self-concept, net of other variables, as a predictor of student's intent to study at university. The different types of academic self-concepts measured in this study include general, verbal and mathematical.

How intention formation may differ between genders

Gender may be an important consideration when examining intention, behaviour and possible reasons for variance. Females have higher participation rates in university education when compared to males in 88% of all OECD countries (OECD, 2012). The gender ratio for domestic graduates in Australian universities is approximately 6:4 in favour of females (Martin, 2015). This gender imbalance may be largely explained by primary education and nursing- two highly feminised professions, being moved into the universities (Maslen, 2013). While girls typically have more positive

academic aspirations and attitudes than boys, the impact of gender on children's attitudes and aspirations to university study vary significantly with parent education and attitudes to study, age and different perceptions regarding the value of education (Rampino & Taylor, 2013). There is research to suggest that typically males are more responsive than females to positive parental influences, while educational attitudes and aspirations of boys deteriorate at a relatively younger age (Rampino & Taylor, 2013).

Aim of the study

The primary aim of this study is to examine if there are gender differences between the predictors of intention to attend university using an Extended Theory of Planned Behaviour Model.

Method and Analysis

A survey questionnaire aligned with the TPB constructs in addition to social economic status (ICSEA [Index of Community Socio-Educational Advantage], Mother's employment index number [AUSEI06], Father's AUSEI06, books at home), indicators of ethnicity, school type and other demographical questions was administered to attendees of the VCE Futures Expo 2015 in Melbourne Australia. The survey instrument is shown in Appendix 1. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is used to analyze the data collected. Furthermore, a critical ratio difference test is used (Byrne, 2013), where the regression weight estimate is divided by its standard error in order to get a z-score indicating significant ($\alpha=.05$) differences between groups.

Participants

252 year 12 students participated in the present study. When broken into gender, 43.3% (n=109) of the sample reported to be male while 56.7% indicated female (n=143). 64.7% (n=163) of the sample reported attending a government school while 35.3% (n=89) indicated that they attend a catholic or independent school. 87.3% (n=220) of students were born in Australia while 12.7% (n=32) reported being born overseas. 85.7% (n=216) of the sample use English as their main language at home. 60.3% (n=152) of the sample reported no religious affiliation while over a quarter (28.2%, n=71) stated a religious affiliation with Christianity.

The Australian Standard Geographical Classification - Remoteness Area (ASGC-RA) is a geographic classification system by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), as a statistical geography structure which allows quantitative comparisons between 'city' and 'country' Australia (Australian Government, 2015). 2015). Categorised according to the ASGC-RA classification, 71% of students reported their enrolment in a school (n=53) located in a *Major Cities of Australia* area. 26% of students reported their enrolment in a school (n=19) located in the *Inner Regional Australia* zone. 3% of students reported their enrolment in a school (n=2) located in *Outer Regional Australia*.

Table 1

Mean, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis

Construct	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
ICSEA NUMBER	1027.21	61.281	0.572	-0.297
Mother's AUSEI06 score	50.502	22.4058	0.556	-1.326
Father's AUSEI06 score	52.2635	22.7714	0.273	-1.396
Books	113.29	74.885	0.002	-1.611
Intent1	5.9	1.587	-1.504	1.461
Intent2	5.91	1.607	-1.529	1.457
Intent3	5.87	1.613	-1.477	1.367
Intent4	5.9	1.568	-1.465	1.351
Intent5	6	1.596	-1.702	2.048
Att1	6.24	1.278	-1.853	3.01
Att2	6.23	1.243	-1.903	3.418
Att3	5.96	1.355	-1.355	1.353
Att4	5.98	1.348	-1.536	2.276
subnorm1	5.89	1.401	-1.473	1.864
subnorm2	5.6	1.585	-1.245	0.966
subnorm3	5.6	1.544	-1.037	0.384
Pbc1	5.94	1.43	-1.463	1.75
Pbc2	5.56	1.448	-0.969	0.481
Pbc3	5.73	1.482	-1.193	0.844
genac1	5.52	1.261	-0.815	0.297
genac2	5.11	1.528	-0.661	-0.183
genac3	5.27	1.403	-0.759	0.297
Verac1	4.91	1.628	-0.64	-0.253
Verac2	4.81	1.686	-0.53	-0.487
Verac3	4.94	1.628	-0.668	-0.295
Mamac1	4.91	1.77	-0.536	-0.694
Mamac2	4.68	1.951	-0.492	-0.872
Mamac3	4.8	1.779	-0.559	-0.599

Results**Descriptive Statistics**

Shown in Table 1, the descriptive statistics from the survey data are presented. SEM is fairly robust against non-normal distribution; even with skewness results as high as 3 and kurtosis measures equal to 10 as acceptable (Kline, 2005; West et al., 1995). Inspecting Table 1, various items departure from normality, although all measures fit well within the recommended guidelines by Kline and West et al.

Table 2

GOF Measures of UPIF

GOF Measure	Result	Acceptable thresholds (Hu & Bentler, 1999)
χ^2 [df](sig)	654.55 [424] ($p < .001$)	($p > 0.05$)
χ^2 /df	1.68	≤ 3
RMSEA	.052 PCLOSE (.277)	$\leq .08$ + (PCLOSE $> .05$)
AGFI	0.82	$\geq .80$
SRMR	0.049	$\leq .09$
CFI	0.96	$\geq .95$
TLI	0.954	$\geq .95$
PGFI	.7	^
PNFI	.783	^

^=No specific recommendations: Score ranges between: 0=poor fit-1=very good fit (Mulaik et al 1989)

Measurement model

As shown in Table 2, absolute fit measures χ^2 /df=1.63 ($0-3 \leq$), RMSEA measured=.052, PCLOSE (.277) and AGFI=.82 ($>.80$) and incremental measures CFI= 0.96 ($>.95$), TFI=0.954 ($>.95$). The parsimony measures = .7 for the PGFI and .783 for the PNFI respectively. Despite the χ^2 [df] being significant, for reasons discussed previously (e.g. χ^2 is sensitive to sample size, χ^2 /df better indicator >200), goodness of fit statistics confirmed that the model was an adequate fit of the data.

Table 3

Validity and Reliability measures

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	BI	Att	SN	PBC	GenAC	VerbA	MamA	SES	Eth
BI	0.984	0.924	0.717	0.323	0.961								
Att	0.950	0.827	0.796	0.341	0.847	0.909							
SN	0.880	0.711	0.663	0.304	0.742	0.735	0.843						
PBC	0.850	0.655	0.796	0.383	0.826	0.892	0.814	0.809					
GenA	0.871	0.692	0.471	0.266	0.538	0.576	0.557	0.686	0.832				
VerbA	0.927	0.810	0.396	0.116	0.277	0.355	0.272	0.424	0.629	0.900			
MamA	0.919	0.792	0.278	0.098	0.290	0.279	0.382	0.347	0.527	0.227	0.890		
SES	0.754	0.413	0.142	0.067	0.351	0.315	0.264	0.377	0.224	0.158	0.157	0.643	
Eth	0.763	0.450	0.080	0.024	0.244	0.191	0.282	0.117	-0.025	0.027	-0.019	0.043	0.671

BI= Behavioural Intention Att=Attitude, SN=Subjective norm, PBC=Perceived Behavioural Control, GenAC=General Academic Self Concept
VerbA= Verbal Academic Self Concept, MamA=Mathematical Academic Self Concept, SES=Socio-economic Status, Eth=Ethnicity

Validity

Convergent Validity is indicated by examining the CR > .7 and AVE > .5 (Hair et al., 2014). As shown in Table 3, all constructs meet the minimum acceptable CR. Most constructs exceeded the more conservative measure AVE except for SES (.413) and ethnicity (.450) as indicated by the bold highlighting in the table. Considering that SES and ethnicity are both conceptually multi-dimensional in nature and notoriously difficult to measure (Jones, 2013, Marks 2000), the satisfaction of the CR criteria was deemed to indicate acceptable levels of convergent validity.

Discriminant validity was measured using three criteria including criterion 1) MSV < AVE, criterion 2) The square root of the AVE for each construct is less than one the absolute value of the correlations with another factor and criterion 3) All standard factor loadings > .3 as recommended by Hair et al. (2014). Table 3 indicates that all constructs exceeded MSV < AVE except PBC (MSV = .796/ AVE = .655). Likewise, the square root of the AVE for PBC is less than one the absolute value of the correlations with another factor (.809). These data indicate relatively high levels of shared variance with the attitude latent construct and this potential limitation should be kept in mind when interpreting results. Otherwise, all other constructs satisfy criterion 2 and 3.

Table 4

Parameter Estimates

Hypotheses	Relationship (positive)	Standardised regression weights (β)	C.R. (t)	Supported
H1	Att → BI	.501	4.6	YES***
H2	SN → BI	.136	2.22	YES*
H3	PBC → BI	.235	1.436	NO
H4	GAsC → BI	.034	.727	NO
H5	VbAsC → BI	-.09	-2.167	NO
H6	MamASC → BI	.001	.016	NO
H7	SES → BI	.082	2.05	YES*
H8	Eth → BI	.080	1.657	NO

Notes: *** $p < .001$ ** $p < .01$ * $p < 0.05$

Structural model

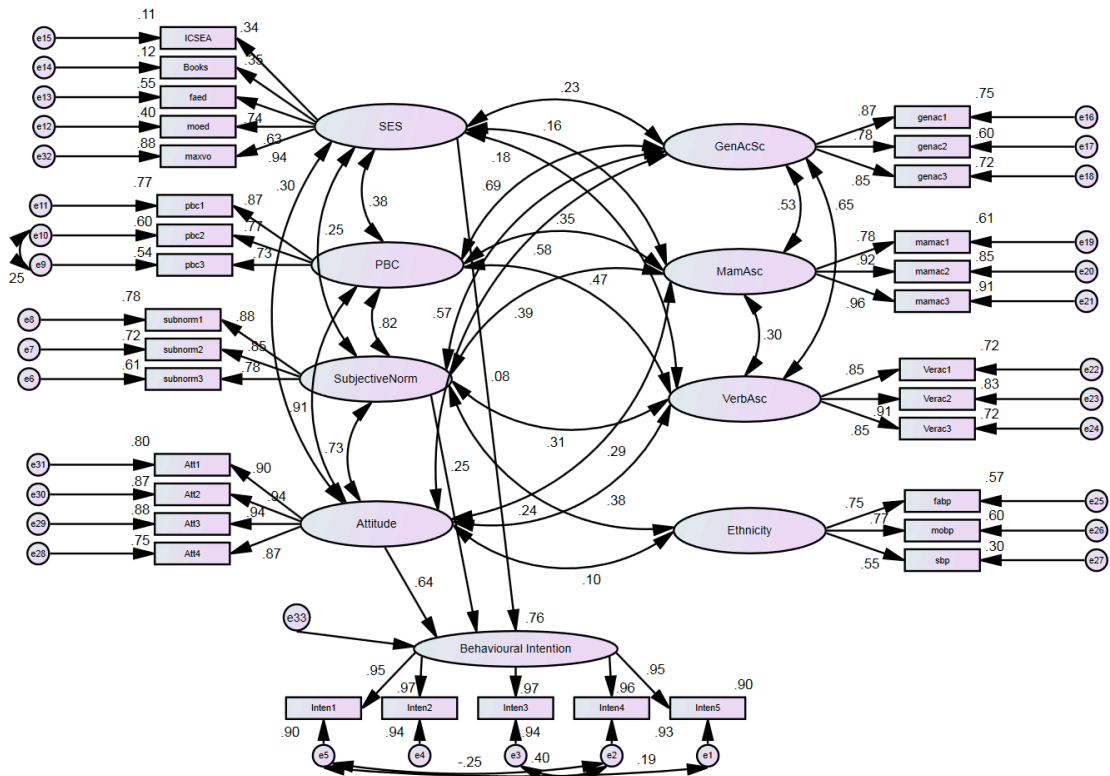


Figure 2. Final Structural Model

Results shown in Table 4 indicated that H1, H2 and H7 were statistically significant. The standardised estimates and critical ratio values for these hypotheses (Att → BI: $\beta = .641$, $t = 9.677$, $p < .001$; SN → BI: $\beta = 0.252$, $t = 4.841$, $p < .001$; SES → BI: $\beta = .085$, $t = 2.256$, $p < .05$) indicated statistical significance and hence support for these three factors. As shown in Figure 2, the $R^2 = .76$. In other words, the exogenous variables explain 76% of the variance in students' intention to study at university.

Table 5

Gender comparison between significant predictors of intention

		(B) Males	(B) Females	z score
BI	← Att	1.447	.703	-3.462
BI	← SN	.168	.386	1.192
BI	← SES	.236	.305	2.173

Notes: z-score=2.58= $p \leq .01$; z-score=1.96= $p \leq .05$ (intent1-Regression Weight)
Bold= sig ($p \leq .05$) z-score (B) =Unstandardised regression coefficient

Discussion

Multigroup analysis offered evidence to indicate that there are differences in how intention is formed differently according to gender. As shown in Table 5, males typically reported significantly stronger attitudes ($z=3.46, p<.001$) to attend university when compared to females, despite both genders having non-significant ($p<.05$) differences of intention to study at university. Similarly, other studies examining computer use have reported that when compared to women's intentions, the intentions of men were more strongly influenced by their attitude whereas women were more strongly influenced by subjective norm and perceived behavioural control (Venkatesh, Morris & Ackerman, 2000). On the contrary, study of intentions to use condoms was more dependent on the attitudes of women while for men subjective norm and PBC were more decisive (Muñoz-Silva, Sánchez-García, Nunes & Martins, 2007). Variation between genders in the predication of intention may vary according to the behaviour of interest. The results reported in this study support the notion that males' attitudes are more important in the formation of behavioural intention compared to females. At the same time, these results support the idea that females were typically more influenced by subjective norm and perceived behavioural control.

Conclusion

All things considered, these data may support the rationale that school programs exploring students' future study options may be most effectively taught separately along gender lines. If the goal is to increase students' intention to attend university, perhaps stakeholders may consider targeting male students' attitudes in university aspiration programs whereas a combination of attitudes, subjective norm and PBC focused interventions may be generally most effective for female students. Further research in this area is needed in order to question or reinforce the notion that males' attitudes are more important in the formation of behavioural intention to attend university as opposed to the opposite sex.

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Appendix 1: Survey Instrument

PLEASE READ THESE INSTRUCTIONS FIRST

Thank you for participating in this study. If you are taking a gap year or a break from study, this should not affect how you answer these questions. Please answer what you intend to do within the next 3 years.

A genuine intent to study at university is indicated by enrolling in a degree course. When questions in this survey ask you about studying at university, **I want you to think about your intention to enrol in a university degree course in the next 3 years**. It is important to point out that there are no right or wrong answers; I'm interested in your beliefs about your future pathway.

Section 1: Some general information about you

In this section you will be asked some questions about you, your family and your home. Some of the following questions are about your parents or people who are like your parents to you — for example, guardians, step parents, foster parents, etc. If you share your time with more than one set of parents/ guardians, please answer the following questions for those parents/guardians you spend the most time with.

Q1. Are you male or female?

- Male Female

Q2. I currently attend a: (Please ask if not sure)

- State Government school Catholic/Independent school

Q3. The name of the school I currently attend is:

Q4. Parent 1 is Male / female.

What is **Parent 1's** main or most recent job? (e.g. School teacher, kitchen-hand, sales manager). Please write in the job title below:

Q5. Has **Parent 1** completed a degree or higher at university?

- Yes No

Q6. Where was **Parent 1** born?

- In Australia Outside Australia

Q7. Parent 2 is Male / female.

What is **Parent 2's** main or most recent job? (e.g. school teacher, kitchen-hand, sales manager). Please write in the job title below:

Q8. Has **Parent 2** completed a degree or higher at university?

- Yes No

Q9. Where was **Parent 2** born?

- In Australia Outside Australia

Q10. Where were **you** born?

- In Australia Outside Australia

Q11. Is English the main language spoken in your home?

- Yes No

If No, what is the main language spoken in your home?

- Arabic Greek
 Mandarin Cantonese
 Italian Other (If other, please
specify _____)
 Vietnamese

Q12. Do you have a religious affiliation?

- Christian Buddhist Islam No religion
 Other (If Other, please specify _____)

Q13. How many books are there in your home?

There are usually about 40 books per metre of shelving. Do not include magazines, newspapers, or your school books.

Please write number of books here: _____

Section 2		Please indicate your response to the following questions/statements:											
Q. 14	I expect to study a degree at university	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree			
	Q.15	I want to study a degree at university	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree		
		Q.16	I intend to study a degree at university	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree	
			Q.17	I plan to study a degree at university	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
				Q.18	Studying a degree at university is something I will try and do	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Section 3													
Q.19	I believe studying a degree at university will be:	Bad for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good for me			
	Q.20	I believe studying a degree at university will be:	Useless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Worthwhile		
		Q.21	Studying a degree at university will be:	Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant	
			Q.22	I believe studying a degree at university	Unenjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Enjoyable

		will be:								
Section 4										
Q.23	If I study a degree at university, I will find it easier to get a job I like	Very unlikely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Likely
Q.24	If I study a degree at university, I will get the opportunity to learn things I am interested in	Very unlikely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Likely
Q.25	If I study a degree at university, I will have more money in the future	Very unlikely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Likely
Q.26	If I study a degree at university, I will attend social events (e.g. parties/ social and special interest clubs)	Very unlikely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Likely
Q.27	If I study a degree at university, I will have a study debt	Very unlikely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Likely
Q.28	Finding a job I like is:	Extremely undesirable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Extremely desirable
Q.29	Learning things I am interested in is:	Extremely undesirable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Extremely desirable
Q.30	Having money is:	Extremely undesirable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Extremely desirable
Q.31	Attending social events (e.g. parties/ social and special interest clubs) is:	Extremely undesirable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Extremely desirable
Q.32	Having a study debt is:	Extremely undesirable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Extremely desirable
Section 5										
Q.33	Most people who are important to me think that I:	Should not study a degree course at university	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Should study a degree course at university
Q.34	It is expected of me to study a degree course at university	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
Q.35	People who are important to me want me to study a degree course at university	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
Section 6										

Q.36	My parents/guardians generally think I:	Should not study a degree course at university	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Should study a degree course at university
Q.37	My teachers generally think I:	Should not study a degree course at university	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Should study a degree course at university
Q.38	My friends generally would:	Disapprove of me studying a degree at university	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Approve of me studying a degree at university
Q.39	My parent's/guardian's approval is important to me:	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very much
Q.40	What teachers think I should do matters to me	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very much
Q.41	What friends think I should do matters to me	Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very much
Section 7										
Q.42	I am confident that I could study a degree course at university if I wanted to	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
Q.43	If I wanted to, I feel in complete control of whether to study for a degree at university	Completely false	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Completely true
Q.44	Whether I decide to study for a degree at university is entirely up to me	Completely false	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Completely true
Section 8										
Please indicate your response to the following questions/statements:										
Q.45	Having access to enough money (e.g. savings/parent's help) is important in order to study a degree at university	Very unlikely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Likely
Q.46	My confidence in successfully passing university in the future is important in order to study a degree	Very unlikely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Likely

Q.47	Getting the final high school results needed for university entry is important in order to study a degree	Very unlikely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Likely
Q.48	My access to money (e.g. savings/parent's help) means that I am:	Less likely to study a degree at university	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	More likely to study a degree at university
Q.49	My confidence in successfully passing university in the future means I am:	Less likely to study a degree	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	More likely to study a degree
Q.50	The final high school results I expect to receive overall mean I am:	Less likely to study a degree at university	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	More likely to study a degree at university
Section 9										
Please indicate your response to the following questions/statements:										
Q.51	I'm good at most school subjects	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
Q.52	I learn things quickly in most school subjects	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
Q.53	If I work really hard, I could be one of the best students in my school year	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
Q.54	Work in English classes is easy for me	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
Q.55	English is one of my best subjects	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
Q.56	I get good marks in English	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
Q.57	I have always done well in mathematics	Strongly agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly disagree
Q.58	Mathematics is one of my best subjects	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
Q.59	I get good marks in mathematics	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree

Thank you for your time and participation. Your contribution is appreciated.