CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

*To nourish children and raise them against odds is in any time, any place more valuable than to fix bolts in cars or design nuclear weapons.*

*(Marilyn French)*

Children are the greatest natural treasure that any nation can rely upon to reach the height of prosperity. Such children and youth should be shown right direction so that their overwhelming energy will be used in the benefit of the society. Maximum utilization of this natural resource is possible provided they have a warm, nurturing home environment having mutual respect, open communication and concern for all. Children who are brought up in the secure home environment have more positive traits than those who are raised in non-intact families.

1.1 Need for Studying Adolescent Children

Throughout history in the west, adolescents have been looked down upon as pointed out by Aristotle as “they are heated by Nature as drunken men by wine”. These views were exaggerated in Psychology followed by Hall’s popular conception of adolescence, that it is a time of “storm und drang” or ‘storm and stress’.

Adolescence is characterized by conflict with parents and significant authority figures, psychosocial turmoil, discontinuity, moodiness, rebellion and high risk behaviour. The growing independence during adolescence means that adolescents experience emotional instability,
question previously accepted values and rules. It is believed that adolescents argue more, are less affectionate and spend less time with their parents (Dumont & Provost, 1999; Southall & Roberts, 2002; Wolfson & Carskadon, 1998).

Some researchers are however doubtful about the amount of empirical evidence supporting this view (Arnett, 1999; Bandura, 1977; Louw & Louw, 2007). Frey and Röthlisberger (1996) express the viewpoint that the turmoil that is experienced during adolescence is often exaggerated and that most adolescents manage to adapt well. Adolescents are viewed as being better informed and more idealistic than their parents. Adolescents are also seen as honest and tolerant towards others (Louw & Louw, 2007, Steinberg, 1990). Bandura (2001) also views adolescents as being self-organizing, proactive, self-regulating and self reflecting as well as active contributors to their life circumstances and not just products thereof. Schneider and Stevenson (1999) oppose the above mentioned views of adolescence as a time of rebellion versus the view that the adolescent years are always happy and healthy. They view adolescents as the ambitious generation, a generation with proud hopes and dreams but poor family, school and academic support to achieve these goals.

It is true that adolescence is a more colourful phase in human beings life. It is like a ‘spring time’. Just as the trees shed their old leaves and blossom with all new leaves and flowers, adolescents too abandon their childish pattern of behaving, thinking and feeling. Thus this is a transitional period marked with numerous changes in the person’s physical, cognitive, psychological, and social development and in the individual’s relations with the people and institutions of the social world (Gestsdottir & Lerner 2008).

The concept of adolescence as a time of gradual transition from childhood to adulthood is relatively new in developing countries (Zabin & Kiragu, 1998). In pre-independent Indian
society the stage of life called adolescence was not really existed as children were made to marry as soon as they attain sexual maturity or even before. They used to enter adulthood directly after childhood.

The concept of adolescence has changed noticeably over the century as a consequence of economic, social, moral and political changes brought about by western colonial and economic expansion and by the recent move toward a global economy and society. Due to elongated period of schooling brought about by the current education system, many young people have long period of adolescence compared to previous time. Thus, the industrialized society has not only introduced the concept of adolescence but extended it beyond 20 years.

Therefore adolescence is an interesting phase to observe in Indian context, where most of our grandparents have not witnessed this stage at all. In India, majority of adolescents in the age group of 12-20 live with their parents, still being dependent on parents and probably continue to depend for few more years. Important decisions like education, career, and marriage etc. are still taken by parents. Many continue to stay with their parents even after marriage and having children. Therefore, even during adolescence, home environment continues to have its impact on growing children.

In absolute numbers, India is home to more adolescents – around 243 million – than any other country (UNICEF, 2012). Due to globalization, Indian family is also undergoing through structural as well as functional changes. Most of the Indian parents expect their children to excel in every field. Competitive spirit has entered every home. These days demands and expectations from the children are extremely high. Thus life appears to be full of demands and challenges providing potent situations for the children to become competent and at the same time keep them at risk of stress and burden of these demands. Therefore, an attempt is made here to provide a
framework for the ideal conditions for the development of the vast number of adolescents within the context of home environment.

1.2 HOME ENVIRONMENT

*Science has established two facts meaningful for human welfare: first, the foundation of the structure of human personality is laid down in early childhood; and second, the chief engineer in charge of this construction is the family.*  
(Meyer Francis Nimkoff)

Home is the place of promise, security, comfort where people related by blood and marriage live together. Many empirical studies have shown that children are influenced and moulded by their family. Developmental psychologists have demonstrated that children are influenced by their family especially parents and significant others even before birth and some experiences in the early childhood can even be irreversible. However, majority of the studies conducted by the developmental psychologists center around the impact of parents on the development of children especially focusing on the role of the mother in these process.

However, when we consider home as a system the study of home environment would be more holistic including parent – child interactions, sibling relationship, socio-cultural aspects of home. The collective influence of all members of the family on the growth and development of children can be traced by analyzing the dynamics of home environment.

The concept of home environment in the western countries is somewhat different from the Indian context. The traditional nuclear families with breadwinner/father, housewife/mother, and children are fast replacing by dual career, single-parent, reconstituted and childless families.
Indian family has the advantage of its heritage with well defined value system related to social relations and prescriptions of the ideal way of life. Adolescents across all sections of the society thus have a family as an ‘anchor’ that supports them to cope with challenges of transition to adulthood. Family as an institution in India therefore, has a potent role in influencing adolescents. Capacity building of its members to provide timely support and monitoring signs of dangers to save adolescents from slipping into risks, can be an important strategy/approach. Involvement of parents has increasingly now been used in planned interventions of governmental and voluntary sectors (Verma & Saraswathi, 2002).

The rapidly changing social, political and economical scenario in the world has not left Indian family untouched. It is going through structural and functional modifications that have a bearing on adolescent’s socialization and parent child relations. Weakening of social support from kinship, movement of women empowerment, exposure to media, increasing competitive demands of the market economy and higher standards of achievement are a few aspects that have changed the family dynamics in the recent past. The need for differential values, competencies and coping styles between parents and adolescents are a source of anxiety and stress both for adolescents and parents (Verma & Saraswathi, 2002).

Thus the structural transformation in the home environment has significantly altered the degree and quality of affective interaction between the family members.

It is still relatively rare for family research to include assessment of the whole family environment (McHale & Cowan, 1996) despite empirical support for clinical family systems theories advocating that assessment of the entire family system (e.g., mother, father, child) is different from and as important as assessment of the various parts of a family (e.g., dyadic family subsystems; Johnson, Cowan, & Cowan, 1999). The majority of family research continues to
rely almost exclusively on the assessment of marital and parent–child dyadic relationships (i.e., mother–father, mother–child, and father–child dyads) as a method of evaluating family functioning.

1.2.1 What is the Impact of Home Environment on Adolescents?

What is the ideal home environment? Certainly this question is uppermost in most parents’ minds. Yet psychologists probably cannot offer any answer that would be good for all times and all social contexts. In one context more control at home would be ideal, however in other context more amount of permissiveness. Reward may be more beneficial compared to punishment in one situation however the reverse in some other condition. Thus it is difficult to draw conclusions about the ingredients of good home environment.

The “good home environment” is one which prepares the children to meet the demands of the specific culture or subculture in which they live. Studies conducted across the world advocated that early home environment is a significant prediction of mental development and at the same time the home is of extraordinary importance in the development of various personality traits and social skills. Kaur, Rana and Kaur (2009) have observed significantly positive relationship of home environment components such as protectiveness, conformity, reward, and nurturance with self-concept. Findings endorse the use of rewards and nurturance from parents should be done for positive self-concept development among adolescents. Home environment is associated with positive development in children.

Studies on the impact of home environment on the children have yielded conflicting results, some contradicting too. Hence this study is an attempt to explore the impact of home environment on adolescent children.
1.2.2 Measures of Home Environment


The Index of Family Relations (IFR) is used to measure the intra-familial environment as perceived by students. It comprises of 25 items. It uses five point Likert type scale to solicit students responses, the responses are: all of the time, good part of the time, some of the time, a little of the time, none of the time. The high score on the respected measure indicates pleasant intra-familial environment, where the low score indicates poor family relationships. The reliability alpha is 0.95 indicating that the scale is internally consistent and that alternative forms should yield consistent results. The Standard Error of Measurement is 3.65 indicating that the IFR is a relatively accurate measure.

Family Climate Scale – Shah B. (1999)

Family Climate means an inter-personal relationship between parents and the child. It includes parent’s attitude towards the child as perceived by him/her in the 10 dimensions of Family Climate Scale. The instrument has 3 point rating scale, indicating extremely unfavourable, balanced and most favourable family climate.


The Family Environment Scale (FES) is a self-administered test that assesses the social climate and functioning of all types of families. There are 90 items to which participants have to respond with either “True” or “False”. The questionnaire examines three family environment dimensions. These dimensions include the (a) family relationships, with the subscales cohesion, expressiveness and conflict; (b) family system maintenance, with the subscales organization and
control, and (c) the personal growth dimension, with 5 subscales: independence-autonomy, achievement, intellectual-cultural activities, active recreational activities, and moral-religious.

Ten scores derived from the subscales create an overall profile of the family environment. It takes about 20 minutes to complete the test. Based on these scores, families are then grouped into one of three family environment typologies based on their most salient characteristics. Reliability estimates for subscales measurements are consistent and test-retest intervals are significant and the validity of this scale is supported by evidence.

Home Inventory Hindi Adaptation - Kohli, Mohanty & Kaur (2005)

Kohli Adarsh et al., adapted in simple Hindi the HOME inventory originally developed by Bradley (1993). The original scale was having 55 statements. The scale was translated, discussed with experts, administered to forty-eight mothers and item analysis carried out resulting in the final shortened Hindi version with 35 items only. The Home Inventory emerged to be a valid and reliable instrument and would be useful in assessing the home environment of the children in the Northern part of India.

1.3 PSYCHOSOCIAL COMPETENCE

1.3.1 Meaning and Definition:

Goldfried and D'Zurilla (1969) have pointed out that, the notion of competence as the ability to use resources can be traced in formal statements at least back to Socrates, who viewed competent individuals as: "those who manage well the circumstances which they encounter daily, and who possess judgment which is accurate in meeting occasions as they arise and rarely miss the expedient course of action".
Competence has been described as “learned attitudes and aptitudes, manifested as capacities for confronting, actively struggling with, and mastering life problems through the use of cognitive and social skills” (G. Caplan, 1980, p. 672).

Tyler (1978) described the “competent person [as] characterized by an active coping orientation; high initiative, realistic goal setting; substantial planning, forbearance, and effort in the service of attaining goals; and a capacity for enjoying success, suffering, failure, and building from both” (p. 313). This conception of psychosocial competence describes a fully developed process through which individuals interact with their psychosocial environments.

"Psychosocial Competence has been defined by WHO (1997) as “person’s ability to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life”. “It is a person’s ability to maintain state of mental well-being and to demonstrate this in adaptive and positive behaviour while interacting with others, in his/her culture and environment.”

Psychosocial competence as used in this study is composed of 10 life skills which are essential to lead a better life. Those life skills are defined in the following section.

**Problem Solving** - Having made decisions about each of the options, choosing the one, which suits best, following it through even in the face of impediments and going through the process again till a positive outcome of the problem is achieved.

**Decision Making** - The process of assessing an issue by considering all possible/available options and the effects those different decisions might have on them. This can have consequences for health. It can teach people how to actively make decisions about their actions in relation to healthy assessment of different options and, what effects these different decisions are likely to have.
Critical Thinking - It is the ability to analyze information and experiences in an objective manner. It helps adolescents to recognize and to assess the factors influencing attitude & behavior - values, pressures (peer, family). It plays a key role in the formation of right attitudes towards life. It assists in developing responsible behavior.

Creative Thinking - It is an ability that helps us look beyond our direct experience and address issues. It enables to explore available alternatives and consequences of actions or non-actions. It also contributes to Decision Making and Problem Solving. Critical thinking helps adolescents to respond adaptively and with flexibility to the daily life situations.

Empathy - Is an ability to imagine what life is like for another person even in a situation that we may not be familiar with. It helps us to understand and accept others and their behavior that may be very different from ourselves. Empathy enables adolescents to put oneself in other person’s shoes. It encourages a positive behavior towards people in need or difficulty also being nurturing and tolerant.

To have a successful relationship with our loved ones and society at large, we need to understand and care about other peoples’ needs, desires and feelings. Without empathy, our communication with others will amount to one-way traffic. We grow up in relationships with many people – parents, brothers and sisters, cousins, uncles and aunts, classmates, friends and neighbours. When we understand ourselves as well as others, we are better prepared to communicate our needs and desires. We will be more equipped to say what we want people to know, present our thoughts and ideas and tackle delicate issues without offending other people. At the same time, we will be able to elicit support from others, and win their understanding. Empathy can help us to accept others, who may be very different from ourselves. This can improve social interactions, especially, in situations of ethnic or cultural diversity. Empathy can
also help to encourage nurturing behaviour towards people in need of care and assistance, or
tolerance, as is the case with AIDS sufferers, or people with mental disorders, who may be
stigmatized and ostracized by the very people they depend upon for support.

**Self Awareness** - Our recognition of ourselves, our character, strengths and weaknesses, desires
and dislikes. Developing self-awareness can help us to recognize when we are stressed or feel
under pressure. It is often a prerequisite to effective communication and interpersonal relations,
as well as for developing empathy with others.

**Coping with Emotions** - It is an ability, which involves recognizing emotions in others and
ourselves, being aware of how emotions influence behavior and being able to respond to
emotions appropriately. Intense emotions like anger or sadness can have negative effects on our
health if we do not respond appropriately.

**Coping with Stress** - It an ability to recognize the source of stress in our lives, its effect on us
and acting in ways that help to control our levels of stress, by changing our environment or
lifestyle and learning how to relax.

**Interpersonal relationship** – It is an ability, which helps a person relate to the people
surrounding him/her. Interpersonal relationship skills help us to relate in positive ways with the
people we interact with. This may mean being able to make and keep friendly relationships,
which can be of great importance to our mental and social well-being. It may mean keeping,
good relations with family members, which are an important source of social support. It may also
mean being able to end relationships constructively.
Effective Communication - It is an ability to express ourselves both verbally and non-verbally in ways that are appropriate to our cultures and situations. It enables us to express opinions, desires, needs & fears appropriately. It covers even asking for advice and help.

The concept of psychosocial competence has received increasing attention in the mental health practice literature because it emphasizes positive mental health or adaptive functioning rather than psychopathology (Germain, 1977; Maluccio, 2000; Tyler, 1978). Psychosocial competence is derived from the ecological paradigm for viewing human functioning, which draws from fields such as psychodynamic psychology, family systems, anthropology, organizational behavior, and learning and development theories (Maluccio, Washitz, & Libassi, 1999). Whereas ecology provides a way of perceiving and understanding human beings and their functioning in their environment, knowledge about competence development offers specific guidelines for professional practice and service delivery.

1.3.2 Importance of Psychosocial Competence

As children mature, their life needs change. Adolescents need to develop a variety of skills as they prepare to complete their formal education and look forward to entering life beyond school. They must be prepared to possibly face the world of work, take on responsibility for a family, and make decisions ranging from what to wear that day to solving problems on the job. At the same time, they must come to terms with living with themselves - figuring out who they are, what they are capable of achieving, devising their own value system, and enjoying their uniqueness as a person (Darlene, 2009).

Globalization and modernization are creating new challenges in the form of frequently changing technology, lifestyle, and culture. Society is becoming more diverse making room for effective interpersonal relationships; economic growth and stabilization are posing new
challenges and hazards so that one requires coping with stress and emotions as well as problem solving and decision making abilities. Technology is changing rapidly and continuously and learning and keeping pace with these changes requires not just one competence but a set of competencies. Thus challenges and demands are at individual level as well as society at large. Therefore a clear understanding of the psychosocial competence of adolescents is the need of the hour since they are going to constitute the mainstream of the society. By transforming the young generation through effective intervention strategies we can expect the society to become psychosocially competent in future.

1.3.3 Methods of Assessing Psychosocial Competence:

As different researchers have different views on the concept of psychosocial competence so also the methods of measuring psychosocial competence differ.

**Behavioral Attributes of Psychosocial Competence Scale-Condensed Form** (BAPC-C) – F.B. Tyler (1978)

The BAPC-C measures an individual's proactive coping style. The BAPC-C scale consists of a 13-item forced-choice questionnaire, eight items of which assess active coping style, three of which assess emotional coping style, and two of which assess both active and emotional coping styles. Active coping is measured in terms of the degree to which an individual manifests an active and planful coping orientation, high initiative in the pursuit of set goals, and a capacity for experiencing and building from successes and failures. Individual items are scored 1 or 0. Item scores are added to form a total score potentially ranging from 0 to 13. A higher score is associated with a more active coping orientation. The BAPC-C has been found to be
moderately correlated, at -.38, with the Internal-External Locus of Control Scale developed by Rotter (1966). Tyler (1978) reported a Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficient of .76 for the BAPC-C.

**Life Skills Scale – LSS for the Adolescents - Vranda (2009)**

The LSS is designed to measure ten generic life skills ascribed by WHO (1993) which is universally adopted around the globe to promote the psychosocial competencies among the children and adolescents. A series of trials and testing were carried out to determine psychometric properties of the instrument. The scale consisted of 115 items with 5-point Likert Format. The scale assesses the level of life skills in the ten areas such as Decision Making, Problem Solving, Empathy, Self-Awareness, Interpersonal Relationship Skills, Communication Skills, Coping with Stress, Coping with Emotions, Creative Thinking and Critical Thinking. The internal consistency co-efficient alpha for the overall scale was 0.94. The test-retest reliability co-efficient ranged from 0.70 to 0.95 and overall reliability co-efficient was 0.96 indicated high degree of temporal stability of the scale. The Life Skills Scale has also demonstrated strong construct aspect of content validity discriminant validity and concurrent validity and suitable to be administer in urban and semi-urban across the globe.

**1.4 RESILIENCE**

*The strongest oak of the forest is not the one that is protected from the storm and hidden from the sun. It’s the one that stands in the open where it is compelled to struggle for its existence against the winds and rains and the scorching sun. (Napoleon Hill, 1883-1970)*

**1.4.1 Meaning of Resilience**
Etymologically, the word resilience derived from the Latin words resiliens or resilire, which means “to rebound”, or “to jump or bounce back” (http://www.etymonline.com). According to the Encarta World English Dictionary (2005) resilience refers to a speedy recovery from problems (the ability to recover quickly from setbacks); the ability to react to potential crisis (the ability to identify, assess, and respond to a potentially disruptive situation in order to prevent it from becoming a crisis); and elasticity (the ability of matter to spring back quickly into shape after being bent, stretched, or deformed).

1.4.2 Definitions of Resilience

“Psychological resilience has been characterized by the ability to bounce back from negative emotional experiences and by flexible adaptation to the changing demands of stressful experiences.” (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004, p. 320)

“Resilience is the human ability to adapt in the face of tragedy, trauma, adversity, hardship, and ongoing significant life stressors.” (Newman, 2005, p. 227)

“Resilience is a dynamic process wherein individuals display positive adaptation despite experiences of significant adversity or trauma. This term does not represent a personality trait or an attribute of the individual … Rather, it is a two-dimensional construct that implies exposure to adversity and the manifestation of positive adjustment outcomes.” (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000, p. 858)

Resilience may be understood as the capacity of a child to deal effectively with stress and pressure, to cope with everyday challenges, to rebound from disappointments, mistakes, trauma, and adversity, to develop clear and realistic goals, to solve problems, to interact comfortably with others, and to treat oneself and others with respect and dignity (Brooks & Goldstein, 2001).
Masten, Best and Garmezy (1990) explained resilience in broader terms. They saw it as the process of, capacity for, or outcome of successful adaptation despite challenging or threatening circumstances.

Psychological resilience refers to an individual’s capacity to cope with stressors without succumbing to mental illness or a persistent negative mood or manifesting dysfunction (Neill & Dias, 2001).

1.4.3 History of the study of Resilience

The roots of the study of resilience can be traced in the works of Garmezy (1974), Anthony (1974), Murphy and Moriarty (1976), Rutter (1979) and Werner (Werner and Smith, 1982). Garmezy studied children of schizophrenics and concluded that a number of these children were developing normally despite their circumstances. Before Garmezy’s studies, researchers considered children such as these anomalies or outliers and excluded the children from their research. Garmezy and his colleagues, deviating from the medical model, initiated a shift in the research paradigm associated with psychopathology. At about the same time, Anthony coined the term “invulnerable” in reference to such children. Murphy and Moriarty became interested in the study of children who overcome naturally occurring adversities. Further they found that such resilient children shared a group of common character traits. These traits included social charisma, the capacity to relate well with others and the ability to both regulate and experience a wide range of emotions. Rutter too recognized a subgroup of children with traits similar to those identified by Garmezy and Anthony. Werner and Smith (1982) found in the study of high risk children in Kauai that one in ten developed into “competent and autonomous young adults who worked well, played well, loved well and expected well” (p. 153). These studies were important milestones in the study of resilience from the historical context.
Initial studies of resilient children shifted the focus away from a deficit model of child development toward models of invulnerability of a few children. This focus, in turn, gave way to the realization that resilience is a rather ordinary phenomenon (Masten, 2001). Masten (2001) noted that when a child’s developmental systems were protected from harm and were working well, the child would continue to develop even in the face of adversity. Conversely, if a child faced difficulties with compromised developmental systems, he or she would be at much greater risk for impaired development. Threatening conditions compounded the risk if they were long term. Longitudinal studies such as Werner and Smith’s (1982) Kauai study and Rutter’s Romanian adoptee study (Rutter, et al., 1998) demonstrated that in the cases of children who had faced severe risk, the course of development could be reversed if protective factors were put into place. Garmezy’s concurrent longitudinal study, called Project Competence, provided further insight into competency, adversity and internal functioning (Masten & Powell, 2003). Garmezy focused his attention on the concept of competence. In its early stages, researchers on Project Competence investigated the connections among competence, adversity, internal functioning, individual functioning and family attributes. As this study shifted from a cross-sectional study to a longitudinal investigation, research focused on children who had experienced many levels of risk and adversity. From this seminal study, a framework for studying resilience developed (Masten & Powell, 2003).

1.4.4 Characteristics of the Resilient Individuals

Resilient children usually have four attributes in common (Bernard, 1995):

a) Social competence (the ability to elicit positive responses from others, thus establishing positive relationships with both adults and peers);
b) Problem-solving skills (planning that facilitates seeing oneself in control and resourcefulness in seeking help from others);

c) Autonomy (a sense of one's own identity and an ability to act independently and exert some control over one's environment); and

d) A sense of purpose and future (goals, educational aspirations, persistence, hopefulness and a sense of a bright future).

### 1.4.5 Factors Fostering Resilience

Several factors are found to alter the negative effects of adversities in life. Such factors are collectively known as ‘protective factors’ that guard a person from the adverse effects of trauma or stressors of life. These protective factors can be categorized into three headings: 1) Individual Attributes, 2) The Family, and 3) The Community.

Individual attributes like the capacity to make realistic plans, having self-confidence and a positive self image, developing communications skills, and the capacity to manage strong feelings and impulses enable the person to tackle the adversities in a positive manner.

Family factors like caring and supportive relationship with at least one member of the family, positive parental modeling, high and realistic parental expectations and positive overall family environment are found to shield the person from the adverse effects of trauma.

Communities having positive norms and adequate resources to cope with the adversities safeguard the members not to succumb to psychological distress.

APA’s 10 Ways to build Resilience:

1. Maintain good relationships with family and friends

2. Avoid seeing stressful events as unbearable problems
3. Accept circumstances that cannot be changed

4. Develop realistic goals and move toward them

5. Take decisive actions in adverse situations

6. Look for opportunities of self discovery after struggles/losses

7. Develop self confidence

8. Keep a long-term perspective and consider stressors in broader context

9. Maintain a hopeful outlook; visualize good things happening

10. Take care of one’s mind & body; exercise regularly; maintain a balanced life

1.4.6 Importance of Resilience

Resilience research has mainly focused on those children who have overcome the adversities and turned out to be well adjusted individuals. There has been an accelerated interest in not only understanding risk and protective factors and their operation, but in determining whether this information can be distilled into clinically relevant interventions that cannot only increase positive outcomes for those youth facing risk, but can also be applied to the population of children in general in an effort to create, as Brooks and Goldstein (2001) point out, a “resilient mindset” in all youth. The importance of such a mind-set goes hand-in-hand with the perception that no child is immune from pressure in our current, fast-paced, stress-filled environment, an environment we have created to prepare children to become functional adults. As Brooks and Goldstein believe, the concept of resilience should be broadened to apply to every child and not restricted to those who have experienced adversity (Brooks & Goldstein, 2001, 2003). All children face challenge and stress in the course of their development and even those who at one
point would not be classified as “at-risk” may suddenly find themselves placed in such a category (Brooks & Goldstein, 2003). Reivich and Shatte (2002) contend that “everyone needs resilience” and they write: . . . resilience is the capacity to respond in healthy and productive ways when faced with adversity and trauma; it is essential for managing the daily stress of life. But we have come to realize that the same skills of resilience are important to broadening and enriching one’s life as they are to recovering from setbacks (p. 20). Even children fortunate to not face significant adversity or trauma or to be burdened by intense stress or anxiety, experience the pressures around them and the expectations placed upon them. Thus, the field has increasingly focused on identifying those variables that predict resilience in the face of adversity and developing models for effective application.

Resilience is important because it is the human capacity to face, overcome and be strengthened by or even transformed by the adversities of life. Everyone faces adversities; no one is exempt. With resilience, children can triumph over trauma; without it, trauma (adversity) triumphs. The crises children face both within their families and in their communities can overwhelm them.

1.4.7 Measures of Resilience

The Ego-Resiliency Scale - J. Block and Kremen (1996)

The Ego-Resiliency Scale assesses trait psychological resilience, which is the capacity to modify responses to changing situational demands, especially frustrating or stressful encounters. This scale consists of 14 items, each responded to on a 4-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (does not apply at all) to 4 (applies very strongly). Sample items include “I quickly get over and recover from being startled,” and “I enjoy dealing with new and unusual situations.” J. Block and Kremen’s (1996) reported alpha was 0.76.
The Adolescent Resilience Scale - Oshio, Nakaya, Kaneko, and Nagamine (2002)

The Adolescent Resilience Scale has 21 items in three subscales of Novelty Seeking, Emotional Regulation, and Positive Future Orientation. Respondents rated items using anchors of 5: Definitely yes and 1: Definitely no. Cronbach coefficients alpha were .75 for the Novelty Seeking, .73 for the Emotional Regulation, and .80 for the Positive Future Orientation. The overall consistency was .80, confirming the internal consistency of the whole scale.

Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC) - (2003)

Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC), one of the few scales created to exclusively measure resilience. The CD-RISC consists of 25 statements with 5 Likert-scaled responses. Responses are 0 (“not true at all”), 1 (“rarely true”), 2 (“sometimes true”), 3 (“often true”), and 4 (“true nearly all the time”). The potential range of the CD-RISC is thus 0 - 100, with higher values reflecting greater resilience. The CD-RISC has been found to be both valid and reliable, with good internal consistency. Other evidence suggests that the CD-RISC has significant convergent validity with other tests that measure aspects of resilience, including the “Kobasa Hardiness Scale”, “Perceived Stress Scale”, “Stress Vulnerability Scale”, “Sheehan Disability Scale” and the “Sheehan Social Support Scale”. Positive correlations have also been demonstrated with the “Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale”, the “Life Satisfaction Scale”, and the “NEO 5 Factor Inventory”.

1.5 Vocational Aspiration

1.5.1 Meaning and Definitions:

The adage ‘उद्योगम पुरुषबलक्षणम्’ explains the importance of the role of occupations in one’s life. Occupations form the identity of the person, shape his life satisfaction and in turn,
influence the life and happiness of people depending on him/her. Therefore what one aspires to become and what motivated him/her to aspire for are very important since they are going to affect his/her occupational choice. Decisions regarding the vocational choice are mainly based on his/her vocational aspirations.

Occupational aspirations are ‘expressed career-related goals or choices’ that provide important motivational momentum for career-related behaviours and future educational and career success (Rojewski, 2005). Aspirations can have lifelong consequences as they are associated with significant later outcomes, such as where one works and lives, and the standard of living one attains.

Haller and Miller, (1967) defined Occupational Aspiration, as the orientation toward the occupational goal.

Occupational aspirations occupy a central role in many career development theories. They are typically characterised as developing from wishful views of the future to mature evaluations considered in the context of abilities, interests, values and opportunities (Gottfredson, 2002).

Career aspirations represent an individual’s orientation toward a desired career goal under ideal conditions. More simply stated, career aspirations “provide information about an individual’s interests and hopes, unfettered by reality” (Hellenga, Aber, & Rhodes, 2002; Rojewski, 1996).

A career aspiration is defined as the occupation a person desires to pursue if there were no reality constraints (Arbona & Novy, 1991). Career aspirations represent an individual’s orientation toward a particular career goal and may cause an individual to closely examine
decisions regarding schooling or the future. Career aspirations may also reflect past experiences and perceived barriers (Gottfredson & Becker, 1981; Rojewski, 1996).

   Super (1990) defined occupational aspirations as an individual’s attempt to implement his self-concept. Gottfredson (2005) viewed occupational aspirations as the assimilation of an individual’s assessment of the compatibility and accessibility of an occupation.

   Rojewski (2007) described occupational aspirations as individuals’ desired occupational aims or objectives given optimal circumstances. Further, occupational aspirations are viewed as future occupational choices that incorporate information about individuals as well as opportunities that they are able to obtain (Rojewski, 2005).

   Occupational aspirations can be either idealized or realistic. Idealized aspirations are occupations one would like to have if there were no limitations on opportunity, finances or ability when selecting a career. Realistic aspirations, or expectations, on the other hand, are the occupations one expects to have, given perceived or real limitations (Rojewski, 2005). Both aspirations and expectations reflect attitudes and beliefs, and thus are cognitive constructs that are presumed to influence current behaviour as well as planning for the future.

   Occupational aspirations are most frequently made known by answers to simple questions such as “what would you like to do or become when you grow up?” The answers to these simple questions are believed to be often stable and accurate predictors of future occupational choice (Rojewski, 2007).

   Being satisfied with one’s career is one of the most important aspects of an individual’s personal happiness (Sharf, 2002). Focusing on the process by which occupational aspiration development occurs is important when one considers that occupational satisfaction is one of the
central aspects of an individual’s personal happiness (Sharf, 2006, 2010). Occupations provide individuals with a source of self-evaluation and a sense of identity, and essentially constitute a major part of individuals’ day-to-day lives (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Campara & Pastorelli, 2001). Zunker (2006) notes that occupational decisions impact on all aspects of an individual’s life and therefore calls attention to the importance of occupational intervention and counselling. Understanding the reasons and the means by which people make occupational decisions and assisting individuals in making these decisions has been the role of career counselors for many decades (Spokane & Cruza-Guet, 2005). However, the task of assisting individuals in their career development has been limited by a lack of theoretical depth in terms of current adolescent occupational aspiration development.

Occupational aspiration development takes place across the lifespan and the literature on career development has acknowledged the importance of the adolescent career developmental process (Helwig, 2004, 2008; Skorikov & Patton, 2007; Wahl & Blackhurst, 2000). Research on adolescent occupational aspiration development has been fragmented to date, with mixed results evident regarding various occupational aspiration issues (Skorikov, 2007). Nevertheless, research has demonstrated that occupational aspirations are generally stable from adolescence onwards. It has been found that occupational aspirations could be used to predict occupation-related decisions 8 to 12 months after they have been expressed (Gottfredson, 2002).

There are numerous limitations regarding adolescent career development theories and research (Skorikov & Patton, 2007), which have been emphasised for several decades. Mau and Bikos (2000) argued that there were various challenges regarding adolescent career development, some of which included the need for inclusive and consistent career theory and research. Years later Tien (2007) and Sharf (2010) report that many of these challenges remain unaddressed and
thus our understanding of adolescent occupational aspiration development remains limited. Ali and Saunders (2009) maintain that existing theory on adolescents’ career development has been based largely on middle-class suburban adolescents. With regards to methodology, the literature has called for more longitudinal research in the field of career development and has criticised the dominance of cross-sectional research (Germeijis & Verschueren, 2007; Hartung, Porfeli & Vondracek, 2005; Schultheiss, 2008). Rojewski (2007) recommends that an understanding of how occupational aspirations develop will offer greatly needed insight into the process of career development. Rojewski has thus called for research which examines the different dimensions of adolescent occupational aspirations. Schultheiss (2008) also suggests that there needs to be a revision of career theory in order to provide a way forward.

1.5.2 The Development of Vocational Aspiration: Theoretical Perspectives

Theories of vocational development can be classified as structural theories, developmental theories and sociological theories. Since the target population of the present study are adolescents, the focus here is given to those theories which account for the developmental nature and expression of occupational aspirations, including Holland’s Theory of Vocational Personalities in Work Environment, Super’s (1996) life-span, life-space theory, Gottfredson’s (1996) theory of circumscription and compromise, Lent, Brown, and Hackett’s Social Cognitive Career Theory (2002), Status Attainment theory (Hotchkiss & Borow, 1996), and the Developmental-Contextual perspective of career development (Vondracek, Lerner, & Schulenberg, 1986).

Holland’s Theory of Vocational Personalities in Work Environment

The theory by Holland offers a simple and easy-to-understand typology framework on career interest and environments that could be used in career counselling and guidance. Holland
postulated that vocational interest is an expression of one’s personality, and that vocational interests could be conceptualised into six typologies, which are Realistic (R), Investigative (I), Artistic (A), Social (S), Enterprising (E), and Conventional (C). If a person’s degree of resemblance to the six vocational personality and interest types could be assessed, then it is possible to generate a three-letter code (e.g., SIA, RIA) to denote and summarise one’s career interest. The first letter of the code is a person’s primary interest type, which would likely play a major role in career choice and satisfaction. The second and third letters are secondary interest themes, and they would likely play a lesser but still significant role in the career choice process. Parallel to the classification of vocational interest types, Holland (1985, 1997) postulated that vocational environments could be arranged into similar typologies.

In the career choice and development process, people search for environments that would allow them to exercise their skills and abilities, and to express their attitudes and values. In any given vocational environment, there is a tendency to shape its composition so that its characteristics are like the dominant persons in there, and those who are dissimilar to the dominant types are likely to feel unfulfilled and dissatisfied.

The concept of “congruence” is used by Holland to denote the status of person-environment interaction. A high degree of match between a person’s personality and interest types and the dominant work environmental types (that is, high degree of congruence) is likely to result in vocational satisfaction and stability, and a low degree of match (that is, low congruence) is likely to result in vocational dissatisfaction and instability.

The six Holland interest typologies are arranged in a hexagon in the order of RIASEC, and the relationship between the types in terms of similarities and dissimilarities are portrayed by the distance between corresponding types in the hexagon.
The concept of consistency is used as “a measure of the internal harmony or coherence of an individual’s type scores” (Spokane & Cruza-Guet, 2005, p. 24). Accordingly, types that are adjacent to each other in the hexagon have the highest degree of similarity in terms of their personality characteristics and vocational orientations, types that are opposite in the hexagon have the least degree of similarity, and types that are separated by one interval have a moderate degree of similarity. A simple way to determine the consistency of an interest code is to look at the distance between the first two letters of the code in the Holland hexagon (high, moderate, or low consistency).

In addition to congruence and consistency, another major concept in Holland’s theory is differentiation. Differentiation refers to whether high interest and low interest types are clearly distinguishable in a person’s interest profile. An interest profile that is low in differentiation resembles a relatively flat line in which high and low interest types are not distinctive. In contrast, a differentiated interest profile has clearly high and low scores, suggesting that the crystallisation of interest might have occurred, and readiness for career choice specification and implementation.

Holland’s theory has an enormous impact on career interest assessment and research (Spokane, Meir, & Catalano, 2000). In the 40 years since Holland’s theory was proposed, hundreds of research studies have been published to examine Holland’s propositions and the validity of interest instruments that were based on his theory, including some studies using international samples. However, there was mixed support for Holland’s structure of vocational interests across cultures. The clustering of the types was affected by specific cultural values and perceptions.

**Super’s Life–span, Life-space Theory**
Super (1969, 1980, 1990) suggested that career choice and development is essentially a process of developing and implementing a person’s self-concept. According to Super (1990), self-concept is a product of complex interactions among a number of factors, including physical and mental growth, personal experiences, and environmental characteristics and stimulation.

Super (1990) proposed a life stage developmental framework with the following stages: growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance (or management), and disengagement. In each stage one has to successfully manage the vocational developmental tasks that are socially expected of persons in the given chronological age range. For example, in the stage of exploration (ages around 15 to 24), an adolescent has to cope with the vocational developmental tasks of crystallisation (a cognitive process involving an understanding of one’s interests, skills, and values, and to pursue career goals consistent with that understanding), specification (making tentative and specific career choices), and implementation (taking steps to actualise career choices through engaging in training and job positions). Adolescence, which encompassed the exploration stage, is a critical time in developing and crystallizing occupational aspirations. Successful resolution of tasks encountered during this stage is characterized by a progressive narrowing of career options, from fantasizing about possible careers to identifying occupational options to making job choices.

Gottfredson’s Theory of Circumscription and Compromise (1996)

Gottfredson (1981, 1996, 2002, 2005) assumed that career choice is a process requiring a high level of cognitive proficiency. A child’s ability to synthesize and organize complex occupational information is a function of chronological age progression as well as general intelligence. Cognitive growth and development is instrumental to the development of a
cognitive map of occupation and conceptions of self that are used to evaluate the appropriateness of various occupational alternatives.

In contrast to the established notion that choice is a process of selection, Gottfredson (1981, 1996, 2002) theorized that career choice and development could instead be viewed as a process of elimination or circumscription in which a person progressively eliminates certain occupational alternatives from further consideration. Circumscription is guided by salient aspects of self-concept emerging at different developmental stages. Gottfredson maintained that the career aspirations of children are influenced more by the public (e.g., gender, social class) than private aspects of their self-concept (e.g., skills, interests). A developmental model was proposed consisting of four stages of circumscription. The first is called “orientation to size and power” (ages 3–5), and the child perceives occupations as roles taken up by big people (adults). The second stage is called “orientation to sex-roles” (ages 6–8), and in this stage sex-role norms and attitudes emerge as defining aspect of a child’s self-concept. The child evaluates occupations according to whether they are appropriate to one’s sex, and eliminates from further consideration alternatives that are perceived to be gender inappropriate (i.e., the wrong sex-type). The third stage is called “orientation to social valuation” (ages 9–13) as social class and status become salient to a child’s developing self-concept. Accordingly, the emerging adolescent eliminates from further consideration occupations that are too low (i.e., occupations with unacceptable prestige levels) or too high (i.e., high prestige occupations beyond one’s efficacy level) in prestige. The fourth stage is called “orientation to the internal, unique self” (ages 14 and above), in which internal and private aspects of the adolescent’s self-concept, such as personality, interests, skills, and values, become prominent. The young adolescent considers occupations
from the remaining pool of acceptable occupations according to their suitability or degree of match with one’s internal self.

Another career development process is compromise. In response to external realities and constraints such as changes in the structure of the labour market, economic depression, unfair hiring practices, and family obligations, individuals have to accommodate their occupational preferences so that their eventual choices are achievable in the real world. Compromise is a complex process in which compatibility with one’s interest is often compromised first so as to maintain a greater degree of correspondence with one’s preference for prestige and sex-type.

In Gottfredson’s terminology, discrepancies between aspirations and expectations result from compromise and circumscription of what one would like to do occupationally and what one is limited to achieving. When discrepancies do occur, they typically reflect a lowering of aspirations relative to real or perceived career barriers. Thus, occupational aspirations can be represented as a reflection of the continuous interaction between an individual’s valuation of occupation congruity and perceived accessibility.

**Lent, Brown, and Hackett’s Social Cognitive Career Theory**

Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2002; Lent, 2005) is anchored in Bandura’s self-efficacy theory (1977, 1997), which postulated a mutually influencing relationship between people and the environment. SCCT offers three segmental, yet interlocking process models of career development seeking to explain (a) the development of academic and vocational interest, (b) how individuals make educational and career choices, and (c) educational and career performance and stability. The three segmental models have different emphasis centering around three core variables, which are self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and personal goals.
Lent (2005) defined self-efficacy as “a dynamic set of beliefs that are linked to particular performance domains and activities” (p. 104). Self-efficacy expectations influence the initiation of specific behaviour and the maintenance of behaviour in response to barriers and difficulties. Consistent with early formulation by Bandura (1977) and others (e.g., Hackett & Betz, 1981; Betz, Borgen, & Harmon, 1996), SCCT theorised that self-efficacy expectations are shaped by four primary information sources or learning experiences, which are personal performance accomplishments, vicarious learning, social persuasion, and physiological and affective states. Lent (2005) suggested that of the four sources of information or learning experience, personal performance accomplishments have the most powerful influence on the status of self-efficacy.

Lent, Brown, and Hackett (2002) defined outcome expectations as “personal beliefs about the consequences or outcomes of performing particular behavior” (p. 262). Outcome expectations include beliefs about extrinsic reward associating with performing the target behaviour, self-directed consequences, and outcomes derived from task performance. Overall, it is hypothesised that an individual’s outcome expectations are formed by the same information or learning experiences shaping self-efficacy beliefs.

Personal goals refer to one’s intention to engage in certain activity or to generate a particular outcome (Lent, 2005). SCCT distinguished between choice content goals, referring to the choice of activities to pursue, and performance goals, referring to the level of accomplishment or performance one aims to attain. Through setting personal goals, individuals could persist in tasks and sustain their behaviour for a long time in the absence of tangible external rewards or reinforcement.

Self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and personal goals served as core variables in the interest, choice, and performance models of SCCT. The interest model specifies that individuals
would likely develop interest in activities that (a) they feel efficacious and (b) anticipate that there would be positive outcomes associated with the activities. The dynamic interaction among interest, self-efficacy, and outcome expectations would lead to the formation of goals and intentions that serve to sustain behaviour over time, leading to the formation of a stable pattern of interest in adolescence or early adulthood.

The SCCT choice model views the development of career goals and choices as functions of the interaction among self-efficacy, outcome expectations and interest over time. Career choice is an unfolding process in which the person and his/her environment mutually influence each other. It involves the specification of primary career choice or goal, actions aiming to achieve one’s goal, and performance experience providing feedback to the individual on the suitability of goal. In addition, SCCT posited that compromises in personal interests might be required in the career choice process due to contextual immediate to the person (e.g., cultural beliefs, social barriers, lack of support).

An “ability” factor, defined as one’s achievement, aptitude, and past performance, was highlighted in the performance model of SCCT. Ability serves as feedback from reality to inform one’s self-efficacy and outcome expectation, which in turn would influence performance goals and levels. Lent (2005) suggested that incongruence between efficacy and objective ability (e.g., overconfidence, under-confidence) would likely lead to undesirable performance (e.g., ill-prepared for task, performance anxiety). An optimal point is a slightly overshot self-efficacy which would promote further skills utilization and development.

**Status Attainment theory (Hotchkiss & Borow, 1996)**

Status Attainment theory highlights the role of social stratification in forming and developing occupational aspirations and attainment, as well as the relationship between
educational and occupational aspirations. The central proposition of the theory is that parental occupational status or attainment plays a significant role in affecting the level of education achieved, thereby determining individuals’ socioeconomic status (SES) and occupational attainment (Hotchkiss & Borow, 1996). The family’s SES, race/ethnicity, gender, and other social determinants affect occupational aspirations, which, in turn, influence educational and occupational attainment. Unlike psychological theories that emphasize the role of personal factors in influencing career decision, status attainment theory emphasizes only social aspects, such as social stratification, that constrain career development.

**The developmental-contextual approach (Vondracek, Lerner, & Schulenberg)**

Vondracek, Lerner, and Schulenberg (1986) highlighted intra-individual factors, intra-contextual factors, and the constantly changing interplay of the two sets of factors as they change over time. The developmental-contextual approach views career development as a result of continuous dynamic interaction between individuals and these multilevel contexts. From this approach, an individual’s life is embedded within hierarchically arranged psychological, sociological, political, and cultural contexts. Change in one context is likely to influence other contexts.

**1.5.3 Importance of Vocational Aspiration**

Occupations occupy a central place in determining a person’s personal, social and economic aspects of life. By influencing individuals’ status and value in the society, occupation contributes a major portion to their personal satisfaction and happiness. It is a prime force behind an individual’s life satisfaction and determines the happiness and satisfaction of people around him like his/her spouse, children and society in general.
Therefore, what an individual aspires to become and on what basis he aspires for are very crucial. Vocational aspiration motivates an individual to make necessary preparations required to enter an occupation like mobilizing his/her resources, abilities, interests and job related information. Proper guidance from parents, teachers and career counselors is very much essential to show correct path keeping in view of their abilities, interests etc.

1.5.4 Measures of Vocational Aspiration:

The Occupational Aspiration Scale (OAS) –Miller and Haller (1964)

The OAS is an eight item multiple-choice instrument that can be administered in about twenty minutes to individuals or to groups. Eighty occupations are distributed among eight items, each consisting of ten distinct occupations that span the entire occupational prestige range. Occupations in each of the eight items are scrambled to reduce desirability effect, and the scrambled order is maintained for the eight OAS items.

Wording in the eight stimulus questions tap occupational aspiration at two expressed levels (realistic-idealistic) at two career points (short-long range), yielding four question combinations—Realistic Short Range (two questions), Realistic Long Range (two questions), Idealistic Short Range (two questions), and Idealistic Long Range (two questions). Score combinations may also be obtained for Short Range, Long Range, Realistic and Idealistic LOA. The Short and Long Range LOA scores are obtained by combining short and long range occupational aspiration scores across the two occupational aspiration expression levels (realistic-idealistic). By the same token, Realistic and Idealistic LOA scores may be obtained by combining realistic and idealistic occupational aspiration scores across two career points (short-long range). Respondents are asked to select one occupational alternative in each of the eight items.
Each occupational alternative selected is awarded a predetermined score based on the prestige category of the occupation. Scores in each OAS item range from 1 to 10, with the most prestigious occupational alternatives awarded a score of 10. Thus, total scores across eight items range from 4 to 80 and are considered a measure of an individual’s level of occupational aspiration (LOA). Meaning of occupational titles is not explained in order to obtain a “true” representation of the individual’s LOA, which may include lack of knowledge of some occupations.

**Career Aspiration- Looft (1971)**

A single open-ended question, devised by Looft (1971), and used widely in the literature (e.g., Watson, Quatman, & Edler, 2002), which asked: “If you were completely free to choose any job you like, what job would you MOST LIKE to have?”, is used to measure career aspiration. Then the job aspired is rated on the level of job complexity using the Dictionary of Holland Occupational Codes (Gottfredson & Holland, 1996). The job complexity rating provides an estimate of the skills and training required to meet the mental demands of the job (e.g., medical practitioner is rated as high complexity, whereas farmer is rated as low).

**Occupational Aspirations**

Rojewski and Yang (1997) assessed occupational aspirations by asking students to indicate the job or occupation they expected to have at 30 years of age, from a listing of 17 separate occupational categories. For data analysis, occupational aspiration categories were coded using the socioeconomic index (SEI) codes calculated by Stevens and Cho (1985). The SEI provides a 4-digit code that represents the income and educational attributes of jobs found in
the total labor force and represent prestige scores. SEI codes range from 13.98 to 90.45 (M= 34.48), where occupations with scores above the mean represent white-collar jobs and scores below the mean represent blue-collar professions. Stevens and Cho reported that SEI codes have been widely used as a summary measure of occupational status in empirical investigations.


The CAS is a 10-item scale that assesses professional life goals. The instrument is not career specific, but rather measures plans individuals have in their chosen occupational arena. It is a self-report instrument that takes approximately five minutes to complete. This instrument is self-explanatory and easily administered to adults.

The CAS is scored with relative ease. Responses for each of the ten items are summed up to generate a total career aspiration score. Four out of the ten items are reverse scored. Higher scores reflect a stronger goal and achievement orientation while lower scores reflect less motivation towards career and occupational achievement. Possible scores range from 10 to 50.

O’Brien and Fassinger (1993) reported the CAS to be internally consistent with reliability coefficients ranging from 0.75 to 0.76. Later testing revealed internal reliability consistency estimates for the CAS ranging from 0.73 to 0.77 (O’Brien, Grey, Tourajdi, & Eigenbrode, 1996). Evidence of construct validity has been illustrated by correlations with additional measures using samples of undergraduate women.

**Occupational Aspirations Scale (OAS) - Aziz and Kamal (2009)**

Occupational Aspirations Scale (OAS) is based on Gottfredson’s theory of occupational aspirations (1981) which deals with four dimensions: prestige level for men and for women, general desirability, traditionality of occupations, and general knowledge and familiarity about
occupations. Occupational Aspirations Scale is a measure of participant aspiration for certain occupation. Participants rate their level of aspiration to opt for each occupation. OAS comprises of 39 common occupations in Pakistan. Among 39 occupations, 9 are Traditional Women (T.W) occupations, and 30 are Traditional Men (T.M) occupations. It is a 5-point scale and the range of total scores on all the occupations is 39 to 195 whereas the score range for traditional men occupations are 30 to 150 and for traditional women occupations it ranges from 9 to 45. The subject has to respond by indicating the degree of aspiration for all the occupations. Alpha Reliability Coefficients for traditional women and traditional men occupations on Occupational Aspirations Scale (OAS) consisting common occupations in Pakistan is found to be satisfactory which is 0.78 for traditional women occupations and 0.73 for traditional men occupations (Aziz & Kamal, 2009).