Vocational aspiration, being one of the most important and applied concepts of the area of career development, has been attracting the attention of the researchers working in many disciplines, i.e. psychology, sociology and education etc.

As the orientation towards occupational goal, it has got an important place in the area of vocational psychology. So many psychological, sociological, educational and demographic variables have been found associated with it, e.g. Intelligence (Getzels and Jackson, 1960); n-Achievement (Barlett and Smith, 1966; Chanda, 1983), Adjustment (Gruen, 1945); Frustration (Glick, 1965); Geographical location (Donald, 1971; Jose, 1971); Tension (Khan and Shamsur, 1983); Self-esteem (Westaway, 1984); Parental influence (Anandraj, 1985); Social perception (Togunu, 1986); Congruence (Luzzo, 1995); Value perception (Battle, 2003); Developmental outcome (Sirin, 2004); Interest (Van Leuvan, 2004); Attachment (Yagon, 2004); Educational gospel (Grubb, 2005). Some other factors which influence it, are yet to be investigated.

Level of vocational aspiration has been defined as orientation toward occupational goal (Haller and Miller, 1967). It is considered as a concept which is logically a special instance of the concept level of aspiration. Its special nature consists only in the continuum of difficulty. The continuum of difficulty is the vocational hierarchy. Haller and Miller
(1967) also developed a scientific scale for measuring the level of vocational aspiration. They, in fact, designed a well standardized procedure for measuring the vocational aspiration for youngsters.

As it has been clearly pointed out that the term level of vocational aspiration is a special instance of the concept of level of aspiration, its special nature consists only in the continuum of difficulty. This continuum of difficulty is the occupational hierarchy that can be operationally determined on the basis of rank ordering of representative vocations representing all level from day to day labour to top executive. Thus, the social standing of each profession can be different.

**Level of aspiration :-**

The level of aspiration is defined as orientation towards a goal. So, level of vocational aspiration indicates orientation towards a vocational goal.

The concept of level of aspiration was first introduced by Hoppe (1930) while making a reference to the degree of difficulty of the goal which a person is striving. A series of experiment is conducted by Frank (1935) and revealed that the level of performance in a task is not judged as the 'success' or 'failure' in terms of vocational aspiration. According to Sewell (1957), the term 'level of occupational aspiration' and the 'level of educational aspiration' are both the special instances of concept of aspiration.
Theories of Level of aspiration:-

Many theories of level of aspiration are propounded. Prominent theorist with regard to the level of aspiration are P.D. Chandran (1989), Atkinson (1958) etc.

Premlatha Devi Chandran (1989) outlined the common features of theories presented so far. These features are as follows -

1. Selection of a particular aspiration level is a function of its resultant valence.

2. Resultant valence is determined by satisfaction anticipated from attaining that alternative.

3. Most individuals selected level of aspirations which is slightly above their past level of performance.

4. As performance changes, level of aspiration changes.

5. When one compares one's score with other relevant scores, the score of the others are taken into consideration in selecting level of aspiration. If scores of others are better than their own, individuals rise their aspiration and if others scores are poorer than their own, the individuals lower their aspirations.

6. Individuals evaluate their performance and previously chosen level of aspiration, a level of performance below the level of aspiration is related unfavourably and a performance above the level of aspiration being related favourably.
7. When individuals evaluate their performance poorly, they engage in copying behaviours intended to reduce threat to their self-esteem.

Bhargava (1972) developed a model describing a typical sequence of events in a level of aspiration situation.

The level of aspiration presupposes a goal which has an inner structure called by the name of ideal goal. This goal may be too difficult or too easy for the goal seeker. Knowing this, the goal seeker may set his goal at a place for the next action. This is called action goal which is usually taken as a criterion for the 'level of aspiration' for an individual at a given time. This does not mean that the individual has given up his ideal goal. The action goal is within the whole goal structure of the individual. There may be a number of more or less realistic goal levels. The goal may be too high, i.e. dream goal or very low, both are unrealistic for the person.

Different from the above stated unrealistic category of goals there may be goal or goals lying between the two extremes or may lie near the action goal. The difference between the action goal and the ideal goal is called inner discrepancy. There is another discrepancy between the level of action goal and the level of expected performance, which is known as goal expectation discrepancy. It depends upon 'subjective degree of probability', which the individual holds as the confidence level keeping in view of his/her chances of reaching up to his action goal.
The difference between the level of the new goal and the level of last performance is called goal discrepancy and the difference between the goal level and that of the new performance is called attainment discrepancy. Attainment discrepancy is one of the bases of reaction of point 4. For the dynamics of the level of aspiration, point 2 (setting of level of aspiration) and point 4 (realistic achievement) are significant.

The goal discrepancy is said to be positive if the new level of performance lies above the level of immediate past performance, the goal discrepancy is negative.

The occurrence of events in a level of aspiration situation in time sequence as presented by Bhargava (1972) holds good as related to educational and occupational aspirations also. When a person is aspiring for an occupation for the first time the first event depicting past performance in the above model does not apply to past performance in achieving an occupation aspired for. But, it may apply to the general performance of an individual in other related field like educational or technical training.

**Idealistic and Realistic Vocational Aspiration :-**

As it has been pointed out that the level of aspiration presupposed a goal, viz., ideal goal. This ideal goal is the inner structure of the level of aspiration. The ideal goal may be too easy for the person to achieve or may be too difficult for him, knowing the ideal goal, the goal seeker may be set his goal at a place for the next action goal is actually the realistic goal.
The realistic goal is the goal for which the goal seeker is sure to achieve. Contrary to this, the realistic goal has been defined as the goal for which the individual is free to choose but is not sure of getting it achieved.

Haller and Miller (1967) indicate that idealistic occupational level of aspiration is the job for which one would choose it he/she is free to choose. Whereas realistic level the vocational aspiration is the goal for which the individual is really sure that he/she can get it.

Thus the idealistic vocational aspiration refers to that aspirations which an individual considers best for him/her if he or she is free to choose any vocation. Realistic vocational aspiration is that vocational aspiration for which the individual is sure of getting it without any difficulty.

**Operational Definition of Vocational Aspiration :-**

As it has been already pointed out that the term vocational aspiration is a special instance of the concept of level of aspiration, its special nature consists only in the continuum of difficulty. This continuum of difficulty is the vocational hierarchy that can be operationally determined on the basis of rank ordering of representative vocations representing all levels from day to day labour to top executive. Thus, the social standing of each profession can be different.

In the present study, two types of vocational aspiration viz., idealistic and realistic vocational aspiration, respectively, were used.
Idealistic vocational aspiration refers to that aspirations which an individual considers best for him/her if he or she is free to choose any vocation.

Realistic vocational aspiration is that vocational aspiration for which the individual is sure of getting it without any difficulty.

1.1 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK - VOCATIONAL ASPIRATION

(Major Theories / Approaches and Models)

Aspiration :-

Webster dictionary (1979) defines Aspiration as a “strong desire for realization (as of ambition, idea or accomplishment)”, whereas Oxford dictionary (1972) defines it as a “pure upward desire for excellence instead fast desire or logging for something above one”. Encyclopedia of Religion and Ethics (1971) describe it as worldly ambition or desire. It is said to be “the power inciting to spiritual progress, an inward impulse by which men are urged to development of their highest nature and true ends as spiritual being”. English and English (1958) have defined it as “an ardent desire to accomplish what one sets out to do”.

In the view of Hoppe (1930) level of aspiration represents a person’s expectations, goal, claims, or his future achievement in a given task. He further stresses that the experiences of performance as a success or failure dose not depend upon its objective goodness, alone but only on the level of aspiration reached. Subjects tend to lower or raise future goal depending on their success and failure with previous goals. Experiences of success
and failure do not attend tasks, which are too easy or too difficult. Hoppe has concluded that level of aspiration are chiefly determined by two sets of opposing principles in the individual:

(a) Ego forces, which tends to set high goals even at the cost of failure;

(b) Pleasure principles, which seeks success, thus lowering the aspiration level. Frank (1935) defined it as “the level of further performance in familiar task which an individual, knowing his level of past performance in the task explicitly undertakes to reach”. By level of past performance is meant, the goodness of the individual's past performance as he know it. He concluded that the presence of ego involvement (e.g. the degree of the person's involvement in the quality of his performance) as indicated by criteria of self-competition and awareness of social pressure, is correlated with divergence of level of aspiration. The aspiration may be higher or lower than the performance when ego involvement is present but not equal to it.

According to Lewin's (1944) view level of aspiration is the difference between how a person expects or aspires to perform on a given task and how actually does it perform (the level of aspiration always being slightly above his level of performance) if he succeeds in fulfilling his expectations, the level of aspirations rises. If he fails the level of aspirations falls (Varman and Calvin, 1974). Trow (1941) opines that aspiration is quite similar to a person’s fantasy choice. Crites (1969) has also expressed similar views and reports that in vocational selection the first stage is
aspiration, which is not in touch with apparent reality, though may have visionary reality.

Aspiration has been considered by Eysenck (1972) as the level of a possible goal (score) an individual sets himself in his performance.

The term 'aspiration' is used most of the time when a decision or desire is usually out of context with reality and it is appropriately (not so appropriately) determined by fantasy level, which has minimum experiential (concrete reality) component attached to it.

The use of aspiration has been made in different fields, (Eysenck, 1947; Encyclopedia of Religion and Ethics, 1971). In sociology, aspiration is used as an index of upward social mobility. In clinical psychology aspiration (when entirely out of touch to reality) may be taken as indicator of conflict and maladjustment (Eysenck, 1947); in religion, aspiration is used to express the level of desire to attain religion (nirvan/moksh), whereas in ethics it is used for realization of higher ideas (Encyclopedia of religion and ethics, 1971). In educational and vocational guidance the term aspiration has been frequently used to denote the fantasy level connected with the future goals. A number of studies have tried to correlate it with various personality variables (Flugel, 1945; Eysenck, 1947; Heckhausen, 1963; Bhargava and Dhiri, 1980).

**Development of Aspiration :-**

In a given culture the individual while attaining his adulthood identifies himself with various groups viz., "participating groups
comprising of family and professional colleagues; and "reference groups" consisting of other individuals whose standards he tries to identify. Through this process identification he perceives a sense of distinction (status) and the standard of participating and reference groups set in him the level of his aspiration (Cantril, 1950). The need achievement theory also throws light on the development of aspiration. While describing "career striving process" Raynor (1978) states, "the individual develops step-path scheme in career striving process". He further adds "children from a very early age try-out career roles as doctor, nurse, policeman, teacher, fireman etc although realistic striving for one of them does not being until after a whole series of identities have been explored and either some initial differentiating competence has been developed and/or appropriate extrinsic motivation is roused for one 'career-path' then another. Thus in various ways and to various extends, children and adolescents learn about the adult world of work, 'occupations or careers'. Parents, grand parents, relatives, friends, children-readers, folk images, teacher and in modern society particularly 'mass media heroes' are sources of information on vocations and provides role models for the acquisition of the appropriate (and not so appropriate) behaviour and expected consequences of career-related activity, where 'appropriate' is seen in terms of the societal perspective of later adult striving in acceptable avenues of pursuit."

According to him structure rather than the 'content' of knowledge about career striving may be the most critical factor. The perception of this 'structure' concept may provide information regarding his level of striving
vis-à-vis the level of his aspiration in the world of work. The researches (Jucknat, 1937; Heckhausen, 1963) in this field showed that the development of level of aspiration was effected by momentary achievement, long standing achievement, confidence, seriousness of the situation, the presence as well as prestige and behaviour of on lookers, success/failure and also by several other extrinsic and intrinsic factors. Describing topologically, this development is viewed as being affected by objected field barriers besides social and personal barriers. Social barriers are in the form of prohibition, customs and personal barriers may be dislikes, scruples etc (Lewin, 1944).

As pointed out earlier, various psychologists and sociologists have applied the term level of aspiration in the ‘vocational choice field’. By occupational aspiration is usually meant what the individual considers to be the ideal vocation for him. Defined in this way, aspiration is quite similar to, if not identical with, a person’s ‘fantasy choice’ (Trow, 1941) as elicited by interviews and open ended question as “what would you do, if you could do what you really wanted to do (Crites, 1969).

Methods of Measuring Vocational Aspiration :-

Vocational aspiration measured in term of levels - (i) high, (ii) middle and (iii) low. For its measurement several occupational classificatory methods were evolved. In the beginning these classificatory methods were based on ‘economic activities’ and they were generally unidimensional, (Edwards, 1943). Further, two-dimensional occupational classificatory method was evolved by Roe during 1954 (Roe, 1956). Her
system contained 6 levels based on factors like responsibility, capacity and skill required by various occupations. Later on, Super (1957) added one more dimension, i.e., 'enterprise' and offered three dimensional classificatory system. Shah & Bhargava (1973) have devised a scale which measure general level of aspiration by providing goal discrepancy and attainment discrepancy scores. Grewal (1973) has also constructed a scale 'Occupational Aspiration scale' on the basis of Haller and Miller's scale (1971). According to this approach vocational aspiration is special instance of level of aspiration. Its special nature consists only in continuum of difficulty. This continuum of difficulty is the occupational hierarchy that can be operationally determined on the basis of rank ordering of representative vocations representing all level from day to day labour to top executive. Thus, social standings of each job is different. On the basis of these social standings of various jobs, Occupational Aspiration Scale was developed.

Vocational aspiration is formulated solely in term of the wants and wishes of individuals, irrespective of the limitations imposed by reality (Crites, 1969).

Vocational aspiration is purely determined by fantasies whereas vocational choice is more reality based and, therefore, no one has formulated any theory specifically for vocational aspiration alone. The theories of vocational choice are, however discussed by Crites (1969), career striving theory by Atkinson and Raynor (1978) and their description
automatically includes the process of crystallization of choice and the choice is crystallized on the parameters of age and reality orientation.

Theoretically, in a democratic set up an individual has the fundamental right to adopt any vocation he aspires for the most, but owing to various social, cultural and personal factors his aspirations seldom materialize. In spite of this, the process of his aspiring for certain vocations continues from childhood to adulthood but till adolescent period he is considered, psychologically, to be living in a world of "fantasy", as far as future career plans are concerned. Of course, the 'fantasy' starts weaning off as he grows in the age. Possibly, it may be due to greater development and sharpening of reality orientation or maturation. His vocational thinking is thus supposed to be influenced by these factors and the interaction effect of various sociological variables. It will, therefore, be worthwhile to review as to how and to what extent the above factors affect the vocational aspiration of the adolescents.
1.2 VOCATIONAL ASPIRATION: ITS EMPIRICAL STATUS

1. Vocational Aspiration and Intelligence

Behaviour is generally influenced by the intellectual potential of a person and vocational choice behaviour is no exception to it. A number of studies have shown relationship of intelligence with vocational choices and preferences (Witty & Lehman, 1931; Wrenn, 1935; Jones, 1940; Joshi & Shrivastava, 1964; Holden, 1961; Pal, 1968), but in very few of them such a relationship with vocational aspiration has been reported (Kahl, 1953), while studying vocational aspiration and intelligence, reported that both high I.Q. and the family status were useful predictors of educational and occupational ambitions of high school boys. Grace (1931) and Sparling (1933) demonstrated positive relationship between intelligence and appropriate vocational goal in ninth grade boys (Super and Overstreet, 1960). Wrenn (1935) reported greater consistency, permanency and suitability of the vocational choices of students high in academic intelligence as measured by ‘psychological examinations’ than students low in such intelligence. Gaur and Mathur (1974) found significant positive correlation between occupational aspiration and level of intelligence. Prenter and Steward (1972) showed that high I.Q. and superior classroom performance were positively related to high vocational aspiration and also high socio-economic status.

Super (1957) in ‘Role of intelligence in career development’, stated that intelligence was generally the index of the occupational aspirations. Brighter children aspired for high level occupations; duller children were
more likely to be interested in lower occupations. He, however, concluded that

(1) Given intelligence above the minimum required for entry into an occupation, additional intelligence does not make for great success in that occupation, when judged by desirability of the employing situation and

(2) People tend to gravitate towards occupational level and job opportunities according to the level of their intellectual ability. These finding are also supported by Getzels and Jackson (1960) and Scheller's (1973) studies. A few studies, however, had shown opposite results to that of the above cited ones. Muthayya (1962) and Harnett (1969) found insignificant relationship between intelligence and occupational aspiration. Barring a few controversial reports the review of literature on the whole does indicate existence of some relationship of intelligence with the levels of vocational aspirations.

2. **Vocational Aspiration and Need-Achievement**

A number of studies (Aronoff and Litwin, 1971; Aubrey, 1971; Alper, 1973; Kelly, Rawson and Terry, 1973) show relationship of “need achievement” with occupational selection and advancement. Burnstien and Liberty (1953); Singh (1970) and Krishna and Mahfooz (1975) concluded that a achievement was significantly related to occupational preferences. There were however, fewer studies on the inter relationship
of vocational aspiration with need achievement. Minor and Neel (1958) showed the existence of significant relationship between level of aspiration and needed achievement. They found that the subject with high need achievement had higher occupational level. Morris (1966) reported that the subject higher on approach tendency and avoidance tendency or on difference between the two i.e. resultant motivation, aspire for vocational of intermediate risk as far as the probability of their success in them was concerned. His studies showed relationship of risk taking tendencies with vocational aspiration and vocational choice. Mahone’s (1950) results have revealed that the man when in need, achievement is dominant; more frequently have realistic aspiration whereas the man dominated by anxiety, more frequently are unrealistic. They either set their vocational aspiration very low or very high but usually they set their aspiration much too high for their ability. Tseng’s (1972) researched study showed that the school dropouts who had a low level of achievement motivation and lower accuracy in perceiving the occupational prestige hierarchy, showed lower occupational aspiration and choose occupations of types which are of lower level of difficulties, responsibilities and prestige. These studies established the fact that n-achievement is a potential factors influencing vocational aspiration of individuals, there are a number of studies, which also show no or poor but rarely negative relationship between need achievement and intelligence. The range of correlation between intelligence and need achievement is reported to be variable i.e. as low as 0.08 to 0.2 by McClelland (1958); Barlett and Smith (1966); Smith (1964) and as high
as 0.40 to 0.50 by Bruckman (1966); Robinson (1964); Bhargawa and Sandhu (1981).

3. **Vocational Aspiration and Adjustment**

Adjustment is considered to be a factor of non desirable importance in vocational placement and work has been done to determine as to how much it contributed to vocational aspiration which is on initial stage in vocational choice behaviour process. Small (1953) compared job concept fantasies of better and poorly adjusted adolescent boy and found that they differed to extend, to which their first choice reflected the "environment involvement" or "environmental avoidance" with regarded to job requirement. In most of the fantasies to first choice which were most realistic the better adjusted boys realistic, the better adjusted boys expressed need for order, achievement, recognition and affiliation integrative with their social expectation mores. In contrast, the poorly adjusted boys has significantly stronger needs for inward pains and tension-discharge, which reflect their inadequate relationship with social realities and inability to compromise. Andrew (1973) in his study on personality and vocational choice supported Holland premise that people search out environmental and vocations that are comparable with their personality. These findings indirectly show relationship of adjustment with vocational choice behaviour. Gruen (1945) stated the aspiration of subjects and their adjustment and found that maladjusted adolescence were more sensitive to failure less stable and more unrealistic in their aspirations as compared to well adjusted adolescence. He further reported that frustration
was found to disturb the aspiration of the children. He was of the view that there was a relationship with vocational aspiration. The above review is suggestive of some importance of adjustment in the study of vocational aspiration.

4. **Vocational Aspiration and Frustration**:

Frustration is the most extensive phenomenon confronting the individuals at every stage of life. In spite of this, little experimental work has been done on the subject due to difficulty of including frustration and quantifying its effects. Some researches have however, pointed out direct or indirect relationship of frustration with vocational behaviour, which cannot be over looked.

Forer (1953) demonstrated that persons with emotional conflicts tend to reject many occupations in which they are likely to be able to function and succeed economically or even at a marginal level. Such occupations involve mechanical, computational, clerical as well as scientific activities. Essentially, such persons appear to dislike routine activities calling for specified duties and compliance to a standard set by other. They tend to prefer occupations allowing freedom of self expression even though the likely hood of success is low. Such occupations involve literacy persuasive and musical activities. Scheller (1973) found that his subjects showed the greatest impoverishment in the level of aspiration after an experience of failure. Their achievement behaviour, however, remained unchanged. These findings through specifically did not indicate
relationship between frustration and vocational aspirations, yet they were definitely of some value in this direction. The studies by Spielberg and Rutkin (1974), Wiggins (1965) indicated some relationship between frustration and vocational choice behaviour. Yoshido (1971) while discussing goal setting behaviour and personality factors determinants of level of aspiration, observe that level of aspiration was composed of many complex factors. The higher anxiety group showed a higher goal discrepancy due to lack of self confidence, inability to show positive attitudes towards goals, escapism and tendency of avoid failure. Though not exactly related to vocational aspiration, Scott (1972) observed that frustration and disillusionment based on unrealistic expectations about a job were a frequent cause of its early termination. The studies under taken by Glick (1963, 1964 and 1965) were specific studies which tried to explore the relationship between frustration and vocational aspirations. Glick (1963) found that greater discrepancy between aspiration and expectation the greater the anticipated frustration. The factors which the studies revealed as contributing most of frustration were lack of "money" to establish themselves in their aspired vocations and "lack of proper academic degree". Glick (1964) further investigated other factors of discrepancy between aspiration and expectation viz. 'class in college', 'academic standing' and father's occupations.

He observed that father's occupation was significantly related to anticipated frustration. On longitudinal follow up of the subjects. Glick (1965) found that when subjects were college seniors, percentage of those
who anticipated frustration in fulfilling aspiration, had decreased. His finding however, makes us believe that frustration does have some contributing effect on vocational aspiration.

5. Vocational Aspiration and Urban/Rural Area (Geographical area)

Bell (1938) mentioned that subjects of urban area put stress on specialized training at all levels of vocational choice. Anderson (1932), Sisson (1941) indicated that effect of geographical location on vocations choice. Donald (1971) and Jose (1971) studied effect of two different geographical regions on attitudes towards education, both in students and in their parents influencing the student’s educational occupational aspiration and their parent’s expectations. No major differences were found on the effect of two regions. Desai (1974) in his studies concluded on tribal people of Bastar (India) pointed out that not only the educational, occupational and residential identities of parents or guardians but also interactions between individuals of different socio-economic, cultural and residential background, have important bearing on the occupational decision making. Miller and Haller (1964) also found different geographical location (family atmosphere as related to or influencing) Holland’s vocational preference inventory scores. Though there are conflicting findings among various studies, yet the result of studies of positive findings support the view point that the geographical location “urban and rural setting” does have a bearing on vocational aspiration of adolescents. Grewal (1930) found that occupational aspiration has
significant relationship with vocational environment and educational choices.

6. Vocational Aspiration and Parental Influence

Shoffner and Klamer (1973) as a result of their finding held the views that parents serve as role models, effectors and achievement and they also provide subjects the development environment and job information. Brook, Whiteman, Peiasch and Denich (1974) in their study found that the parent’s education aspiration for the children was related to their socio-economic status, sex and race (within educational area only).

Both these studies indirectly pointed out the importance of parents as potential factor in vocational choice behaviour of the children. However, Jackson, Meare and Arora (1974) emphasized that males having high identification with father gave higher level of aspiration, more self confidence and greater justification with school experiences. Jackson and Meara (1974) in another study had pointed out that there were statistically significant difference between group’s current status and future occupational plan as a result of identification with father. Dynes Clarke and Dintz (1956) in their findings pointed out that level of aspiration was significantly related to several aspects of interaction with the parents in the formative years of life. College students who aspired for higher occupational level more often felt that their parents-

(i) did not want them,

(ii) showed favoritism to siblings,
(iii) felt less attachment to their parents and

(iv) were generally happy in childhood.

Such children are confided less in their fathers and more fearful to
punishment from them. Low aspiration and high aspiration did not differ
in respect of -

(A) degree of conflict with their father and siblings,

(B) in the extent to which they confided to their mothers,

(C) their parents compared them unfavourably with their siblings
or peer group concerning accomplishments in school and
athletics and

(D) in their estimation of degree of disappointment of parents might
have from children, if they did not live up to expectations.

Lois (1971) study also tried to established relationship between
family life education and changes in parental attitudes as related to
educational and occupational aspiration for their off-springs. He did not
find any evidence of effectiveness of family life education as on
intervention variable and concluded that parental attitude not changed
family life education. Prenter and Steward (1972) indicated that mothers
occupational status affected vocational plan of average and below average
intelligent subjects and Stein (1973) found that mother's educational
attainment was not related to daughter's characteristics. Dyer (1958)
pointed out that both the white collar and manual families did not encourage
their children to follow the father's occupation which explained why
occupational inheritance or transmission was not high. In spite of this, children's aspiration for further vocational careers was found to be influenced by the parents, likings for their children to adopt a particular profession. Brook, Whiteman, Peiasch and Denetsch (1974) found that a relationship existed between children's aspirations for themselves and their parent's aspiration for them. Indian literature is, however, silent on this important aspect if it is discovered that the aspiration of the high school make adolescents is a true relationship of what their father want them to do, it would considerable reduce the work of career guide and counsellor.

7. **Vocational Aspiration and Socio-Economic Status**

The parental influence on the development of the child's personality is determined by the overall so called socio-economic status of the family, it is because of this that there are a number of students from India and abroad showing influence of this important factor on the vocational aspiration of both the children and their fathers for them.

Camp and Rothney (1970) found that the parents of all socio-economic levels were interested in the development of their children and took action when specific suggestions based upon knowledge of children were provided. Gribbons and Lohnes (1964) in their study found moderate correlation ($r = 0.50$) for eighth and tenth grade subject between RVP (Readiness for Vocational Planning) and socio-economic status. However, Misra (1975) cross-cultural study of socio-economic status and vocational aspirations aboriginal tribes of Baster (India) could not lend support to it. This might due to special cultural attributes of his sample.
Form and Geschwender, (1962) found that the children of manual worker tended to depend on peer groups and on other male members of their family as they lacked ideology of opportunity coming from their parents. They further observed that 8% of subjects (N=595) started that their parents has no aspiration for them. Perhaps for most of manual workers it is normal not to expect great upward mobility. Empey (1956) concluded that lower class youth had limited their occupational aspiration level to the class horizon and that lower class youth had the same lofty occupational aspiration as those of upper strata. These findings pointed out that lower class youngsters aspired for to get ahead but aspired for occupations at different status level then those from the higher strata. Berman(1972) studied the relationship between ethnic group membership and occupational aspiration among graduates of girl public school. He found that ethnic group membership was a factor in the determination of occupational aspiration. Prenter and Steward (1972) showed that high I.Q. and superior classroom performance were related positively to high vocational aspiration and also high socio-economic status.

Teachan (1974) while studying the effect of sex and predominant socio-economic class on expectations of success among black students, observed no difference in socio-economic level. Vignod (1972) found that the higher the socio economic status of the child, higher was his level of the expected occupation than wished occupation. Moreover, socio-economic status has been found to be negatively related to the discrepancy between expected and wished occupation. Brook, Whiteman et al (1974)
also obtained the result indicating that educational and occupational aspiration for the child was related to the socio-economic status for the family to which he belonged. The correlation between parents and the child’s aspiration were highest for the fifth grade subjects for white parents irrespective of socio-economic status and for the black parents of highest socio-economic status.

Tseng (1971) studied social class and occupational aspiration using Holland’s O.A.S. (Occupational Aspiration Scale) and found that subject’s from lower and lower-lower socio-economic groups had significantly lower occupational aspiration and more distorted perception of occupational prestige hierarchy than subject’s from middle class.

Miller and Hallar (1964) found a correlation of (+0.37) between socio-economic status of family and occupational aspiration of the respondents. Calvin (1969) studied relationship of occupational aspiration of youth selected variables in two Mississippi countries and found that all students had relatively high occupational aspiration except Negro students of the low socio-economic-status country. The study pointed out that low aspiration in one goal area, tended to influence low aspiration in another goal area, but high aspirations in one goal area did not provide any conclusive evidence. The perception of opportunity was positively and significantly related to occupational aspiration. The above studies signify the pivotal position socio-economic status possesses in the vocational aspiration of the children.
8. **Vocational Aspiration and Decision Making**

Several researches have reported close relationship between individual’s aspiration and career decision making. Holland & Gottfredson (1975) reported that the individual’s who were good at decision making showed more congruence or similarity among their various vocational aspirations and showed fewer discrepancies among career goals. Trice & King (1991) found the children’s aspirations was relatively stable and reflected real occupations, even in kindergarten students. They match their mother’s occupations more closely than their father’s occupations.

Murre, Frieze and Frost (1991) found that women choosing non-traditional career had high aspirations than women choosing female dominated career. They also found that African-American women had higher aspiration than white women. Jacobs, Karen and McClelland (1991) found that most adolescent men had high occupational aspiration on some point which decreased with age, racial and social class but stabilized as age increased. They found difference in vocational aspiration were small in adolescents but racial difference in aspirations increased with increasing the age. Empson, Warner and Krahn (1992) reported a decrease in vocational aspiration when young adult experience unemployment.

9. **Psychological Meaning and Predictive Value of Vocational Aspirations**

Gottfredson (1975) explained the psychological meaning and predictive value of a person’s vocational aspirations by applying J.L.
Holland's typology to the vocational aspirations of 1,005 high school juniors, 692 college juniors, 140 employed adults; and a second sample of 624 college students studied over a 1 year interval. The aspiration data were obtained from day dreams section of the self directed search. Categorical and correlational analysis showed that a person's retrospective vocational aspirations have coherence and yield efficient predictions of subsequently expressed choice. In addition, the degree of coherence or similarity among a person vocational aspiration provides a potentially useful index of a person's decision making ability.

10. **Differences in Self-perception and Vocational Aspirations**

Homall (1975) studied the perception of college woman concerning themselves and their vocational aspirations in a three-part study. 20 senior and 20 fresh men and women from a small, competitive university were given a verbal thematic are to describe, the strong vocational interest Blank for men (SVIB-M) and an attitude questionnaire. A composite portrait and descriptive analysis of the thematic, one yielded a relatively positive picture of the woman described. Evidence supports the hypothesized self perceptions of low prestige in college women. The classes responded similarly, threw a trend towards compromise was more defined for seniors than for fresh men.

11. **Cross-Cultural Study of Status and Vocational Aspirations**

Mishra (1975) conducted a cross cultural study of status and vocational aspirations among abarsginal tribes of Bastar. He interviewed
258, 8-20 year old tribal and non-tribal students. Results show that neither family or community status determined level of aspiration. Modern civilization was shown to be a strong influence in raising levels of aspiration.

12. **Vocational Aspiration in Early Childhood** :-

Vondracek (1974) investigated vocational aspirations in 282 3-6 years old children. Age comparison suggested that one aspect of vocational development in early childhood involves mastery of the task of projection one day achieving of oneself as one day achieving adult status. Race comparisons indicate that urban black were less mature than urban white in term of mastery of the vocational projective task seen as characteristic of this developmental period. No significant sex differences were found in rate of development. However, there were indications that the pattern of vocational projection differs for males and females and that female undergo occupational foreclosure earlier than their male peers.

13. **Vocational Aspiration and Employment Reality** :-

Gottfredson (1975) used a typology to organize -

(a) 1970 US census data the kinds of employment,
(b) survey data about people's aspirations and
(c) the results of vocational assessments made with and without norms for men and women at two educational levels:

- some high school or above
- some college or above
Results indicated that kinds of employment differ greatly for different educational levels and between the sexes. The distribution of people’s aspirations resembles the distribution of actual employment, with some notable exceptions. Results also indicated that use of sex-based interest inventory norms proved unrealistic because they create distributors that diverge greatly from the distribution of actual employment. Some implication of the congruence between kinds of people and their employment are discussed for vocational guidance.

14. Unrealistic Vocational Expression:–

Chanda (1983) worked on “a study of students with unrealistic vocational expression (University of Rajasthan, India).” 713 Indian 10th grader’s were administrated the group test of general mental ability. Result shows that 37ss had unrealistic vocational expression for their future career, 23ss were of high intelligence but were low vocational aspiration and 14 were of low intelligence but were high vocational aspirations. These Ss were administrated a battery of tests that included the TAT and Rosenzweig picture frustration study. Result show that low vocational aspiration obtained significantly higher scores on the need for achievement variable only.

15. Tension and Vocational Aspiration:–

Khan Shamsur (1983) worked on study of the influence of tension on educational and vocational aspiration of college going youth (Agra psychological research cell). He administrated a 5 item educational
vocational aspiration scale to 308 college students. 158 who exhibited low tension were selected on the basis of composite scores on an anxiety scale, an insecurity scale, and a personality Questionnaire. Chi Square analyses showed that 50% of the high tension group (H.T.G.) in comparison to 33% of the low tension group (L.T.G.) expressed indication regarding the level of studies they planned to pursue: 39% of the (H.T.G.) and 62% of the L.T.G. indicated a definite vocational choice, other group differences relative to type of vocational choice, perception of purpose and direction of contemporary college students, and perception of the future of contemporary college students are discussed. Result indicates uncertainty about the future may be responsible for considerable tension among students.

16. Self-Esteem and Vocational Aspiration :-

Westaway (1984) investigated the relationship between various self esteem factors and educational and vocational aspirations and examined whether SES, level of academic achievement, and family size were more influential then the self-esteem Factors. Instruments measuring these variables were administrated to 20 white 15-16 years old females in Johannesburg, South Africa. Multiple regression analyses indicated that of 5 self-esteem factors, self perceived abilities was the most important predictor of educational and vocational aspirations. Discriminate analysis demonstrated that the most important predictor of educational and vocational aspirations were level of academic achievement, SES, and
global self esteem were the most important prediction of high vocational aspirations.

17. **Study of Vocational Aspiration of Cast Membership and Educational Development**

Shah and Beena (1986) studied the effects on vocational membership and educational development of 1,050 graduate students of KUMGUD University in India. Data collection instruments were the social characteristic description developed by Unival and Shah (1981) and a personal data. Result indicates that neither cast nor educational development effect level of aspiration. However there was a slight variation between Brahmin and kshatriya science students; the brahmin have higher vocational plans.

18. **Vocational Capabilities of Deaf Students**

Togonu (1986) surveyed 146 old deaf students between the age range of 14-18 years, to examine the extent to which they have accepted social perceptions of their occupational potential and the extent of discrepancy between their realistic vocational aspirations and 543, 22-63 years old hearing peoples perception of the deaf vocational capabilities. Results indicate that both hearing public and deaf pupils believe the deaf cannot perform effectively at professional jobs and are effective in only those jobs that work with things rather than people.
19. **A Multivariate Analysis of the Effect of the Self Directed Search**

Holland (1978) attempted to learn how the self directed search (SDS) achieves its effect. Are the effects of the SDS on students largely to its transparent structure and the large number of occupational options presented? Can these effects be enhanced if students are given instructions designed with 104 high schools randomly assigned to the 8 conditions. SS were assessed before and two months after treatment for their vocational aspirations, knowledge of the typology, and information seeking. No significant findings imply that the SDS achieves its effect partly because of its numbers. Occupational options and that the use of an instructional booklet may also increase the number of options. Some speculations about the influence of counselors and interest inventories are offered.

20. **Age and Sex Difference and Vocational Aspirations**

Lynn (1975) asked 128, 6 and 8 years old Dutch children about their vocational aspirations. It was hypothesized that

(a) boys would aspire to a greater variety of vocations than girls,

(b) boys would change their vocation preferences more frequently than girls,

(c) older boys would aspire to the broader range of vocations than younger boys and
older girls would aspire to a similar and smaller range of vocations than younger girls.

All hypothesis except (b) received support. Results suggest that sex role expectations for adult occupations are acquiring very early and moreover strongly circumscribe the range of vocations perceived as appropriate for females.

21. Emergence of Vocational Goal :-

Schutz (2001) investigated how the goal of becoming a teacher emerges. The study used interview, to develop goal histories for 8 persevere teacher. They were attached to be four sources of influence for their goal to become a teacher.

1. Family Influence
2. Teacher Influence
3. Peer Influence
4. Teaching Experiences

The categories developed from the interview to describe the type of influence. These sources provided by the -

a) suggesting that the person become a teacher,
b) encouraging the person to become a teacher,
c) modelling teaching behaviour,
d) exposing the person to teaching experience and,
e) discouraging the person from becoming a teacher.
In addition influence such as critical incidents, emotions and social factors, such as status and pay of teachers were prominent in the goal history of the participants. Finally the results of the study are discussed within the context of goal and self directed behaviour.

22. The Career Development of the Mexican-American Women:-

Flores Lisa (2002) studied the career development Mexican American Women. The study tested Lent, Brown and Heckett’s (1994) model of career choice within 364 Mexican American women path analysis were run to determine the influence of the contextual and social cognitive variable on career aspiration, career choice as non traditional career, self efficacy, parental support, barriers of culture and feminist attitude predicted career choice prestige. Traditional feminist attitudes and non traditional career self efficacy predicted career choice traditionally. Feminist attitude and parental support predicted career aspiration. The path between non traditional career interests and three outcome variables not supported. Finally none of the background contextual variable in this study are non traditional career self efficacy. Implications of the results and suggestions for further researches are discussed.

23. College Women Career Orientation Towards Family Career and Graduate School: -

Battle (2003) studied on college student family career and graduate school. This study was designed to examine the new college student valuing of graduate education predicting to attend graduate school. Using
a new measure of the valuing the graduate school. A second purpose was to assess the relation of college women perception of the relation importance of family and career to their valuing of graduate student. 216 college women to completed a newly developed survey that assess their constructs. The item assessing their value were design to assess components of the test value designed by Eccles et al (1983)- Reliability and factor analysis demonstrated that the instrument adequately measured different components of task value. Multiple regression analysis demonstrated that components of task value predicted intentions to attend graduate school. The women were strongly career oriented and their orientation to career related positively to their valuing graduate education.

24. **Education Perception for Vocational Education:**

Kenny (2003) studied “The role of perceptive barriers and relation support in the Education and vocational lives of urban high school’s students”. Journal of counselling psychology and examined the relationship of perceived barrier and support with school engagement and vocational attitudes among ninth grade of urban high school student in two studies. Study (N=174) showed that both perceived barriers and perceived from family kin associated with youth. Commitment to school aspiration for success in their further career. Study II (N=181) replicated and extended study I, demonstrating that perceptive barriers, general perception of support and kinship support were associated with behavioural and attitudinal indexes of school engagement as well as with aspiration for career success, exceptions for attending career goals, and importance of
work in one's future. The finding contribute to identify individuals and contextual factors related to the educational and vocational lives of urban minority youth.

25. Future Aspiration of Urban Adolescent:

Sirin (2004) studied on aspiration of urban adolescents. A person in context model International Journal of Qualitative study in importance future aspiration play in the developmental outcome of the adolescents. This study illuministrate the role that individual an contextual factors play in the formation of further aspiration among urban youth. The data for this study collected prior to implementation of an intervention of at an urban high school. Focus groups questionnaires, goal map and group Identity College were employed to solve the perceptive of urban adolescents about their further aspiration and the influence on them. Using the ground methodology the author classified the multiple sources of data theoretical model of urban adolescent’s further aspiration. Participants used to constructs the theoretical model also prove to verify the model. This person in context model contextual and encompasses both individual resources and barriers to the urban youth limitations and directions to further researches.

26. Vocational Aspiration and Socio-emotional Academic Adjustment:

Yagon (2004) work on socio emotional and academic adjustment among children with hearing disorders. This study examined the role of
attachment-based factors (children attachment style, children appraisal of teachers as a secure base and teacher's feelings of closeness to child) in explaining difference in Israeli children's socio emotional adjustment and academic functioning. He found attachment based factors were significantly correlated with adjustment measures and significantly mediated the associated between hearing disorder and socio economic adjustment.

27. Educational Gospel and Role of Vocation in American Education:

Grubb (2005) studied on the educational gospel and the role of vocationalism in American education. The education gospel - the idea that formal school preparing individual's for employment can resolve all public and private dilemmas, has become dominant in the United States and many other countries, over the twentieth century. It has led to high schools, community colleges and universities becoming focussed on occupational preparation and also to many other changes, in the size and funding of education, the connections between schooling and employment and the mechanisms of inequality. Moving ahead in the twenty-first century will require understanding the strength and limitations of both the education gospel and vocationalism.

28. Measure of Motivation:

Guay (2005) studied to develop and validate a measure of motivation toward career decision making activities. The Career Decision
Making Autonomy Scale (CDMS). The CDMS is designed to assess the construct of intrinsic motivation identified regulation, interjected regulation and external regulation. Overall results show, (a) quasi simplex pattern of correlations, (b) correlations with personality variables and vocational constructs and (c) convergent and divergent correlations.

29. **Vocational Aspiration in Indian Society**:–

Anandraj (1985) discusses the development of vocational aspirations within children and emphasizes the significance of these aspirations in today’s Indian society. Factors that influence the development of aspirations which discussed are as follows -

- parent influence,
- socio-economic class and
- significant others.
1.3 **RATIONALE OF THE PRESENT STUDY**:-

1. After the review of literature it has found that relationship between vocational aspiration and personality characteristics of vocational aspirers have been examined sporadically such as adjustments and achievements, n-achievements, frustrations, emotional conflicts, self expression, decision making etc. but no systematic efforts have yet been made to employ a paradigmatic approach in investigating the relationship between the personality characteristics of individuals and their vocational aspirations.

Several psychologists have stated that Eysenk was the only researcher who established the scientific paradigm of personality structure and functioning in which biological and sociological aspect of behaviour have been focused, therefore, in the present study dimensions of Eysenk model labelled as Extraversion-Introversion and Neuroticism-Normal (Stability) have been used as independent variable to trace out the psychological basis of the vocational aspiration, because they are statistically independent of each other and frequently distinguished in the normal population of adolescents. Eysenk also explained their psychological basis in his model.

The third personality dimension of Eysenk’s model labeled as psychoticism, has not been included in the present study because it is related to the male sex hormones or maleness and it is very difficult to find out such a sample of adolescents which are high on psychoticism because of its biological and developmental
reasons. Psychoticism is not properly and normally developed in the population of 14 to 17 years old adolescent subjects.

The fourth personality dimension of Eysenck's model has also been excluded in the present study because now it has been established that intelligence has significant bearing upon vocational aspiration. Grace (1931) and Sparling (1933) demonstrated positive relationship between intelligence and appropriate vocational goal in ninth grade boys. Super and Overstreet (1960), Wrenn (1935) reported greater consistency, permanency and suitability of the vocational choices of students high in academic intelligence as measured by the 'psychological examination' than students low in such intelligence. Gaur and Mathur (1974) found significant positive correlation between vocational aspiration and level of intelligence. Prenter and Steward (1972) showed that high I.Q. and superior classroom performance were positively related to high vocational aspiration and also high social economic status. Super (1957) in role of intelligence in career development stated that intelligence was generally the index of the level of vocational aspiration. Since the dimension of intelligence has been thoroughly studied with regard to vocational aspiration and a significant positive relationship has been established, so this dimension has been excluded in the present study.

Apart from the reasons stated in the above paragraphs, since the dimensions of psychoticism and intelligence are not included in the Junior Eysenck's personality Inventory (JEPI) which is the only personnel Inventory for measuring the personality of adolescents subjects. The dimensions of psychoticism's and
intelligence of Eysenck model have been excluded in the present study.

Keeping in view to the above mentioned facts, only two independent personality dimensions of Eysenck's model viz., extraversion and neuroticism have been used as independent variables in the present study to examine their relationship with vocational aspiration.

2. As the ability to differentiate among jobs on vocationally relevant variables, cognitive differentiation has been shown to be of greater importance in career psychology (Bodden, 1967; Bodden, 1972; Winer et al, 1979; Winer et al, 1980). Earlier work done in this area focussed on possible correlational relationship between cognitive complexity, simplicity and career maturity (Winer, Cessari, Hasse and Bodden, 1979). Other researchers have focussed on the cognitive complexity, simplicity dimensions and its relationship to the processing of vocational information. Although the vocational aspiration is the first stage in the process of vocational choice, no attempt has yet been made to relate the cognitive differentiation to vocational aspiration.

So the purpose of the present study is to investigate empirically whether personality dimensions (extraversion and neuroticism) and cognitive differentiation of career independently and/or in interaction with each other, can account for differences in vocational aspiration of class X adolescent male students or not?