CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A study of the occupational aspirations of the college youth is an important topic, both for the individual and for the nation. By aspiring for and choosing the right occupations, the individuals will enjoy their world of work and the nation will flourish through the efforts of the dedicated working men and women.

To achieve this task, obviously, it becomes important to understand the various factors related to the occupational aspirations of the college youth. This effort will be of great help to the students in understanding their possible success fields of occupation as well as to gain better internal adequacy for upward social mobility.

Within the last few decades, social scientists have become increasingly concerned with factors underlying the occupational aspirations of individuals at all levels of society. Sociologists such as Millér and Form (1951) and Caplow
stress forces in our social structure as the major determinants of occupational choice; economists such as Harris (1949) stress manpower economics and psychologists emphasise the traits and needs of the individual.

In one of the first books on occupational sociology, Miller and Form (1951) state that accident is the deciding factor in the determination of the occupation of most workers. By accident they meant the accident of birth which establishes family, caste, nationality, social class, residential area and also educational and cultural opportunity.

Caplow (1954) discussing vocational choice in his book "Sociology of Work" says that we know little of how people choose their vocations. He says, parents, particularly of the middle class, project their ambitions on their children, want them to be mobile upward socially through education and reject the semiskilled and unskilled occupations. Caplow also believes that children "inherit" the occupational level of their parents and they choose a vocation within a restricted range of occupations that is acceptable to a given class.

Much of what is known as vocational aspiration comes from research done by psychologists. Vivian H. Hewer (1963)
says that of all the theories dealing with vocational aspirations, the trait and factor theories have been most helpful. This is because through good interest tests students can understand their goals and motivations; for interest is a stable trait and man's interests persist over the years and interest has lifetime meaning in choosing an occupation.

Meaning of Occupation

It is quite useful to enquire and find out the element common to the activities of carpenters and statesmen, teachers and students, engineers and doctors, composers and business executives, fighting soldiers and professional boxers in the ring and toiling farmers and computer scientists. The identical structure of such widely disparate performances does not show on the surface and is not easily grasped by a logical definition.

Paul Schrecker defines work and attributes a common element in all the occupations by the following definition: "Every action on the contrary, rightly called work actually changes, be it but infinitesimally, one or several fields of civilization" (Work and History, pp. 13-18, 1948). It is clear that all acts called work operate some change in the
field of civilization. Mere transformation of potential energy into movement by human action and vice versa, is therefore not a sufficient criterion for work. Thus many instances of activity under certain conditions may be called work, but under other would be called play or sport or pastime. The professional football player, violinist, singer, or actor is certainly working while playing football, performing a concerto, singing for a film or acting a drama. The amateur player, violinist, songster, or actor is just as certainly considered not to be working, says Schrecker. Now where does the difference lie? As expressed in the definition of work, by the professional activity at least one or even two or more provinces of civilization undergo change—namely, at least the economic and in most cases, the juridical. The professional acquires by his activity the right to a fee, which changes the distribution of money or other goods, in the world and normally by his activity he fulfils stipulated obligations. If the relevant province remains 'in status quo ante' after work is done, the expenditure of energy simply means a change in nature; it is not an element in history. Here what is important is the viewpoint with which an activity is done and so it makes no difference whether the purposed effect of the action is
achieved or not. Therefore, all work implies that the object is in some way perfectible through expenditure of energy in fulfilment of a norm.

**Berger on Work**

Berger had a thorough study on the meaning of work in human society. In a collection of essays edited by him we find three ideologies of work: (1) that work is identity, fulfilment; (2) that work is oppressive, an indignity, that it threatens self-identification and (3) that work is a grey region between these two poles, which man puts up with for the sake of other things which are more important (Berger, 1964).

**Work as Self-Expression or for Payment**

Weiss and Kahn studied people from different socio-economic statuses, what distinguished work from what was not work and three fourths of them defined work either as activity which was not enjoyed, or as activity which was scheduled for and paid for. They further saw that those people whose work relates them directly to people consider work as opportunity for self-expression, recognition and sense of competence,
while others as the factory workers tend to be concerned only with whether pay and working conditions are as good as can be expected (Weiss and Kahn, 1966).

**Meaning of Aspiration**

Aspirations are the goals a person sets for himself in tasks which have intense personal significance or in which he is ego-involved. Aspirations must be considered from three points of view: first, what performance or aspect of it the individual considers important and desirable, or what he wants to do; second, how well he expects to perform especially in the important aspects of the activity and third, how important the performance is to him either as a whole or in its different aspects (Cronbach, 1963).

**Kinds of Aspirations**

Psychologists divide aspirations into three major categories: Positive and Negative, Immediate and Remote and Realistic and Unrealistic (Hurlock, 1974).

**Positive and Negative Aspirations**

Positive aspirations are oriented towards achieving
success and negative aspirations are for avoiding failure. When a person is having history of failures he is likely to be satisfied with negative aspirations for maintaining present status and avoiding a downward slide in the social scale.

Immediate and Remote Aspirations

Immediate aspirations are derived from the person's wishes at the moment, from success or failure from the immediate past and from the social pressures placed on the person as he forms his aspirations. During early childhood, we find mainly immediate aspirations as when the baby purposefully reaches for a toy held before him, expecting to grasp it. Remote aspirations are influenced by interest and aptitude, cultural pressures and past successes and failures in the areas concerned. If an adolescent says "When I will reach college I will study for medicine" he is expressing his remote aspiration.

Realistic and Unrealistic Aspirations

Realistic aspirations are based upon one's potentialities and favourable socio-economic conditions that will help him to actualize those potentialities. Unrealistic
aspirations are wishful thinking not based upon his potentialities or the socio-economic conditions. People with unrealistic aspirations will meet with failure and disappointment. Realistic aspirations are also called real aspirations. Real aspiration implies what youth are expecting to achieve or planning about. Unrealistic aspirations may be called ideal aspirations. Ideal aspiration refers to what youth would like to achieve. The causes of unrealistic aspirations found by psychologists are uncontrolled imagination, the mass media and ignorance due to inexperience (Perrone 1967); Thompson (1966); Ulrich (1966).

**Occupational Aspirations**

Occupational aspiration of youth is the goal set by youth with regard to his future career.

**Major Theories of Occupational Aspirations**

Life on earth is unimaginable without some work. Food must at least be gathered and prepared and some shelter is needed. In our times all those who are working and not working do have the experience that there is more to an occupation than making a living. Sociological as well as psychological
studies are practically unanimous on the point that social and economic status of individuals and families depend more upon the occupation than upon anything else. Let us examine the major theories of occupational aspirations:

Work and Class Consciousness

Centers (1949) believes that a person's status and role with respect to the economic processes of society imposes upon him certain attitudes, values and interests relating to his role and status in the political and economic sphere. The status and role of the individual in relation to the means of production and exchange of goods and services gives rise in him to a consciousness of membership in some social class which shares those attitudes, values and interests. "A man's way of getting his livelihood demonstrates much of his waking life and it is out of the forces acting upon him in its economic sphere that class consciousness has been seen to exercise. That it structures itself primarily around the economic self-interest born of status and role and the forces of economic circumstances is a wholly reasonable discovery" (Centers, "The Psychology of Social Classes", Princeton N.J., Princeton University Press, 1949).
Work and Need Satisfaction

In the theory of occupations developed by Abraham Maslow (1948), individual is seen as an integrated organized whole and motivation of work is seen as need satisfaction. Maslow arranges the needs of human being in a hierarchy of prepotency. The prepotent needs are more urgent and insist­ent than the others under equal deprivation and until the prepotent ones are relatively satisfied the others do not emerge as consistent motivators of behaviour.

The basic needs are: (1) the physiological needs, (2) the safety needs, (3) the need for belongingness and love, (4) the need for importance, respect, self-esteem, independence, (5) the need for information, (6) the need for understanding, (7) the need for beauty, (8) the need for self­ actualization.

The more the possibility for satisfying higher needs in this hierarchy, the more a person will enjoy freedom and social status. Thus occupations and the needs satisfied through them determine the happiness and social status of an individual. The need hierarchy theory of occupation presented by Maslow helps us to understand why occupation
is so important in the life of an individual for happy and fuller life (Maslow, 1954).

**Trait and Factor Theory**

This was the first structural model of occupational choice. According to this theory each individual possesses certain rather stable psychological traits that are inhibited or developed as a result of person-environment interaction. Certain occupations require more or less of these traits for satisfactory performance. The task of occupational choice making, then, is to match person to jobs, so that individual needs will be met and satisfactory job performance will result. The Dawis, Lofquist and Weiss (1968a) Work Adjustment Theory goes on to suggest that job change occurs when either the job is being performed unsatisfactorily or the individual's needs are not being met.

This mold is comprehensive because it applies equally well to men and women, nonminorities and minorities. Trait-oriented vocational psychologists suggest that biological, geographical and sociological factors affect the occupational aspirations and choice.
Roe's Need Theory

Roe's theory of occupational aspirations and choice finds relationship between certain early childhood environments, need development, personality and job choice. Although her early work studied particularly artists and scientists, now it is a general theory.

Roe says, each of us is born with certain psychological predispositions and a cluster of physiological and physical strengths and weaknesses. These interact with certain environmental conditions and a need hierarchy develops. Each of us tries to meet those needs in a particular type of work environment (Roe, 1957).

Even though Roe has recognized the importance of socio-demographic variables in career choice, she has not developed an adequate statement about how this interaction occurs. This is a weakness of this theory.

Structural Theory by Holland

John Holland's structural theory of career choice (1973a) was developed from a number of research studies by
himself and others. His theory is based on the assumption that vocational interests are one aspect of what is commonly called personality and that the description of an individual's vocational interests also describes the individual's personality. Holland's theory is structural-interactive because it provides an explicit link between various personality characteristics and corresponding job titles and because it organizes the massive data about people and job.

Holland (1982a) describes what the different structural interactive approaches have in common. (1) 'The choice of an occupation is an expression of personality and not a random event although chance plays a role. (2) The members of an occupational group have similar personalities, they will respond to many situations and problems in similar ways. (3) Occupational achievement, stability and satisfaction depend on congruence between one's personality and the job environment.

The four basic assumptions underlying Holland's theory are the following (1973a):

(1) "Most persons can be categorised as one of six types: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising or conventional."
(2) There are six kinds of environments: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising or conventional.

(3) People search for environments that will let them exercise their skills and abilities, express their attitudes and values and take on agreeable problems and roles (Birds of a feather flock together).

(4) A person's behaviour is determined by an interaction between his personality and the characteristics of his environment.

According to Holland a person is oriented towards some occupation as opposed to others because of a special life history of activities, competencies, self-perceptions, values and so forth. Consequently if we desire to change the vocational aspirations of a person or a special group we must change the experience of people before they arrive at the age when they must go to work (1973a).

**Bordin's Psychoanalytic Theory**

This theory is a theory of life development with an emphasis on careers. He sees relationship between biological needs or drives and family atmosphere, which results in a
certain personality types. These ideas are somewhat similar to those of Roe and Holland, but Bordin's ideas are based on a completely different psychological theory. Bordin believes that the primary determinant of personality development is the child's identification with both parents which is a slight deviation from traditional psychoanalytic thinking. The quality of the identification depends on mutuality, the relationship between the parents and the child. When high mutuality exists, external demands are fused with desire to get satisfaction through play and thus work can become a happy, playful experience. Lacking mutuality, work may be defined as drudgery. The needs stemming from biological drives and identification emerge; some become prepotent and dictate life role selection including career.

Bordin also helps us to understand the nature of career indecision. Doubts about self, lack of clarity of needs and a polarity between spontaneity and work may cause paralysis in career development (Bordin, 1943).

This theory does not give importance to socio-demographic variables. Implicitly he assumes that his theory is a global one that applies generally to males and females,
various ethnic groups and races and perhaps to persons from various socio-economic groups as well.

**Ginzberg's Theory**

Ginzberg and others proposed a model of career development and advocated the idea that occupational choice making requires a series and sometimes a number of simultaneous decisions instead of a single choice point. Ginzberg is focusing on family status and income on career aspirations. He also alludes socio-economic variables; but he failed to generate hypothesis about the relationship of these to career choice. He has also failed to relate sociological, psychological and economic variables to problematic career development patterns and this is a defect in developing career counselling (Ginzberg, 1970).

Although his theory fails on many aspects including comprehensiveness and integration of propositions, it helps us to have the importance of the socio-economic variables in the career development process.

**Theory by Carter**

Carter, H.D. developed a theory that emphasises
personal dynamics as well as environmental realities. He came to the conclusion that vocational attitudes develop in the attempt to make a practical adjustment to environmental conditions. The external realities of the individual's familial and social situation and his own capacities, needs and motives limit the possible solutions open to him.

Carter further says that if there are serious discrepancies between his own capacities and the requirements of the vocation, he must become oriented towards a different occupational group. And slowly there emerges in him a pattern of vocational interests which becomes closely identified with the self and forms a basis for many decisions and a guide for long time planning (Carter, 1940).

Super's Developmental Theory

Super, a pioneer in the career choice theory gives a set of twelve propositions related to career development (Super, 1957).

1. People differ in their abilities, interests and personalities.

2. People are qualified by virtue of those characteristics, each for a number of occupations.
3. Each of these occupations requires a characteristic pattern of abilities, interests and personality traits, with tolerances wide enough to allow both some variety of occupations for each individual and some variety of individuals in each occupation.

4. Vocational preferences and competencies, the situations in which people live and work and hence their self-concepts change with time and experience, although self-concepts are generally fairly stable from later adolescence until late maturity making choice and adjustment a continuous process.

5. This process of change may be summed in a series of life stages characterised as those of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline.

6. The nature of career pattern—that is, the occupational level attained and the sequence, frequency and duration of trial and stable jobs—is determined by the individual's parental socio-economic level, mental ability and personality characteristics and by the opportunities to which he or she is exposed.

7. Development through the life stages can be guided, partly
by facilitating the maturing of abilities and interests
and partly by aiding in reality testing and in the
development of self-concept.

8. The process of career development is essentially that
of developing and implementing self-concept. It is a
synthesizing and compromising process, in which the self-
concept is a product of the interaction of the inherited
aptitudes, physical make-up, opportunity to play various
roles and the evaluation of the extent to which the re-
sults of role-playing meet with the approval of superiors
and fellows.

9. The process of synthesis of compromise between indivi-
dual and social factors, between self-concept and reality
is one of role playing, whether the role is played in
fantasy, in the counselling interview or in real life
activities such as classes, clubs, part-time work and
entry jobs.

10. Work satisfaction and life satisfaction depend on the
extent to which the individual finds adequate outlets
for abilities, interests, personality traits and values.
They depend on establishment in a type of work, a work situation and a way of life in which one can play the kind of role that growth and exploratory experiences have led one to consider congenial and appropriate.

11. The degree of satisfaction people attain from work is proportionate to the degree to which they have been able to implement self-concept.

12. Work and occupation provide a focus of personality organization for most men and many women, although for some persons this focus is peripheral, incidental, or even nonexistent and other foci such as leisure activities and home making, are central.

Although Super has given the chief factors associated with occupational choice in his twelve propositions, there is the criticism that Super has not clearly brought out the specific socio-economic variables influencing the occupational choice and so further research should help to explore the extent of influence of socio-economic variables on occupational choice. For example, Osipow has the following observation. "Super still must devise a way to include economic and social factors which may influence career
decisions in a more direct way than the events described in the theory currently do" (Theories of Career Development, 1973, p. 168).

Determinants of Occupational Aspirations

Studying and analysing more directly the socio-economic determinants of career choice we can have effective prediction of career development and thus career aspirations. The researcher attempts to fill this gap and to bring out the concrete relationships between occupational aspirations and socio-economic variables.

Thus to answer the question as to why and how youth aspire for different occupations we arrive at the theory of social structure which has a dual significance. On the one hand it influences the personality development of the chooser; on the other hand, it defines the socio-economic conditions in which the choice is made.

This two fold effect of social structure is schematically presented by Peter M. Blau, John W. Gustad and Richard Jessor, a psychologist, economist and sociologist respectively (1956).
The model presented by them (Fig. 1) gives a theoretical background for assessing the influence of personal as well as socio-economic variables on occupational aspirations.

In Fig. 1 the left side suggests that the moulding of biological potentialities by the differentiated social structure (Box 3) results in diverse characteristics of individuals (Box 2), some of which directly determine the occupational choice (Box 1).

At the same time as indicated on the right side, the social structure changes (Box III), resulting in socio-economic organization at any point in time (Box II), some aspects of which directly determine occupational selection (Box I). These two developments separated only for analytical purposes, must be joined to explain the entry into occupations.

Looking more closely to the specific situation of occupational choice, a choice between various possible occupations may be motivated by two interrelated sets of factors: the individual's valuation of the rewards offered by different alternatives and his appraisal of his chances of being able to realize each of the alternatives.

These valuations and appraisals of chances are acquired through and modified by social experience and both are conceived
Fig. 1: Showing the Influence of Social Structure on Occupational Aspirations of Youth

Individual A- Y's Self Presentation Order CO

Occupational Preference Expectancy hierarchy

Perceiving individual

I. IMMEDIATE DETERMINANTS
Occupational Information
Technical qualifications
Social role characteristics
Reward value hierarchy

II. IMMEDIATE DETERMINANTS
Formal opportunities (Demand)
Functional requirements
Nonfunctional requirements
Amount of types of rewards

II. SOCIOECONOMIC ORGANIZATION
Occupational distribution and rate of labour turnover
Division of labour
Policies of relevant organizations (government, firms, unions etc.)
Stage of the business cycle

III. PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT
Educational development
Process of socialization
Effects of available financial resources
Differential family influences

III. HISTORICAL CHANGE
Trends in social mobility
Shifts in industrial composition
Historical development of social organizations
Changes in level and structure of consumer demand

BIOLOGICAL CONDITIONS
Native environment

SOCIAL STRUCTURE
Social stratification system
Cultural values and norms
Demographic characteristics
Type of Economy Technology

PHYSICAL CONDITIONS
Resources
Topography
Climate
to be roughly ordered in hierarchical fashion for each person - a hierarchy of preferences (valuations) and a hierarchy of expectancies (appraisals). The course of action, upon which an individual decides, will reflect a compromise between his preferences and his expectations (an attempt to maximise expected value). Thus his actual choice will probably not be identical with his preference if his expectation of reaching the preferred goal is very low.

Restrictions to Occupational Choice

Occupational choice is restricted by existing opportunities. It does not necessarily involve conscious deliberation and weighing of alternatives. Variations in knowledge, rationality and discrimination between alternatives constitute, therefore, the limiting conditions within which individuals choose occupations by arriving at a compromise between their preferences and expectancies. This compromise is continuously modified up to the time of actual entry, since each experience in the labour market affects the individual's expectations and recurrent experiences may also affect his performances.

Let us take an example to illustrate this point. A
graduate of personnel management would have to his first preference to become a Personnel Manager in an industry, but his expectations of getting a job in this desirable occupation is so low that he does not even apply for one. The first occupational position for which he presents himself as a candidate is that of a Welfare Officer, which ranks lower on his preference hierarchy, but where his expectation of success is somewhat greater. Unable to get the position of Personnel Manager (A on the top of the chart) he tries to find work as Welfare Officer, another professional trade, which may lead to a career as Personnel Manager since he obtains employment as a Welfare Officer (B), what position he would have looked for next (C) is irrelevant; indeed this third alternative may not have crystallized in his own mind (Fig. 1).

This expectation of why an individual chooses a given occupation must be supplemented by an explanation of why he is selected for it. Let us assume that the employment practices in the industry have the result, whether achieved by deliberate effort or inadvertently, that persons with certain characteristics including considerable practical experience, have the greatest chance of being hired as Personnel Managers. Since only 50 candidates of this type present themselves for
200 openings (X) employers also accept 150 applicants whom they consider not quite as suitable for the job, such as individuals with more than adequate training but without experience (Y). Having found a sufficient number of workers, employers are not forced to lower their requirements further and hire persons who are not properly trained (Z). There is probably a floor below which employers would not be willing to drop their requirements. The closer the qualifications of applicants approach this floor, the greater is the likelihood that employers will redefine the entry situation by increasing rewards in order to attract better qualified workers.

Occupational choice, then, can be conceptualized as a process involving a series of decisions to present oneself to employers or other selectors as a candidate for a number of more or less related occupations. Each decision is governed by the way in which the individual compromises his ideal preference and his actual expectations of being able to enter a given occupation. It is in this background that individuals are aspiring for different jobs. Occupational selection on the other hand, consists of successive decisions of employers about applicants for jobs.
Other Determinants of Occupational Entry

Eight factors, four pertaining to occupations (Box 1) and four characterising individuals (Box 1), determine occupational aspirations and consequently the occupational entry (Blau, Gustad and Jessor 1956). First the demand for new members in an occupation is indicated by the number of vacancies that exist at any one time, which can be more easily ascertained, of course for the employed than for the self-employed. The size of the occupational group, its tendency to expand and its turnover rate will influence the demand for 'new members'. The second factor, functional requirements, refers to the technical qualifications needed for optimum performance of occupational tasks. The third one, non-functional requirements, refers to those criteria affecting selection that are not relevant to actual performance, such as good looks or the proper caste etc. Fourth, rewards include not only income, prestige and power, but also opportunities for advancement, congenial fellow workers, emotional gratification and all other employment conditions that are defined as desirable (Fig. 1).

Shifting now from the attributes of occupations to those of potential workers, a fifth factor that influences
occupational entry is - the information people have about an occupation - their knowledge about the requirements for entry, the rewards offered and the opportunities for employment and advancement. Two characteristics of individuals are complementary to the two types of occupational requirements, namely their technical skills to perform various occupational duties and their other social characteristics that influence hiring decisions. Finally, people's value orientation determines the relative significance of different kinds of rewards and that the attractive force exerted by them.

Many other characteristics of individuals influence their careers - level of knowledge, ability and education, social positions and relationships and orientation towards occupational life (Box 2). It can be hypothesized that the effects of all other factors can be traced through the immediate determinants of occupational entry. In other words, unless a social experience or attribute affects the information individuals have about occupation, their technical or social qualifications for entry, or their evaluation of occupations, it is not expected to influence their careers. Similarly, whereas the many aspects of the socio-economic organization (Box II) must be examined to explain the four
characteristics of occupations outlined in Box I, it is those four (plus the four directly relevant characteristics of individuals) that directly account for occupational entry, according to the hypothesis advanced here.

Problem and Its Significance

The theoretical search for the determining factors of occupational aspirations has made the researcher aware of the situations that, it is the socio-economic factors and the interests of the individuals that have a major role to play in the occupational aspirations. The investigator therefore, understood that a more concrete relationship between the occupational aspirations and socio-economic variables is to be established to have a meaningful prediction of career choice. The present study is aiming at this objective plus to relate the occupational aspirations of youth with their vocational interest, which in many cases may be developed in various socio-economic environments.

In all cultures it is the individual's occupation, through which earned status is attained or expressed. Whenever socio-economic roles are differentiated by a functional
division of labour, or a hierarchy of social prestige values, the typical occupation of a man defines and symbolizes his relative position in the stratified social organization that almost inevitably results.

According to Parsons "the most fundamental basis of the family's status is the occupational status of the husband and father...... This is a status occupied by an individual by virtue of his individual qualities and achievements. But, both directly and indirectly, more than any other single factor, it determines the status of the family in the social structure, directly because of the symbolic significance of the office or occupation as a symbol of prestige, indirectly because as the principal source of family income it determines the standard of living of the family" (Choosing a Vocation, 1909, p. 609).

Adolescents internalize the general level of status aspirations of their particular cultural or sub-cultural milieu and sustain the level of aspiration by experiencing an appropriate degree of "Socially adoptive anxiety" about the status they are expected to achieve.

As a result of this process of differential
internalization of status needs, mean differences between cultures or sub-cultures in the relative importance of acquiring prestige, preeminence, or superordinate position in the social hierarchy are transmitted and maintained. Therefore, considerable variability is found in the relative status needs of different individuals in different socio-economic groups and that such differences in urgency and magnitude of need are largely a function of the presence or absence of intrinsic feeling of adequacy.

These feelings of adequacy in adolescents are created by various individual and socio-economic determinants. Therefore, an enquiry into those individual and socio-economic factors that create the presence or absence of this intrinsic adequacy will be of great practical importance.

The independent India, in her attempt to improve the general socio-economic standard of the country, initiated many industrial ventures which naturally created changes in the aspirations and outlook of the Indian Youth. The agricultural and traditional jobs of old generation no more attracted the young. Starting of industries and the consequent job opportunities in the organized sector attracted youth
Moreover, the Constitution of India promises equal opportunity to all citizens in the field of occupation as in any other field. In this context it is worthwhile to study what the youth of India, especially those from lower socio-economic strata, are aspiring for. Because these aspirations in the occupational fields are the indicators of the intensity of their internal adequacy. Do the youth of lower socio-economic strata have the internal adequacy to aspire for higher occupations? How far are the Constitutional safeguards with regard to occupational choice applied in practice to the average citizens of India, especially to the youth belonging to scheduled caste and scheduled tribes? Answers to these questions will reveal the real democratic climate in which Indian Youth are growing. The gap between the promised and the practised is important to be understood, so that the ideals of Indian democracy may be upheld where individuals, regardless of caste, creed and economic differences will get a chance to serve India and bring her to progress according to each one's ability and interest.

The investigator, therefore, is making a humble
effort to measure the intensity of adequacy of youth in Kerala (a state which stands first in literacy rate and in general awareness) by measuring the influence of the individual and socio-economic variables on the occupational aspirations of the college students.