CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Research has been carried out in different fields from time to time and knowledge has been accumulating since ages. The review of related literature is of paramount importance for every researcher who wants to proceed meaningfully in choosing his/ her research project from the field of interest. It involves locating, reading, and evaluating the research, carried out earlier, so as to get the background and understanding of the emerging trends. This helps the researcher to proceed with essential insight and avoid pitfalls of trial and error. The real purpose of the review of related research is the fitness of a particular project into a broader scheme, enabling one to see its importance and relate it to other studies.

According to Kerlinger (1978) “The underlying purpose of review of related literature of course, is to locate the present research in the existing body of research on the subject and to point out what it contributes to the subject”.

In the present chapter, however, an attempt has been made to review the literature on career maturity of students, whatever could be gathered from various sources. The review of related studies is concluded with an overview, highlighting the emerging trends in research relating to career maturity.

The review is based on a survey of articles, speculative essays, empirical papers published in research journals, books, educational surveys published by National Council of Educational Research and Training, and M.Phil. or Doctoral dissertations related to the theme. With a view to making present theme more comprehensive, coherent and unified, the review of related studies is divided into the following categories:

2.1 Studies related to career maturity.
2.2 Studies related to career maturity and family climate
2.3 Studies related to career maturity and school climate
2.4 Studies related to career maturity and educational aspiration

The review of a reasonable number of studies related directly or indirectly to the problem undertaken by the investigator is presented in the succeeding pages.
2.1 STUDIES RELATED TO CAREER MATURITY

Kathuria (1974) investigated some personality determinants of vocational maturity and career indecisiveness and found no significant differences in the anxiety scores of vocationally decisive and indecisive undergraduate females. He also demonstrated the effect of informal experiences in enhancing vocational maturity and lowering vocational indecision.

Elutain (1979) studied career maturity of freshmen and seniors of selected high schools in Alaska and found that ninth grade students in urban area of Alaska scored significantly lower on self-appraisal sub-test of CMI (Crites, 1978) than did freshmen students surveyed in two rural areas of the state. Conversely, the urban freshmen scored significantly higher on their information and planning than did their rural counterparts. Differences between sub-cultures demonstrated along geographical and residential lines are often reflected in the vocational growth of an individual.

McCaffrey (1980) studied career maturity of graduate and under-graduate students and reported that students who had a high degree of participation in those co-curricular activities which emphasized individual responsibility and a positive response to social expectation were more likely to evidence higher level of vocational tasks and dimensions as correlated with vocational behavior.

Aggarwal (1981) examined the factors related to career maturity of school students and found significant gender differences for school students on self-appraisal, occupational information, planning and career maturity attitude of career maturity inventory (CMI).

Harmon (1981) investigated career plans of adult college women and reported that although women aspired for non-traditional careers in their teens, they changed to more traditional career goals when they reached their twenties. It was also found that career aspirations and self-image decreased between matriculation and second year of college.

Guthrie and Herman (1982) investigated vocational maturity and its relationship to Holland’s theory of career choice and found consistent support for the hypothesis that career maturity increases as individuals advance in age and grade level.

Tulsi (1983) examined differential effect of career guidance strategies on vocational patterns and found that the variable of gender did not contribute towards
variance in scores on self-appraisal, occupational information, goal selection, planning and problem solving.

Royalty, Sedlacek and Johnson (1984) studied self-concept and career maturity of traditional, non-traditional and home-making oriented freshmen and senior women. It was reported that the career women (traditional and non-traditional) do not significantly differ on self-esteem and career maturity, especially as freshmen. The only difference found was that homemaking-oriented women differed less on these variables from freshmen and senior women than the career-oriented groups.

Klayman (1985) examined the strategic decision behavior of children, particularly the ability to adapt decision strategies to task characteristics. It was reported that by the age of 12, children understand many aspects of strategic decision-making and they modify their strategies appropriately in response to task complexity, as do the adults.

Gottfredson (1986) identified 12 factors that affect career choice and place certain populations at risk for experiencing career choice difficulties. These risk factors include low intelligence, poor education, cultural isolation, low self-esteem, functional limitations, non-traditional interest, social isolation, low/high intelligence compared with family/peers, primary economic provider. These factors place women, racial/ethnic minorities, and individuals with disabilities at particularly high risk for career choice problems.

Gaur (1987) studied psychological bases of educational and vocational development of schedule caste students and reported that the predictor variables of career maturity in the case of non-scheduled caste boys were social values, intellectual self-concept, and total academic achievement. In case of scheduled caste boys, social concept and theoretical values were found to be significant.

Bhatnagar and Gupta (1988) studied the effect of a short-term guidance intervention program on career maturity of secondary school students and found that all the three groups: boys, girls and combined showed significantly higher scores after the guidance intervention.

West (1988) compared the career maturity of the American Indian and non-Indian college students. The findings revealed that Indian students had lower mean scores on career maturity than non-Indian students within the total sample and within the class levels. It was also found that other than ethnicity, rural or urban background
of the students, age, educational grade level, and gender were the factors that influenced career maturity scores in students.

Dunn and Veltman (1989) suggested that lower career maturity might actually reflect perceptions of restrictive post-graduation vocational options. A sense of limited career options may be amplified due to a lack of economic vitality and meaningful employment options found in many rural areas. A third possibility is that the delayed career maturity of risk youth may represent limited exposure to formal career preparation, the influence of age and lack of immediacy to identify potential careers, or both.

Gaur and Thukral (1989) studied career maturity of scheduled caste and non-scheduled caste boys of high schools. The findings revealed that there was no significant difference between the scheduled and non-scheduled caste boys on each of six dimensions of career maturity inventory-attitude scale, planning, self appraisal, occupational information, goal selection and problem solving.

King (1989) compared male and female adolescents with a causal model of career maturity and reported that the development of career maturity differs in subtle ways for male and female students. For males, the single most important determinant of career attitudes was age. The older a boy becomes, the more ready he is to make career decisions. Although this tends to be true for females as well, age is not as important as a sense of family cohesion and an internal locus of control.

Haddad (1990) investigated career maturity of graduate students and revealed that the age in relation to career maturity was found to be statistically significant, but no statistically significant relationship was found between gender and career maturity of the graduate student. It was also reported that there was no statistically significant relationship between major fields of study and career maturity of graduate students.

National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee (1990) conducted a survey on adults and reported that nearly two thirds of the respondents had sought more information about career options when they began their careers. Only 40% of working adults followed a definite plan in mapping out their careers, 30% got started through a series of chance circumstances, 18% took the only job that was available and 12% were influenced by family and friends.

Murrell and Fraize (1991) examined occupational and educational plans of 101 black and 530 white college women and their attitudes towards combining the roles of
career and family. Results indicated that women who planned career in male
dominated occupations had higher career and educational aspirations than women
who desired careers in female-dominated occupations. Black women who planned
careers in male-dominated professions showed high levels of aspiration, planned more
education than was necessary for the desired occupations and perceived less conflict
in combining the roles on career and family than their white counterparts. There were
few differences between black and white women in their attitudes towards the
traditional roles of men and women.

Kaur (1992) studied self concept and locus of control as predictors of career
maturity on six sub-groups. The results indicated that self-concept was a significant
predictor of competencies of career maturity for boys, girls and for the total sample.
Locus of control was a significant predictor in the attitude towards career maturity for
the total sample and for boys, while for girls it was not. Further, sex was not a
significant predictor of attitude towards career maturity and total competencies of
career maturity.

Chen (1993) examined career development of gifted and non-gifted senior
high school students and reported that there were no significant differences between
gifted and non-gifted students among the indices of diversity of interests, vocational
trends, and career directions. It was also reported that gifted junior high school
students’ indices of diversity of interest were higher than those of non-gifted students.

Lin (1993) investigated career development process of gifted and non-gifted
students in two top senior high schools in Taipei city. The results revealed that the
gifted freshman students’ career goals were vague, and a portion of them were
irrational, although these students were superior to their non-gifted counterparts in
career planning and knowledge of the world of work.

Pharaon (1993) compared the career maturity of college women in two
cultures: Saudi Arabia and Lebanon. The results indicated that Lebanese college
females had a higher level of career maturity than their Saudi counterparts as a result
of greater opportunities for career exploration and more educational options. The
socialization practices of a Saudi society seemed to have produced confusion in
women about their self-perceptions and their societal roles.

Roy (1993) studied career maturity of graduating college students and found a
significant difference in career maturity scores for male and female students in the
career course and non-career course groups. It was also reported that course-differences showed significant interaction with gender-differences.

Sharma, Bhargava and Sinha (1993) studied career attitude and career competence among adolescents and reported that science and mathematics groups showed significantly favorable career attitude than commerce group. It was also found that both groups showed significant differences in total career competence as well as in planning, problem solving and self-appraisal. Science group showed better total competence as well as in planning and problem solving whereas, commerce group showed better competence in self-appraisal.

Neece (1994) compared the career maturity of African American college students studying in Traditionally Black Institutions (TBI) and Predominantly White Institutions (PWI). The TBI students were found to have higher levels of career attitude than PWI students. TBI freshmen were much lower in career maturity than TBI seniors, who were similar to PWI freshmen and seniors. Furthermore, findings indicated that seniors scored higher than freshmen in almost all aspects of career maturity. With regard to gender, no significant difference was found. In general, parental variables and academic achievement were not strongly related to career maturity.

Sharma and Bhargava (1994) studied career maturity between intermediate students of commerce and science groups and found that science (Biology) and commerce groups differed significantly in career attitude. It was also found that the commerce group showed better total competence and competence in occupational information and goal selection, whereas, science group showed better in problem-solving competence.

Dailey (1995) compared the career maturity of male athletes who participated in swimming and gymnastics and non-athletes in the same academic environment. Results indicated that participation in surveyed sports resulted in low career maturity. Demographic factors such as parents’ education, years in college, high school grade point average, and college grade point average were not significant predictors of an athlete’s career maturity. However, these were all predictors for a non-athlete’s career maturity.

Luzzo (1995) examined the relationship between career aspirations-current occupation and the career maturity of undergraduates and found a significant
relationship between the two. It was also reported that women had higher career maturity scores than men, they were more inclined to perceive role conflict and barriers as obstacles in their career development process.

Robinson (1995) studied the effect of career course on the career maturity of undergraduate students and concluded that overall females demonstrated a greater level of career maturity than males. Career courses have positive effects on the career maturity of the students.

Rojewski, Wicklein and Schell (1995) examined the effect of gender and academic risk behaviour on the career maturity of rural youth and revealed that females were more involved and independent in their career development than males.

Galotti and Kozberg (1996) conducted a longitudinal study that examined decision-making process of the college students. It was observed that students do experience stress in making decisions, and in many ways perceive it as a life-framing one. It was also reported that students were more comfortable with their approach to the decision, more confident in their ability to make the decision, and more satisfied.

Neyer (1996) compared the career maturity of elite athletes and non-athletes. No significant difference in career maturity was found between these two groups. Age and years of education were positively correlated with career maturity but the correlation was significant for non-athletes only.

Ranhotra (1996) studied career decision making as related to career maturity, family environment, self concept and academic achievement at 10+2 stage students and revealed that boys scored higher on career decision making whereas girls scored higher on career maturity. Students from the vocational group had better decidedness than their counterparts in academic groups. Further, 10+2 students were above average on all the six measures of career maturity.

Brown (1997) examined whether sex differences exist in career maturity for African-American urban youth and studied their career choices expectations and educational plans. African-American females were found to have higher career maturity than males. Educational plans were found to be consistent with occupational expectations for both males and females.

Binachi (1998) analyzed some variables influencing career aspirations of eighth grade students and found that there was significant relationship between gender
and career aspirations of students. It was also reported that girls did not prefer to enter traditionally male dominated technical careers.

Guss and Adams (1998) explored various issues related to effect of gender on career development. Results demonstrated that career education significantly influenced the non-traditional perception of sixth grade students. But it was also felt that for meaningful changes in beliefs for gender and self-concept, comprehensive educational approaches may be required. The study has important implication for counseling.

Ohler, Levinson and Sanders (1998) examined career maturity of college students in relation to gender and disability and found significant differences in career maturity of male and female students. It was also explored that female college students demonstrated higher levels of overall career maturity and career knowledge, including decision making and the world of work than male college students.

Perron, Vondracek and Skorikov (1998) in a longitudinal study of vocational maturity and ethnic identity development in a majority and a minority group of 641 students, with boys (N=306) and girls (N=335), reported that the correlation coefficients between ethnic identity and the four components of vocational maturity in the whole sample and in both ethnic groups were significant and indicated moderate positive linear associations. Comparison made between the two ethnic groups showed that minority students scored considerably higher than majority students on ethnic identity, information sources, and occupational knowledge.

Powell and Luzzo (1998) evaluated factors associated with the career maturity of high school students. Findings revealed that male high school students perceived more of control over career decision-making than did female students.

Touma (1998) conducted a study on career maturity among high school students. The effect of gender, race, school type and curriculum on the career maturity scores of high school seniors were investigated. The sample consisted of 157 high school seniors drawn from high schools of South Carolina. Results indicated a significant main effect for race on attitude scale of the CMI, and a significant effect of curriculum on the total scores of CMI. Sex did not emerge as a significant factor.

Wood (1998) examined the relationship of career maturity to ethnicity, gender, academic achievement, interest, parental influence, and socio-economic status in African-American and White students. The dependent variables better predicted the
CMI subscales for White ninth graders than for African American ninth graders. The independent variables were found to be better predictor for male students than for female students.

Hinkelman (1999) examined the effects of prior counseling on the career maturity of rural high school students. A sample of grades ninth to eleventh students was selected. Findings revealed a significant main effects for time (frequency of treatment) and sex for career maturity, a significant main effects for time as well as group x sex interaction, and a group x sex x time interaction for career maturity.

Mau (1999) investigated the cultural relevance of two important career constructs: career decision-making style and career decision-making self-efficacy. Two groups of college students having distinct cultures Americans (N=540) and Taiwaneses (N=1026), participated in the study. Results showed significant differences in career decision-making style and career decision-making self-efficacy as a function of nationality and gender. Results also suggested that career decision-making styles have differential impact on career decision-making self-efficacy, depending on the cultural background of the students.

Porter (1999) examined the influence of a career exploratory curriculum on the career maturity of eighth grade students. The population consisted of students who were enrolled in a rural North East Georgia middle school. The results revealed that there was no difference between treatment and control group on competence test, no significance difference between male and female students in the treatment group and no difference among racial groups on the attitude scale or competence test of CMI.

Pyle (1999) determined the growth in career maturity of students participating in a nationally recognized program of career awareness, developed cooperatively by the National Hot Rod Association and various corporate and educational partners. The results showed that students increased their knowledge about occupations and career decision-making. They also improved their attitudes and feelings toward making career choices and entering the world of work. Overall their career maturity improved. These increases were not affected by sex, type of program enrolled in, ethnicity, or level of achievement.

Weisskiach (1999) examined the relationship between career maturity and some other variables and found significant relationship between career maturity and self-clarity, achievement identity status, moratorium identity status, diffusion identity
status, and overall identity status. The knowledge about occupations and training, parenting relationship between career maturity styles, part-time work attitudes, and school attitudes did not reach significant levels.

Barnes (2000) examined the effect of guidance treatment on career maturity of higher school students as measured by career maturity inventory in a guidance program. The results indicated no significant difference between grade levels and career maturity of the students. Further, gender did not account for a significant amount of variability in total scores of career maturity inventory scale.

Hardin, Fredrick and Osipow (2000) investigated whether theories and measurement of career maturity, because of their reliance on independence in career choice attitude as a crucial variables, may be culturally relative and therefore less valid when working with Asian Americans. Results revealed that as a group, Asian Americans exhibited less mature career choice attitudes than European Americans. However, high acculturation Asian American and those with lower acculturation did not differ from European Americans in maturity of career choice attitudes.

Kumar (2000) investigated the vocational maturity of 10+2 students of academic and vocational streams in relation to achievement motivation and socio-economic status and revealed that level of vocational maturity of the students at 10+2 stage was below average in career choice attitudes as well as career choice competencies. It was also reported that academic stream students scored higher on vocational maturity inventory as compared to the students from vocational stream.

Petrone (2000) measured competence of the students for career decision making and concluded that there was no significant relationship between cognitive dimension and attitudinal dimension. But significant differences were found between male and female students in their career decision-making.

Powell (2000) investigated relationships between career maturity and some variables as age, gender and career goal among students. The findings revealed that age variable was significantly correlated with increase in career maturity i.e. older students had higher career maturity than younger students. Gender variable was significantly correlated with the increase in career maturity i.e. female students scored higher on career maturity than male students. Career goal variable was significantly correlated with increase in career-maturity i.e. students who had selected a career goal had higher career maturity than students who had not.
Wu (2000) explored the relationships among vocational interests, career maturity, academic performance and academic interests of male senior high school students talented in mathematics and science streams, with a sample of 170 gifted students and 170 regular students. The findings revealed that the two groups differed in four selected levels of investigative vocational interest and career maturity. It was also reported that there were significant relationships between career variables and academic attributes.

Gillespie (2001) measured the influence of a career course intervention by comparing career planning students who participated in the treatment with the career planning students who did not participate. The results indicated that there was no significant difference between experimental and comparison groups on the career decision-making and the career maturity inventory.

Hargrove (2001) examined the effect of an exploratory career curriculum on the career maturity of ninth grade students. The students enrolled in physical education and JROTC made up the non-equivalent control group design. The students in the experimental group showed higher career maturity on the post test-affective scale than the students in the control group. But no significant differences were found between the groups on the Cognitive scale. It was also reported that there was no significant difference between the male and female students in the experimental group on the CDI scale.

Lee (2001) conducted a cross-cultural comparison of career maturity between high school students of Korea and United States. First a Korean version of the Career Attitude Maturity Inventory (CAMI) was constructed. Then, an English version parallel to that Korean version was formed following three stages of procedure viz. translation, back translation, and field study. Finally, high school students of eleventh grade from two different cultures (331 from Korea and 266 from the United States) were administered the CAMI. Results indicated the constructs of career maturity are similar across the two cultures with no gender differences. However, it was found that level of career maturity for those constructs was culture-bound.

Vista (2001) examined socio-psychological differential of vocational maturity among adolescents of academic and vocational streams and reported that students of high socio-economic status scored higher on vocational maturity as compared to students of low socio-economic status in both the streams. Further, significant
differences were found in vocational maturity of female and male adolescents of academic as well as vocational streams and differences were in favor of females.

-Kaur (2002) reported that senior secondary students in academic group possessed higher level of career maturity, intelligence, self-esteem and academic achievement in comparison to students in vocational group. On the basis of the discussion on gender, girls were found relatively more mature in respect of career attitudes and competencies. They exhibited higher decisiveness and certainty about their future course of action in respect of vocational placement.

-Kumar (2002) studied career maturity in relation to socio-economic status and gender of high school students and revealed that when the total sample was taken, significant gender differences were found on four sub-variables of career maturity namely self-appraisal, occupational information, competence test and overall career maturity in favour of girls. But no gender differences were found on the remaining parameters of career maturity namely attitude scale, goal selection, planning and problem solving dimensions. The results also indicated that the mean difference, in case of total sample, between rural and urban students on career maturity were significantly in favour of urban students on five dimensions of career maturity namely, self-appraisal, occupational information, goal selection, competence test and overall career maturity; differences on the remaining three sub-variables of career maturity, that is, attitude scale, planning and problem solving were not significant.

Dahle (2003) examined predictors of career maturity attitude of first generation college students and found significant relationship between the combination of race, gender, and career maturity attitude. Also male Caucasian first generation college students were found to have lower scores on the career maturity inventory than Caucasian females as well as than African-American males and females.

Smedley, Levinson, Barker and DeAngelis (2003) investigated the level of career maturity of non-adjudicated high school students without disabilities and three groups of adjudicated high school students without disabilities, with learning disabilities, and with emotional disturbances. No significant differences existed in the career maturity of non adjudicated and adjudicated students without disabilities. Adjudicated students with emotional disabilities and learning disabilities scored
significantly lower than non adjudicated high school students without disabilities on the overall measure of career maturity.

Coestse and Schepers (2004) determined the personality and cognitive correlates of career maturity. The sample comprised of 1476 first year students from different faculties at a South African University. The career development questionnaire was used to determine the career maturity levels of the respondents. Based on the scores in respect of the career development questionnaire the respondents were divided into three categories: career mature, career immature and middle group. These groups were then compared in respect of various personality and cognitive constructs. Statistically significant differences were found in respect of most of the personality constructs but not in terms of the cognitive constructs.

Creed, Hyde and Punch (2004) studied career development of hard of hearing high school students in Australia, attending regular classes with itinerant teacher support. Sixty five hard of hearing students were compared with a matched group of normally hearing peers on measures of career maturity, career indecision, perceived career barriers, and three variables associated with Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT), career decision-making self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and goals. In addition the predictors of career maturity and career indecision were tested in both groups. Results indicated that (1) the two groups did not differ on the measures of career maturity, (2) the SCCT variables were less predictive of career behavior for the hard of hearing students than for the normally hearing students, and (3) perceived career barriers related to hearing loss predicted lower scores on career maturity attitude for hard of hearing students.

Patton, Watson and Creed (2004) investigated the career maturity of 1090 high school students within the age range of 8 to 12 in Australia (N=656) and South Africa (N=434). The scores on the Australian version of Career Development Inventory (CDI) were analyzed. MANOVA was used to assess the effects of gender, grade and school on the career development inventory subscale. At the univariate level, significant main effects for gender were found for world of work knowledge and career decision-making. Significant main effects for grade were found for career planning, career exploration, and world of work knowledge. One significant main effect for school was found in career decision-making. Significant interaction effects for school by grade were found for career planning, career exploration and career
decision-making. Significant interaction effects for school by gender were found for career exploration and world of work knowledge. There were no differences between Australian females and South African females on career exploration. Australian females scored lower than South African females at year 9 for career planning, but they scored higher than South African females at all years for world of work knowledge.

Singg (2005) studied work-status, responsibility and career maturity of college students. The results (3x2 ANOVA) demonstrated that part time workers were more responsible and they displayed greater career maturity than full time and non-working students. Young female students displayed higher levels of career maturity than the young male students, but did not differ on personal responsibility. Gender was not found to be a factor in relationship between worker status and career maturity.

Crews (2006) investigated the degree of career maturity of college freshmen who were currently attending a doctoral level university in the South Eastern United States. The study provided evidence that achieving more of the 11 career competencies at a high degree of achievement lead to a higher degree of career maturity. This findings also provided evidence of the need for comprehensive career counseling programs in grade K-12. The finding also provided evidence of the importance of other methods outside of career interventions, helping students to achieve a high degree of career maturity.

Hasan (2006) studied career maturity of 240 adolescent students of class tenth within the age range of 14 to 16 years studying in Hindi medium government schools, as a function of self-concept, vocational aspiration and gender. The results indicated that the students with real occupational aspiration have showed higher level of career maturity than the students with idealistic occupational aspiration. Occupational aspiration emerged as an important factor affecting career maturity of the adolescent students. A significant difference in career maturity of male and female students was also shown, where males showed greater career maturity than the females.

Hooper (2006) explored the differences in career maturity scores of male student-athletes playing inter-collegiate basketball at different competitive levels. There was a significant difference in overall career maturity and involvement scores of student-athletes based upon competition level (p value <0.5).
Amadi, Jashua and Asagwara (2007) investigated the vocational maturity and occupational preferences of 600 senior secondary school students. The results showed that adolescent students were vocationally mature in the four dimensions of vocational maturity namely: self knowledge, occupational information, involvement in decision making and independence in decision making and also in the overall variable of vocational maturity. It was also found that gender has no influence on the three out of the four and on the overall dimensions of vocational maturity; but gender had influence on the level of independence in decision making of adolescent students. Further, age did not influence occupational preference of adolescent students but school location significantly influenced occupational preference of adolescent students.

Borges (2007) examined career maturity of 441 first-year medical students in a traditional versus an accelerated academic program. For both populations, no formal career programming was offered to the students before their participation in the study. The results revealed that students in traditional program were found to have significantly greater career crystallization and career specification. Additionally, significant differences were found between the groups regarding their overall scores on the Medical Career Development Inventory (MCDI).

Kostko (2008) examined career decision-making self-efficiency among high school students of public and private schools. It was reported that female students scored higher than male students on four of the subscales measured on the CDMSE-12 items, indicating a greater level of career decision-making self-efficacy for females than males though the difference between female and male students was not significant.

Lee (2008) proposed a career readiness model with five career-related attributes of which the relationship between career maturity and gender role ideology was mediated by interdependent self-construal and career decision-making self-efficacy, while the relationship between locus of control and career maturity was mediated by career decision-making self-efficacy. The statistical results of career readiness model suggested satisfactory goodness of fit, with 15% of the total variance in career maturity explained by the career related attributes in combination. Gender role ideology had a direct positive effect on career maturity. After controlling the effects of the three background variables gender, participation in career related
activities and participation in extra-curricular activities on the career readiness model, the estimated path coefficients of the five career-related attributes with the inclusion or exclusion of the background variables were statistically consistent.

Salami (2008) investigated relationship of career maturity to gender and identity status of 275 male and 306 female secondary school students. The two measures Career Maturity Inventory Attitude Scale (CMI-AS) and Extended Objective Measure of Ego Identity Status (COM-EIS) were used in collecting the data. The results indicated that male and female adolescents had similar levels of career maturity and identity status. Significant correlations were found between career maturity and differed identity status (r=-0.24, P<0.05), moratorium identity status (r=0.20, P<0.05) and achieved identity status (r=0.20, P<0.05), but non-significant correlation was found between career maturity and foreclosure identity status (r=0.18, P>0.05).

Heller (2009) examined the relationship between role conflict, athletic identity, and career-related distress, and their effect on career maturity of 200 National Collegiate Athletic Association Division (NCAA) student athletes from two universities. The results indicated 55% of the variance of career maturity was accounted for by role conflict, athletic identity, and career-related distress. The findings also revealed that career-related distress was the only variable that significantly predicted career maturity. However, the findings did not find support for gender differences in career-related distress.

Baker-cobb (2009) analyzed career maturity levels of intellectually gifted middle school students, as well as to the ninth though twelfth graders in the normal group. The findings indicated that intellectually gifted students have more mature attitudes towards career decision-making than their typical peers but not more so than the high school students in normal sample. Further, no significant differences were found in the career maturity of the sixth and seventh grade intellectually gifted participants.

Lim, Kun, Kim, and Lee (2010) examined the effectiveness of a cognitive-behavioral program for nursing students on career attitude maturity, decision-making style, and self-esteem in Korea. The subjects were 40 nursing students from one college located in Gyeonggi province; 20 participants were randomly assigned to an experimental group and 20 were assigned to a control group. Data was analyzed by using chi-test and t-test. After treatment with cognitive-behavioral therapy, the
experimental group significantly increased in the mean score of career maturity attitude and self-esteem of nursing students in Korea.

Conkel-Ziebell (2010) examined the relationships among personal factors, environmental factors, career maturity, career decision-making self-efficacy, and vocational outcome expectations of inner-city adolescents. Findings suggested that greater career maturity and stronger support system would significantly predict career decision-making self-efficacy and vocational outcome expectations. Results also indicated that career maturity was positively related to inner-city youths’ efficacy to make career decision as well as the expected outcome of these career decisions.

Walker (2011) examined the relationship between career maturity and career decision self-efficacy of 347 college students with and without disabilities and revealed a positive correlation between career maturity and career decision self-efficacy of college students with and without a disability. The students without a disability had higher levels of career maturity than students with a disability. For the students with disabilities, self advocacy and career decision self-efficacy were the only variable that positively affected career maturity.

The above referred studies revealed that career maturity of an individual is a gradual process that develops through age, experience, and grade level. It increases as an individual grows through different ages and grade levels. Moreover, career choice process is not a single act, rather a number of other factors reflect their influence on the career behavior and career maturity of an individual. Some studies seem to have been undertaken so far to explore gender and have produced mixed results of the influence of gender on career maturity. From the literature reviewed on the relationship between gender and career maturity, it could be concluded that the findings are inconclusive. This is an evidence of inconstancy which need to be clarified and gaps that need to be filled. Hence, there is need to investigate the relationship between gender and career maturity of adolescent students.

2.2 STUDIES RELATED TO CAREER MATURITY AND FAMILY CLIMATE

Parlikar (1973) demonstrated that family adjustment was associated with overall vocational maturity among ninth and eleventh grades boys and girls. The results indicated a positive relationship between mother identification and measured vocational maturity among grade eleventh girls. Parental education, family harmony,
parent-child interaction, all affect career maturity of the students. It has been seen that most of vocationally immature children come from semi-educated parents.

Shoffner and Klemer (1973) studied the parental role in children’s vocational choice and suggested that parents affect their children’s career choices by acting as role models, and also influence the children’s self concept. They seem to act as occupational motivators, job information resources and providers of the development environment.

Dillard (1978) studied career maturity and socio-economic status of black youth and found that socio-economic status of family was the best predictor of career maturity. There were significant differences in the career maturity of urban-lower, urban-middle and sub-urban middle class black males.

Sinha (1978) examined the role of the family in terms of parent child relations and socioeconomic status in shaping the vocational interest of students. A healthy home (amicable parent-child relations) kindled love for scientific and executive fields. Parental avoidance coupled with high economic and social values led to interest in computational business and persuasive field. Absence of parental democratic values and non acceptance of children were associated with interest in artistic and musical fields.

Baldwin (1979) examined the effect of home environment on child development and revealed that home environment had significant effect on the children’s behavior and their development. It was also reported that children from democratic homes were more outgoing, active, competitive and resourceful.

Bradley (1982) explored birth order and sibling dynamics in career counseling and revealed a significant relationship between the child’s first position in the family and their career choices as astronauts, attorneys, physicians, teachers and nurses. It was suggested that first born are responsive to parental expectations and cultural values. The unconventional careers like creative artists were found to be more characteristic of second born.

Kapur (1982) conducted some case studies on adolescent girls and their parents and reported some conflicting situations in the case of parents who were more conventional in their thinking. It was also found that in some cases parents imposed their over ambitious plans on their daughters, much against their wishes.
Schulenberg, Vondracek and Crouter (1984) explored the influence of family on vocational development of the adolescents and revealed a positive influence going from parents to the adolescent regarding the parental factors such as parenting styles, parental support, parental modeling etc. and career development.

LuyeeWicz (1985) examined mother’s influence on her daughter’s educational and occupational achievement found that educational achievement of the daughter’s are greatly influenced by their mothers. It was also reported that mother’s predictions of daughter’s perceived encouragement has an additional 20% of the variance in daughter’s educational achievement.

Poole and Gelder (1985) investigated family cohesiveness and autonomy in career decision-making among 292 female and 227 male adolescents. The findings indicated that family cohesiveness and autonomy emerged as two independent factors with females higher on both dimensions.

Vijaylakshmi (1985) studied sex-role orientation and career orientation of adolescents on both traditional and non-traditional lines and found that both influenced positively by educated and working mothers in professional and non-professional careers.

Aggarwal (1989) examined career orientations and family characteristics among high school girls and concluded that parents’ interest and concern with the academic programs of the girls had a positive effect on career aspiration of the respondents.

Chalungsooth (1989) studied career-decision making of South-East Asian women of Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand. The findings revealed that out of 13 factors that influenced the career decision-making, the effect of family was the most important factor.

Kotrlik and Harrison (1989) examined career decision patterns of high school students and reported that the students perceive that their parents have more influence on their career choices than others. It was also reported that the influence of the mother was stronger than that of the father.

Orthner (1990) studied effect of parents on the career choices of adolescents and reported that parents play a vital role in affecting the cause and quality of career choice of the adolescents.
Rajput (1992) studied the effect of certain family factors on the educational aspiration and academic achievements of the secondary school students. The sample consisted of students of ninth and twelfth classes of Garhwal region, covering male as well as female students belonging to urban and rural areas. It was found that (1) the educational aspiration of the students, in general, having high and medium family environment was significantly higher than low family environment, (2) the urban students belonging to medium family environment were influenced more than the low family environment group of rural students in their educational aspiration.

Penick and Jepson (1992) used the family functioning scale developed by Bloom (1985) and some measures of career maturity for studying the family functioning and adolescent career development and showed that family members perceptions of whole family unit interaction explained more variance in vocational identity than other control variables like achievement, gender and socio economic status etc.

Coetzee (1994) examined the relationship between career maturity of ninth grade students and perceptions of their family functioning. The results indicated that decision-making was an important factor in the career maturity of adolescents. The readiness to make a decision regarding a career includes psychosocial and cognitive readiness. Socio-economic background and the parental sub-system both influenced career maturity of grade nine students. All dimensions of family functioning were related to career maturity.

Badiozamai (1995) explored that home environment variables such as parents aspiration for the child, concern for the use of language, parents reinforcement of aspiration, knowledge of child’s educational progress, family involvement in educational activities and independence given to children by allowing them to make a decision to be significantly related to children’s academic intrinsic motivation.

Gilbertson (1995) assessed influential factors held by the parents towards vocational courses of their children and concluded that parents were in general agreement to certain perceptions towards vocational courses. Parents of students enrolled in vocational education courses had a significantly more positive attitude towards vocational education than parents of students who were not enrolled in vocational courses.
Binachi (1998) studied the variables influencing eighth grade students’ career aspirations and reported that gender, father’s educational attainment, father’s occupation and students reading skills were significantly related to career maturity.

Nivedita and Anuja (1998) examined attitude of parents towards professional education and reported a significant difference between the attitude of educated and uneducated parents towards girls professional education. Also a significant difference was found between attitude of service class and non-service class parents towards girls professional education.

Smith (1998) examined the perception of eleventh and twelfth grade students enrolled in vocational education courses towards work and career related issues. The results of the study did not yield any significant mean difference between or among the assessed variables i.e. grade level of students, gender and educational level of mother and father.

Tan (1998) examined the influence of home and schools on the career development of Singapore adolescents and found significant influence of home and school on the career development of the adolescents.

Kaur (1999) compared gifted and average students with respect to career choices and family environment at senior secondary stage. The sample consisted of 700 students (194 gifted and 506 intellectual average). It was found that family environment of gifted students reflected more cohesive, expressiveness, independence, organized, achievement oriented then average students.

Molia (2000) compared home environmental of rural and urban students of secondary schools. The sample consisted of 300 boys selected from eighth class (150 rural and 150 urban) of secondary schools of Rajkot district. It was found that urban students were superior on home environment than rural students.

Patel (2000) studied family climate of 526 adolescents both girls and boys aged 13-16 years, belonging to different socio-economic strata. It was found that economic level of the family was an important factor influencing the nature of various dimensions of family environment.

Cinamon (2001) explored the relationship between fathers’ unemployment and three career related variables of their adolescent children: work values, career maturity, and expectations for success in work of 91 eleventh and twelfth grade students (42 males and 49 females), of whose 45 had an unemployed father.
Significant differences in work values, career maturity, and expectations of job success were observed between adolescents whose fathers were employed and adolescents of unemployed fathers.

Rush (2002) examined the family relationship dynamics and career decision-making self-efficacy of African-American college students and revealed that there was a positive relationship between African-American college freshmen’s perceptions of their family environment and their increased career decision-making self-efficacy.

Haktania and Kargi (2004) investigated the relationship between self image and career maturity of students in preschool teacher education under-graduate program and revealed that the parent’s education level did not affect the development of career maturity level. They also found that career maturity level points do not differentiate due to the occupation of the father.

Hargrove (2005) studied family interaction patterns, career planning, and vocational identity of high school adolescents. One hundred twenty three high school students completed measures of family environment, vocational identity and career planning attitudes. The findings revealed that the quality of family relationships (i.e. degree to which family members are encouraged to express feelings and problems) played a small, yet significant role in predicting career planning attitude of adolescents.

Goliath (2007) suggested that several factors influenced the career decision-making process of Chinese immigrant youth. Most participants considered their family to be traditionally Chinese and described academic and career related pressure and expectations from their parents. Not only did the parents have high expectations from their children, they wanted their children to pursue careers that are highly regarded in Chinese culture such as doctor, teacher or engineer. Participants were encouraged to pursue different careers depending on their gender.

Graham (2007) investigated the role of parental involvement in the education of secondary school students and yielded significant findings which indicated that parents of students who attended high performing schools reported higher levels of parental involvement than parents of students who attended low performing schools. Findings also indicated significant difference in students’ perceptions of family context (parental involvement and parenting styles) and school context teaching
styles, academic competence, and school atmosphere on their classroom motivation in high and low performing schools.

Hall (2008) studied the role of parental influence on young adolescents’ career development. Regression analysis revealed that parental behavior did relate to the career development of middle school students. The discrepancy between adolescents and parents views of family relationships were also shown to relate to the adolescents career decision-making self-efficacy.

Robert (2008) examined career awareness and career technical education of the students and revealed that environmental variables of socio-economic-status was significantly related to career-decision self-efficacy (CDSE) and career outcome expectations (COE) scores, but was not related to career planning scores (CP).

Schwartz (2008) investigated the process and influences undertaken by ten new community college students within their first three years following high school graduation as they made their career decisions. Findings indicated that parents were shown to have little direct influence on the career decision other than encouragement and support. These students were influenced primarily by factors such as personal interests and experience.

Allen (2009) in a longitudinal study of 225 first year students explored the role of career maturity in the persistence process with the premise that higher levels of career maturity contribute to students’ ability to persist through post secondary education. The findings revealed a positive significant relationship between career maturity and parental education level of first-year students. The findings also suggested that appropriate career development interventions, which foster career maturity, ultimately increase the likelihood that students are better equipped to finish the degrees they begin.

Lee and Sook (2010) examined the relationships between family systems and high school students’ career development. A sample of 634 high school students was taken. The results showed that family adaptability and family cohesion were both significant predictors of tenth graders career attitude maturity. The effects of parents’ educational backgrounds on career attitude maturity were negligible. However, the relationships were inconsistent across gender. For female students, family cohesion was a more influential predictor of career attitude maturity than family adaptability, while the opposite pattern was observed for the male students.
Louis (2009) examined the relationship between family interaction patterns and career development of the college students. A sample of 274 college students from two private institutions and one public institution was taken. The study revealed that the relationship between family interaction patterns and career development was weak. It was also shown that family interaction patterns contribute less than 10% of the variance in career decision. No gender differences were observed.

Wu (2009) explored the relationship between parenting styles on the career development of 312 Asian American undergraduate students. Career development was examined using the theoretical constructs of career decision self-efficacy and career maturity and results suggested that parenting styles have important influence on the career development of students. Authoritative parenting was significantly correlated with higher levels of career decision self-efficacy on all five subscales, including: self-appraisal, occupational information, goal selection, planning and problem solving. Authoritarian parenting was correlated with higher levels of career decision self-efficacy on two dimensions, including: self-appraisal, occupational information. The study further explored that although authoritative and authoritarian parenting were not correlated with career maturity, permissive parenting was ultimately found to be significantly correlated with lower levels of career maturity. Permissive parenting was ultimately found to be the most significant predictor variable for lower scores on career maturity.

Kaur (2010) investigated career orientation among female university students and revealed that the female college students belonging to urban areas were significantly higher in career values than those in rural areas and family values of the female college students are not influenced by parental attitude towards girls’ education, employment and location of residence. It was also found that female college students were more career oriented than being family oriented, especially in case of those having favorable parental attitude and urban background.

Mathur, Jain and Saxena (2010) examined the effect of single parent families on vocational maturity of adolescent students. The findings revealed a significant difference between the vocational maturity of adolescents belonging to single parent families and intact family. Adolescents of intact families have better career maturity as compared to that of single parent families. It was also reported that the type of a
family a person is brought upon is an important determining factor regarding career maturity of an individual.

Pond (2010) analyzed the characteristics and experiences of high school students with career uncertainty and revealed that career uncertain students are more likely to be from higher socio-economic status, more likely to be male, more likely to have lower educational expectations, and less likely to have discussed the future with their parents. Findings suggested that integrating career development and policy research with a more complete picture of the student population in question will help schools better support students through high school as they enter the workforce.

Bacarro (2010) examined the influence of psychological separation from parents and attachment with parents on the career maturity of Filipino Americans college students and revealed that psychological separation and attachment had limited impact on career maturity and career commitment. Some gender differences were also found. Males were more psychologically independent from their parents than females and females tended to choose social occupations with greater frequency than males.

The studies shown above revealed that career maturity and career decision-making of adolescents are influenced by their family climate. The parents, their socio-economic status, behavior, profession, relationship with partner all play a significant role in career planning of an adolescent. However, the results of the studies quoted do not lead to any clear conclusion concerning the extent to which the different types of family climate influence career maturity of the adolescents. Hence, there is need to investigate the impact of different types of family climate on career maturity of adolescents.

2.3 STUDIES RELATED TO CAREER MATURITY AND SCHOOL CLIMATE

Sinha (1980) investigated the difference between the system of private and government schools and how it influenced competence of its students. The sample consisted of 81 teachers and 283 students from four schools. Three aspects of school system were examined: the material, organizational and human relations. The findings revealed that despite less physical facilities and with higher workload, the private schools had better organizational structure and more competent students than the government schools.
Bisht (1982) studied school-climate as a predictor of students' institutional stress. The sample comprised of 200 students (males only) selected from class eleventh of four intermediate colleges. It was found that the more satisfying the climate is, the less the institutional stress on the students would be. Thus, the results showed school-climate as the good predictor of institutional stress and emphasized the need for improving the school-climate prevalent in schools.

Gaddy and Kelly (1984) identified factors that maintain a positive school climate and eliminate school disruptions and reported that good student-teacher relationship and a responsive curriculum reflecting students' needs and interests and the changing emphasis of society as major factors in maintaining a positive school climate.

Montoya (1986) dealt specifically with school climate perceptions held by students, teachers and principals in rural and non-rural schools in the state of New Mexico. Results showed no significant differences in school climate scores between rural and non-rural students, teachers and principals.

Green, Adams and Turner (1988) examined inter racial climate of school and reported that students reported more positive levels of academic efficacy and quality of school life in schools that were more supportive of cultural pluralism and diversity.

Mukhopadhya (1988) identified school climate and studied its effect on scholastic achievement of students of secondary schools. It was revealed that six distinct organizational climate types were identified on the basis of nine determinants. Out of the nine determinants of school climate: headmaster-staff relationship, administrative capacity of the headmaster, teacher's job satisfactions and physical facilities of the school were found to contribute significantly. The other determinants i.e. close supervision by the headmaster, teacher-student relationships, teacher-teacher relationships, dutifulness and punctuality of teachers and student-student relationships were not found to be statistically significant.

Niece (1988) examined the impact of school environment on teaching and learning and reported the school building, supplies and maintenance were found as one of the several satisfaction variables as perceived by students, teachers and parents. It was revealed that school facilities reflected the idea that education can be interesting and colorful. The facility planning and curriculum design were the key ingredients for effective schooling in complementing one another.
Saraswati (1988) studied occupational aspiration and academic achievement of adolescents in different types of school climate and reported that all the correlations obtained on the basis of school climate were significant. It was also explored that boys-girls, rural-urban students and science-arts students significantly differed in their occupational aspiration in different types of school climates.

Rana (1992) identified the factors affecting climate of the elementary schools of Kheda District. A random sample of 50 elementary schools from 10 Taluks of Kheda district was selected for this study. It was concluded that (1) the organizational climate of different elementary schools differ from one another, (2) the proportion of disengagement and hindrance is more in closed climate type schools, (3) the proportion of esprit, intimacy and thrust is more in open climate type schools as compared to that of closed climate schools, (4) The proportion of aloofness, production emphasis and consideration does not differ in open and closed climate type schools.

Niebuhr (1994) examined the relationship of school climate, family climate, and students characteristics to academic achievement and suggested moderate support for the proposed hypothesis, including the relationship between parenting strictness and motivation, home crowding and grade point average, school student academic orientation and intrinsic motivation and the school’s teacher-student relationship and grade point average.

Robert (1998) examined the relationship of the communication styles of public school principals and their schools’ climate to students achievement. The findings indicated that the school climate was negatively correlated with school level i.e. school climate was more negative in schools of higher levels than it was in elementary schools. The findings also showed a positive correlation between the school climate sub-scale of respect and students outcome.

Gandhi and Meenakshisundaram (2001) studied school environment of 340 higher secondary students. It was found that there was no significant difference among the higher secondary students in school environment in terms of caste, native place, type of family and getting scholarship. However, they differ significantly in terms of gender, religion, locality of the school, types of school (boys, girls, co-educational) and medium of study. Girls were found to be superior to boys regarding their school environment.
Moeller (2004) investigated the changes in students perceptions of school climate and responsibilities during their high school years and revealed that upperclassmen tend to feel more respected by teachers than underclassmen. They also reported the most positive perceptions of school climate. Responding to school safety and beneficial issues, 11th grade students gave the most positive scores. Later students reported a decline in several areas of responsibility. The most negative responses about staff, facilities and responsible behavior came from the tenth grade students.

Anna (2005) investigated the occurrence of possible differences in the time perspective and career maturity for learners of different grades (grade 11 and grade 12), gender (male and female) and school environments (advantaged, transit and disadvantaged). The second aim was to establish whether the time perspective of learners could be used to indicate a significant percentage of variance in their career maturity. The findings indicated that differences do exist in time perspective and career maturity for learners of different grades, gender and school environments. It was found that learners from disadvantaged schools were most focused on the future, while learners in advantaged schools were least focused on the future. Also male learners in advantaged schools were less focused on the future than any other group. Learners from advantaged schools achieved the highest average in career maturity, while learners from disadvantaged schools achieved the lowest. It was also found that time perspective can be used to predict a significant percentage of variance in the career maturity of grade 11 and 12 learners.

Dhillon and Kaur (2005) examined career maturity of 500 high school students studying in public and government schools and revealed that students of public schools possess a higher career maturity attitude and career maturity competence than government school students. It also indicated that the environment of the schools plays a significant role in the development of career maturity.

Kumari and Yadav (2005) compared learning environment in government and non-government schools with a sample of 100 students. Results showed that there exist no significant difference in the perception of boys and girls towards school environment. There exists significant difference in the quality of learning
environment that pervades the classroom in government and non-government schools in cognitive encouragement and rejection areas.

Saha (2005) studied the influence of school environment on cognitive development of children. The sample comprised of 160 children of class 1 to IV (age 6-10), 20 boys and 20 girls from each class (boys 80, girls 80). It was found that school environment exerts positive influence on cognitive development of children.

Lata (2005) studied educational attainment of the pupils in different types of school organizational climate. The sample contains 823 teachers and 740 students, randomly selected from different higher secondary schools. It was found that there is sufficient difference between educational attainments of different types of organizational climate.

Vandiver (2005) explored the relationship between students’ perceptions of school climate and positive students’ performance and reported significant correlation between students perceptions of school climate and each of the selected students’ performance areas. In addition, analysis also indicated differences in performance between high climate score schools and lower climate score schools. Students’ performance in high school is positively correlated with the way students perceive the climate of their schools.

Borges and Richard (2007) studied career maturity of students in accelerated versus traditional academic programs and found that students in traditional programs had significantly greater career crystallization and career specification.

Krommendyk (2007) examined the association between school climate and school choice on data gathered from the different schools. The school climate characteristics measured were: supportive principal’s leadership, teacher’s cordiality, teacher-principal relationships, teacher’s satisfaction, student’s behavior, and teacher’s empowerment. It was found that school climate in primary religious schools, could be statistically distinguished from the climate in both charter and public schools. The climate in primary religious schools is more open and healthy than in charter and public schools.

Chamundeswari and Uma (2008) studied achievement motivation and classroom climate among students at the higher secondary level. The findings
revealed a significant difference in achievement motivation and classroom climate among students in different categories of schools at the higher secondary level. A positive correlation was also reported between the achievement motivation and classroom climate among students in different systems of education at the higher secondary level.

DeLese (2008) identified various factors that lead to educational career choices by examining to what extent degree teachers, guidance counselors and environmental factors influence students' decision to choose specific vocational training. He explored that although the school district employs a variety of methods to introduce vocational programs to students, the current approach to explore various careers may not be meeting students' educational needs or be necessarily important in students' career decision making.

Hervey (2008) investigated how graduate students described and understood the ways in which their vocationalized educational experiences influenced their aspirations, decisions and destinations related to work and higher education. Findings from qualitative data suggested that there was a significant relationship between participant perceptions of several components of school qualities-teacher, subject-knowledge, teaching-skills, and the availability of books and materials and their perceptions of the influence of their senior secondary schooling experience on their occupational aspirations.

Knipp (2008) reported no difference in career maturity between students attending a magnet school and those attending a traditional high school. In addition, students who were attending their school of choice had the same career maturity as those who felt that they had no choice in which high school they were attending. It was also implored that a foundation of curriculum relevance coupled with student success and a personalized learning environment coupled with positive student-staff relationship must precede any further implementation of tougher graduation i.e. more rigorous testing or more rigorous course requirements.

Kostko (2008) analyzed career maturity of 722 students from private and public secondary schools. A significant relationship was found between school type and gender (F=4.806, P<0.05) in career decision-making self-efficacy as well as
relationship between grade level and school type (F=5.733, P<0.01). Also it was found that private school students’ career decision making self-beliefs were not significantly different from their public school counterparts. The results also indicated a greater level of career decision-making self efficacy for females than males though the differences between females and males were not significant.

Maietta (2009) examined the relationship between the degree of participation in a career development program and career growth by assessing the career maturity and career search self-efficacy of college graduates and also investigate an existing, mandatory, credit-bearing, career development program: the Professional Development Seminar (PDS). It was revealed that there was a positive relationship between participation in professional development seminar and career maturity (p<.05).

Thakur (2011) studied career maturity of secondary school students in relation to their school environment and reported a significant difference between some dimensions of career maturity (i.e. attitude, occupational information, goal orientation and planning) of eleventh grade students of government and private secondary schools. Also no significant difference in school environment of eleventh grade students of government and private secondary schools was found. Findings also revealed no correlation between career maturity and school environment of eleventh grade students of secondary schools.

The present study along with other objectives is aimed at finding out the influence of different types of school climate on career maturity of the adolescents. The perusal of related studies quoted in this chapter revealed the main reason for the adoption of the said aim in this research work is that the number of such studies undertaken to discover the relationship between career maturity of adolescents and school climate has been almost negligible. Only a few researchers have reported that school climate of the public schools is better than that of the government schools (Sinha, 1980; Kumari and Yadav, 2005 and Sumanlata, 2005) while Kostko (2008) reported that private school students’ career decision-making were not significantly different from their counterparts. Most of the studies were indirectly related with the
said variables. Thus, it was reasonably felt that there was definite need for exploring
the relationship between career maturity and school climate of adolescents.

2.4 STUDIES RELATED TO CAREER MATURITY AND EDUCATIONAL
ASPIRATION

Gupta (1979) examined psychological stress related to level of aspirations of
310 students studying in post graduate classes under different disciplines. It was
revealed that the students with high educational aspirations and high occupational
aspiration were under the greatest psychological stress as compared to students with
low educational and occupational aspiration.

Prince (1981) studied aspiration for education in the pupils from deprived
community. The main findings of his study showed that the achievement, anxiety,
self- concept, value system, intelligence, achievement motivation and scholastic
attitude were significant predictors of level of aspiration for education.

Prakash (1984) studied the level of aspiration of 320 ninth grade students of
government and private schools of Delhi in relation to their area, sex and caste. The
findings indicated that the area (urban or rural) as a single main variable did not show
significant difference on the level of aspiration. Further, it was revealed that gender as
a single main variable did not show any significant difference on the level of
aspiration and caste as a single variable also did not show any significant difference
on the level of aspirations.

Das (1986) examined educational aspiration and peer influences of secondary
school students and revealed that educational aspiration of students belonging to
urban schools were higher than that of students of rural schools. Students of high
socio-economic group had higher educational aspiration than the students of low
socio-economic status group.

Suman (1986) in a socio-psychological study of career goals and aspiration of
female students with a sample consisting of 200 arts and 100 science students
revealed that for arts students master degree in arts was an important aspiration
whereas for science students master degree in medicine was main aspiration.

Tripathi (1986) studied aspirations of 300 boy and 200 girl students and
concluded that aspiration of males from arts, science and commerce stream had no
significant difference.
Lennox (1989) compared career decision-making ability of 286 ninth grade high school students with part time employment and high school students active in extra-curricular and community activities. The findings showed that students who participated in activities and students who were employed tended to have career and educational aspiration more often than students who did not participate in either. Further, students who participated in activities and employment were more likely than non-participators to have career and educational goals which were consistent with academic achievement indicators and entry level job requirement.

Kaur (1990) examined educational and vocational aspiration of adolescents and found that both educational and vocational aspiration were influenced by sex, socio-economic status and locality, when taken independently. Urban students differed significantly in their educational preference as well as vocational aspirations. Rural students largely aspired for a degree in arts while urban students aspired for a degree in science.

Nayak (1990) explored level of aspiration of the children in the age-group of 7-11 years and reported that tribal and non-tribal girls had a significantly better level of aspiration than tribal and non-tribal boys, especially at the higher level of schooling. At the lower level of education, boys had a significantly more realistic level of aspiration than girls under both the tribal and non-tribal categories.

Jyung (1990) measured the career maturity and determined the relationship between selected variables and career maturity of ninth grade senior high school students. The results indicated that two of the three main independent variables i.e. curriculum and gender were significantly associated with career maturity, and all of the independent variables socio-economic status, scholastic achievement, and educational aspiration were not significantly associated with career maturity.

Das (1991) investigated educational and vocational aspiration level of tribal and non-tribal youth and found a significant difference in the educational and vocational aspiration levels of these two groups of students. It was also reported that non-scheduled tribes students were very high in respect to educational aspiration and vocational aspiration levels as compared to scheduled tribes students.
Aggarwal (1992) studied socio-economic status and aspiration of scheduled caste and non-scheduled caste students and concluded that aspiration of scheduled caste students were low to non-scheduled caste students but the scheduled caste students did not differ from non-scheduled caste students in terms of their aspiration.

Delano (1995) studied factors affecting the education aspiration of male and female students with respect to their socio-economic status and found a significant differences in aspiration of males and females. It was reported that the socio-economic status of the parents has significant impact on the educational aspiration of female students.

Kaur (1997) examined educational aspiration of 225 rural high school girls of selected blocks at Faridkot district of Punjab and reported that % age of the students who aspired to study further, preferred to go in for courses leading to degree was 45.82%, in diplomas 39.10% and in short courses was 15.08%.

Teachman and Paasch (1998) investigated the role of the family in educational aspiration of children and found that family is strongly correlated with the educational aspiration of children. On the other hand, no evidence was found to support the assumption that sex of ordinal position of siblings affect the relationship between family and educational aspiration.

Bento (2000) examined effect of Portuguese heritage schooling on educational aspiration of students by comparing one group with at least 5 years of Portuguese Heritage Schooling (PHS) with another group which had experienced neither such schooling nor bilingual education (NPHS) and found students who attended Portuguese heritage schools had higher educational aspiration than their counterparts.

Gilbert (2001) designed a project to raise the educational aspiration of young males in the local congregation of Enterprise Baptist Church in Texas. The model design consisted of a pre-test and post-test survey and three workshop presentations. The model showed that the participants were the victims of racial vulnerability and with training and nurturing they can overcome this culprit by being cognizant of their culture, teacher expectations and seeking parental involvement.
Haln (2003) in a cultural-ecological analysis of educational aspiration and satisfaction of educational opportunities of ethnic groups in their academic success or failure reported that involuntary immigrants had lower educational aspiration than voluntary immigrants as a whole. The more satisfied with educational opportunities the higher the education aspiration. Different class levels of Hispanics and Asian Americans have unique levels of educational aspiration and satisfaction of educational opportunities.

Baker and Mohammad (2004) studied the academic performance, educational and occupational aspiration of 240 students from technical secondary schools. The findings of the study showed that technical secondary school students have high educational aspiration. The majority plan to study for at least a bachelor’s degree. No significant correlations were observed between educational aspiration and occupational aspiration. Students were moderately knowledgable about the field of studies and the occupation they aspire for.

Lakshmanan (2004) in a longitudinal study of adolescents’ educational aspiration reported that average students’ aspiration remained fairly stable from the eighth grade till the twelfth grade, showing a slight but not significant increase. Many students who had high aspiration had failed to build a wise choice set of post secondary institutions to apply. Among the factors considered, educational aspiration had the strongest impact on the number of application fields.

Howley (2005) reported significant differences in aspiration between rural and non-rural children in terms of postgraduate education but did not find a significant difference at undergraduate education.

Prasetyo (2005) examined the distinction between educational and career aspiration in public and private university freshmen of Semarang, Indonesia. It was revealed that for both public and private university students, almost all students characteristics variables that correlated with educational and career aspiration showed a significant positive effect, and the degree of its correlation for the public sample is greater than that for the private counterpart.

Smith (2005) indicated that concurrent enrolment location was a significant predictor in the case of educational aspiration. Other important variables that
demonstrated predictive important educational aspiration were grades and parents’ educational level.

Braun (2006) explored variations in high school student’s post secondary aspirations during their high school years. Seven factors were found to have a significant effect on students during their high school career. These factors were ethnicity, gender, socio-economic status, adult contact, peer influences, extracurricular activities and students academic performance. The magnitude of the effect of these factors varies greatly. The effects of these factors were both positive and negative on the students’ aspiration. The higher the students grade and the more contact with adults in and out of extracurricular activities, the higher the students aspirations.

Kaur (2007) studied the effect of stress and educational aspirations on the academic achievement of adolescent students of ninth class and revealed that high and low stress students differed significantly in their level of educational aspirations. It was also reported that the educational aspiration level influences academic achievement of adolescents.

Talawar and Kumar (2010a) studied relationship between teaching commitment and educational aspiration of 150 students and 130 teachers of government primary schools. The results showed a high correlation between teaching commitment and educational aspiration of students. But no significant difference was found in the educational aspiration of boys and girls belonging to primary schools.

Talawar and Kumar (2010b) investigated relationship between teachers absenteeism and educational aspiration of 124 teachers and 150 students of government primary schools and found high negative correlation between the teacher absenteeism and educational aspiration of primary school students. It was also found that no significant difference existed in the educational aspirations of boys and girls belonging to government primary schools.

Bregman (2011) investigated the ways in which 223 Latino ninth grade students access information and support as they develop and pursue their educational aspirations. Findings suggested that family plays a critical role in the development of educational goals while peers are most influential in students’ school effort. The
results also pointed out the importance of self-efficacy and the potential of this construct to shape students’ college orientation.

The studies quoted above revealed that educational aspiration of adolescents was influenced by their family background, socio-economic status, and educational level of parents. Educational aspiration of adolescents also differ gender wise and area wise. Some studies reported that educational aspiration of adolescents was significantly associated with their career maturity (Jyung, 1990; Lakshmanan, 2004; and Prasetyo, 2005). In most of the studies, career maturity is indirectly related with the educational aspirations of the students. No study has been undertaken regarding the influence of levels of educational aspiration on various dimensions of career maturity of adolescents. Thus, the investigator incorporated the task of investigating the relationship between career maturity of students and their educational aspirations.

2.5 THE OVERVIEW

In the nutshell, it may be said that research on career maturity of adolescent students has been a pointer towards theory and practice in the field of education. The wide range of findings on career maturity in relation to family climate, school climate and educational aspiration lead us nowhere. Thus, the investigator reasonably felt that there was definite need of research for exploring the relationship among career maturity and family climate, school climate and educational aspiration of adolescents.

2.6 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

For the present study following hypotheses are framed:

1. There exists no significant difference in career maturity (career attitude and career competence) of boy and girl adolescents.

2. There exists no significant difference in career maturity (career attitude and career competence) of adolescents studying in aided and public schools.

3. There exists no significant difference in career maturity (career attitude and career competence) of adolescents with favorable, moderate, and unfavorable types of family climate.

4. There exists no significant difference in career maturity (career attitude and career competence) of adolescents with high, average, and low levels of school climate.
There exists no significant difference in career maturity (career attitude and career competence) of adolescents with high, average, and low levels of educational aspiration.

There exists no significant interaction of family climate and school climate on career maturity (career attitude and career competence) of adolescents.

There exists no significant interaction of family climate and educational aspiration on career maturity (career attitude and career competence) of adolescents.

There exists no significant interaction of school climate and educational aspiration on career maturity (career attitude and career competence) of adolescents.

There exists no significant interaction of family climate, school climate, and educational aspiration on career maturity (career attitude and career competence) of adolescents.