CHAPTER-III

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Review of previous studies in the area of investigation enable the research to be familiar with the trends of the research practices and directions of the findings, which is prerequisite and a crucial aspect of actual planning of the new investigation. For execution of any research work the time spent in such a survey invariably is a wide investment. The review of the literature is an exacting task calling for deep insight and clear perspective of the overall field. But it is rewarding as it promotes greater understanding of the problem, ensures the avoidance of unnecessary duplication and also provides basis to evaluate and interpret the significance of one's findings.

According to Best (1996), “The research for reference material is a time consuming but fruitful phase. A familiarity with the literature of any problem helps the students to discover what is already known, what others have attempted to find out, what methods of attack have been promising or disappointing and what problems remain to be solved.”

In this chapter, previous research studies relevant to the problem at hand have been reviewed. It may be mentioned here that in spite of the best efforts including internet, the researcher could not lay hands on many studies directly dealing with backward class in respect of their career maturity and attitude towards modernity. Hence studies with even indirect relevance to the topic have also been included in the review. These studies are concerned with cultural deprivations rather than with the variable of class as such. Studies conducted abroad were also related to ethnic differences.
Both these types of studies have, although indirect, but very significant bearing on issues of inequalities such as “Class”.

Keeping the major and minor variables in view, studies have been divided under following subheadings:

3.1 (a) Career Maturity and Class/SES.
(b) Career maturity and Gender Differences.
(c) Career Maturity and Rural-Urban Area.
3.2 (a) Attitude Towards Modernity and Class / SES.
(b) Attitude Towards Maturity and Gender Differences.
(c) Attitude Toward Modernity and Rural-Urban Area.

3.1(a) CAREER MATURITY AND CLASS/SES

Reddy (1972) studied the role of socio-economic factors in the development of vocational sense. The study revealed that middle level SES groups displayed knowledge of a distinctively higher number of occupations. Occupational choice increased from grade to grade. Blocher (1973) in his study found that an individual’s career maturity may be a reflection of his experiences in the social class and family culture. Likewise, Chand (1979) too reported socio-economic status had significant relationship with career maturity.

In a study by Mohagheghzaden (1980), it was revealed that socio-economic status and junior high school achievements influence the choice of a vocational education curriculum of the senior high school students. While studying the high school students, Wenstrom’s (1981) showed that parents exhibit a profound influence upon students’ career decisions. It was also found that the students who had not been able to identity a specific career choice, are more greatly influenced by their peers than those who have a selected choice. Occupational information and other reading
materials were perceived as having provided little help in career decision making efforts by students in small rural high schools.

A significant relationship was found by Bedi (1982) among educational, personal and vocational aspiration with the socio-economic status of adolescents. But there was no effect of SES on social aspiration. On the other hand, Weener (1983) did not found significant relationship between family background and vocational maturity at age 24 to 27. Vocational maturity and vocational immaturity were significantly related to the kind of completed post-secondary education degree, certainty about occupational plans, degree of satisfaction with occupational goals and progress. It has been observed many parents with prestigious employment and higher educational attainment used child reasoning approaches that emphasize the interpersonal skill as being components of social and vocational competence. Parents from such background often use reasoning and negotiations to encourage such qualities.

Smith (1983) observes ethnic minorities are over represented in certain occupational environments and under represented in others. Some ethnic minorities have higher unemployment rates and lower incomes than others. The career development process involves some differences, especially in career choices.

Ugwuh (1984) reported that various categories of students as well as their parents had favourable attitude towards vocational education. Neither students’ family income, educational qualifications and occupations nor students’ academic grades and vocational training influenced their career choices.

In a study conducted by Spurlock (1984) in order to determine the relationship of career maturity, SES and sex, it was revealed that SES was a significant factor in career maturity. The
participants differed by sex in their level of career maturity and sex emerged as a significant predictor of their career maturity.

While comparing the position of less developed and advanced countries in respect of employment, Murthy (1984) concluded that female employment was inversely related to sex discrimination in employment regardless of type of occupation or age. Female employment was positively related to level of education and the relationship was stronger in less developed countries than in the more advanced countries. Poverty had a differential aspect on female employment among different level of socio-economic development.

Relationship of socio-economic status and perceived range of career options was explored by Rotburg (1988). Results revealed that job interest and career self-efficiency expectations significantly predicted the range of perceived career options above and beyond the contribution of socio-economic status.

Peterson and Rollins (1987) reported that parents who occupied white collar position exercised initiative and self direction with their children in order to meet the job expectation that they faced on a daily basis. In a similar vein, Mangat (1988) reported that SES had a significant relationship with all areas of vocational maturity barring self-appraisal and problem solving. SES was found to be the best predictor of the total vocational maturity.

Papola (1988) found that majority of the entrepreneurs from the lower castes were engaged in traditional crafts. He further reported that the forms of occupational specialization and differentiations of economic roles were closely tied with caste structure.

In a sociological investigation of educational and career rout of a group of Indian Secondary Schools students, Naicher (1989) revealed that there was significant positive relationship between the
actions and decisions of the students and the structure of the society.

Aggarwal (1989) conducted a study on career aspiration and found that parents' interest and concern with the academic programmes of the girls had a positive effect on the career aspiration of the respondents.

Gill and Rajesh (1990) collected data through interview from households of the Indian village-Mullanpur and Gill to investigate the impact of “being peripheral villages to cities” in terms of the relationship between caste and occupational structure. Findings highlighted that the particular kind of infrastructure and job opportunities offered by a city may affect various castes differently. They further reported that industrialization and urbanization may lead to greater change in caste and occupational structure.

In order to assess the level of career maturity and career indecision that existed in a population of South Georgia middle school students, Carpenter (1993) measured the effect of participation in a unit of career studies on the career indecision and level of career maturity. The study revealed that younger students within the grade level, formal students and white students scored high on CMI than their counterparts other in ethnic groups.

Karlin (1993) conducted a study on the parental influence in the career choice of post-high school graduates. Results revealed that father’s income influenced the status of career choices. Potential for high income, family plans and father’s job significantly influenced the status of career choices.

Thomas (1993) found no relationship between career indecision, social class and ethnicity. Again, the study indicated that career indecision was negatively related to levels of sponsorship
obtained from others i.e. subjects who were the recipients of 
sponsorship activities were more likely to be career decided.

Ann (1993) discovered that father’s income influenced the 
status of career choice, potential for higher income and family plans. 
Father’s education, job and attitude towards job influenced career 
choice.

Ocuwalana (1994) undertook a study on career aspiration and 
manpower needs at the secondary level in Nigeria and revealed that 
there were significant relationships among the size of the 
community, where the students usually resided, educational 
aspirations of the students, types of schools preferred by the 
students, variety of school programmes and students career 
aspiration. Further, the researcher pointed out that school 
curriculum was not harmonious with the occupational needs of the 
students.

Blan and Peter (1994) undertook a study entitled as ‘social 
structure and life chances, current perspective in social theory’ and 
explained how people’s life chances are subject to structural 
influences, particularly their career chances—both favourable and 
unfavourable. After first noting the importance of population 
structure for social life in general, the more specific influence on the 
division of labor and occupational structure of the society was 
explored. He opines that it is this structure that influences the 
possibilities for social mobility through career chances. Narrower 
influences on career opportunities include the structure of specific 
industries and economic sectors.

Rodriguez (1994) used regression analysis to estimate the 
effects of variables of rural/urban poverty in households in Costa 
Rice and found that urban residence, higher education, employment
of the head of the household and a greater proportion of employed family members were associated with reduced likelihood of poverty.

The most important predictors of educational aspiration, as reported by Smith's (1994) study, are grades, poverty status, parent's expectations, low ability group, assignments in the courses and discussing high school plans and career with a teacher or adults outside the family. Further, gender, high ability group, group assignment in one or two courses were found to be important predictors of vocational aspiration.

Catawzarite (1995) studied social/ethnic differences in regard to the impact of work and family on women's poverty. Findings revealed that the likelihood of poverty was significantly higher for women in occupations with prevalence of black women and lower for occupations that were white female dominated. The introduction of occupation level variables did not alter substantially the individual level disadvantages associated with race/ethnicity, suggesting thereby that minority women experience a disadvantage within occupations as well as a disadvantage due to occupational segregation.

Davis (1995) conducted a study on 8810 white and 1323 black males to examine the extent to which opportunities for social mobility for black males had changed since the early 1970s. Results indicated that interferential occupational mobility for both black and white males were associated with their father's occupational attainment, though blacks experienced greater downward mobility than whites. He concluded that race continues to influence the occupational mobility of blacks.

Lankard (1995) in a study entitled 'Family Role in Career Development' stated that family processes of interaction, communication and behaviour have important influence what the
child learns about work and work experiences. Further, attitudes about school and work, educational and career goals and aspirations and values have a long term impact on a youth's career choices, decisions and plans. That the parents from different groups have different types of influences on the educational and occupational decisions of both boys and girls in the family, was also the finding of the study.

A study by Wood (1998) was conducted to assess the career maturity of ninth grade students as measured by the CMI. This study explored the relationship of career maturity to parental influence, ethnicity, gender, academic achievement and interests. The findings of the study revealed that the relationship of independent variables such as gender, academic achievement, interest, parental influence in a linear combination of CMI subscales were different for African, American and White subjects. The independent variables better predicted the CMI subscales for White ninth graders than for African, American ninth graders. Grade point average appeared to be the one independent variable that was most predictive for the White group. For the African and American groups, race and interests appeared to be the potential predictor variables. In respect of the findings for male and females of this investigation, the independent variables were better predictors for males than females.

Bianchi (1999) conducted a study to examine career maturity of eighth grade students in relation to certain selected variables. Career aspiration data were provided by 115 females and 138 males eighth grade students. The study utilized both descriptive and inferential statistics. It was concluded that individual differences in career aspiration were associated with specific antecedent conditions such as students' gender, father's educational
attainment, father’s occupation and student’s reading skills. There was a significant relationship between students’ career aspiration and students’ gender; girls in the study did not expect to enter traditionally technical career.

In a study examining concerned with the development of vocational maturity and ethnic identity of majority and minority group students in the province of Quebec, Canada and conducted by Perron at al. (1998), the following trends were evidenced: (1) The minority group started earlier in their vocational development, but fell behind the majority group by the time career decisions were made and the work began. (2) The higher mean scores of the minority group on vocational identity measures were related to their own and parents’ level of educational aspirations. (3) The higher level of information seeking activity (one of the measures of vocational maturity) was perceived in the minority group. It could be interpreted as a strategy against discrimination. The study was longitudinal in character and the students were derived from grades eighth through eleventh.

Fakunaga and Eiko (1999) explored the influence of cultural variables on career maturity for Asian, American and White American college students. The study indicated that parent involvement would have a significant and negative relationship to career maturity. A MANOVA and discriminant analysis yielded results indicating that the lower status of Asian, American, relative to White Americans, in career maturity was associated with lower career decision making.

McCartney and Jo (2000) studied the effects of two intervention on career maturity of rural high school youth. The major findings of this study showed that Caucasians scored better on career development inventory than Hispanics.
Dixon and Ammons (2000) examined the self-concept, social support systems and career maturity of female college students. The study revealed that Caucasian and African, than American females students showed higher intellectual ability competence when class standing was considered along with race and SES. These variables were not predictive of career maturity.

Galaida (2000) examined the characteristics of career maturity, future time perspective and academic performance among students. The findings indicated that lack of money and limited English proficiency were perceived as barriers. These concerns appeared to have an effect on the career paths.

Powell and Francis (2000) conducted a study on Caucasian, Americans and African Americans in order to identify critical career decision points and their effect on career maturity. The results revealed that Caucasian American scored higher than African American and that females scored higher than males on career maturity. Hill and Lynette (2001) investigated the career maturity levels of students-athletes as compared to non-athletes with a special emphasis on social differences. The main finding of this study showed that black athletes were found to have high expectation for entering the profession of sports career than white athletes.

Vatsa (2001) conducted a study on socio-psychological differences of vocational maturity among adolescence of academic and vocational streams. SES was not found to significantly affect the level of vocational maturity of adolescents of academic as well as vocational stream. However, students of high SES scored higher on vocational maturity as compared to low SES in both the streams. Significant differences existed in vocational maturity of female and
male adolescents of academic stream as well as vocational stream. In both the streams, differences were in favour of females.

Baker and Isaac (2001) undertook a study in order to investigate the relationship among ethnicity, gender and career maturity of learning support students. Results did not reveal significant differences between Caucasian and African American students on career maturity. Again, no significant differences were found between males and females on career maturity.

On the basis of the empirical evidence presented in this section, it can be concluded that:

1. By and large, SES has a significant relationship with career maturity which means that low socio-economic status associated with backward class can act as a barrier to career consciousness and career maturity. Sporadic evidence of non-significant relationship has also been reported.
2. There is positive and significant relationship of educational, personal and vocational aspiration with SES.
3. Parental education and occupation have a positive and significant relationship with career maturity.
4. ‘Social class’ has important influence on career maturity.
5. While a mix picture of significant and non-significant relationship between race, ethnicity and SES has been observed, there is a clear cut evidence that ethnicity has a considerable influence on career aspiration and career maturity.

3.1(b) CAREER MATURITY AND GENDER DIFFERENCES

In a study by Martinez (1980), male students were found to be significantly more career matured in their attitude towards career decisions than females.
Perez (1980) showed that Puerto Ricou students differed significantly from the white students in one measure of vocational maturity, but sex differences were found to be significant in two out of three of the vocational maturity measures.

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

Significant differences were observed between the traditional and non-traditional female groups in the areas of career maturity by Hamer (1983). The former indicated a higher possibility of depending on others for a career decision than the latter. Both the groups were considered to be career mature.

Davis (1986) conducted a study on career maturity and found that female scores surpassed those of males on factors of career maturity such as independent, social confidence, family affiliation, peer affiliation, teacher affiliation and substance knowledge accuracy.

In a study on gender differences in occupational aspiration Sommer (1987) found that effects of changing social environment on adolescent aspirations continues to influence students, particularly females, in the expression of less sex-typed occupational aspiration. Female aspiration sharply declined in education and health assistant/nursing categories and to a lesser degree in other female dominated occupation such as social work, home economics and recreation.

Brown (1988) compared the levels of career development concerns among graduate students. The study revealed that the
female students showed higher levels of concerns in disengagement stage.

In a study by Chandna (1990), factors related to career maturity differed for males and females and there was a significant relationship between self concept and career choice attitudes of adolescents.

Hadded (1990) showed that the age in relation to career maturity was found to be statistically significant, but no statistically significant relationships were found between gender, major field of study and career maturity of graduate students.

Kaur (1992) reported that self concept and locus of control were significant predictors of career maturity with a mixed sample of boys and girls. No sex differences in vocational maturity were found in this study.

Roy (1993) found a significant difference in career maturity scores for males and females in the career course and no career course groups. The course-difference showed significant interaction with gender-differences. Similarly, Naidoo (1993) indicated that female students were found to be more committed to the work role and to be more career mature than male students.

In a study on the effects of career course on the career maturity conducted by Robinson (1995), it was 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.

Ranhotra (1996) revealed that boys scored higher on career decision making whereas girls scored higher on career maturity. She further concluded that students from the vocational group were found to have better decidedness than their counterparts in academic group.
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 in this study. 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 score of CMI. The analysis also indicated a significant interaction between school type, race and curriculum. Sex did not emerge as a significant factor.

Powell and Luzzo (1998) evaluated factors associated with the career maturity of high school students. Young men perceived greater control over their decision making than did young women.

Howell and Ann (1999), in their study on vocational interests, personality characteristics and work values of executives and professionals in placement counselling found that ranking of work values as 'the most important' or 'least important' differed according to gender, age and industry affiliation.

Porter (1999) studied 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. Results revealed that there was no difference between treatment and control groups on competence test, no significant difference between males and females in the treatment group and no difference among racial groups on the attitude scale or competence test.

Barnes (2000) examined the effect of guidance treatment on career maturity of high school students as measured by Career Maturity Inventory in a guidance programme. The results of the study indicated no significant differences between grade levels.
Gender did not account for a significant amount of variability in total scores of CMI students.

Petrone (2000) undertook a study in order to measure competence of career maturity. The findings indicated that the measures of cognitive career maturity did evidence significant relation with level of intelligence particularly verbal as oppose to quantitative measures. There was no significant relations between the cognitive dimensions and attitudinal dimension. But there were significant differences between males and females in the study.

Based on these studies, following inferences can be drawn:

(1) Effect of sex on career maturity submits a mixed picture, while majority of studies indicate boys to be more career matured than girls, a substantial number of studies indicate that girls are more career matured than boys and a few researchers do not find any relationship between career maturity and gender.

(2) The effect of sex is enhanced through interaction with race, school and type of curriculum on career maturity.

3.1(C) CAREER MATURITY AND RURAL-URBAN AREA

Grewal (1971) conducted a study on vocational preferences of secondary schools in relation to environmental process variables. The samples of 127 boys and 26 girls from urban schools and 126 boys and 50 girls from rural schools from senior secondary schools of Bhopal and Indore was drawn. Significant relationships were found between vocational environment of home, community and level of vocational preferences.

Reddy (1972) using a self made questionnaire and other standard tests, studied the role of rural-urban and SES factors in the development of vocational sense among 1103 boys of IX, X and XI grades. Middle level SES groups displayed knowledge of a
distinctively higher number of occupations and self concept was high among urban students. Occupational choice increased from grade to grade. As per findings of National Institute of Education (1980), mothers in rural areas exert the strongest influence on their daughter's career decisions.

A study of occupational choices of girls and factors influencing the choices was conducted by Bhatnagar (1983). The researcher found that the highest factor influencing occupational choices was interest followed by serving humanity/society, and poor/background. No significant differences were found amongst urban and semi-urban groups in the congruence of their occupational choice and vocational interest.

Sengar (1994) reported that rural adolescents attained vocational maturity better rather earlier than their counterparts urban adolescents by employing mean preference scores between successive grade levels as the criteria of vocational maturity. Urban adolescents were found rather more specific in making choice of careers, especially towards the fields unfavourable and desired as compared to rural adolescents.

Guss et al. (1998), in their study on “Gender Orientation and Career Maturation Among Rural Elementary School Students,” explored various issues relating to the effect of gender on career development. Results demonstrated that career education significantly influenced the non-traditional perceptions of six grade students. But it was also felt that for more meaningful changes in beliefs for gender and self concept, more comprehensive educational approaches may be required. The study has important implications for counselling.

Jansari and Kumar (1999) revealed that sex significantly affect the business and persuasive areas of vocational interest, whereas
the area of residence significantly affected only the persuasive areas of vocational interest. The trend of studies presented above leads to conclude that:

1. Urban residence of the individual has positive effect on career maturity. This effect is more prominent on the quality as compared to developmental time taken in career maturity.
2. Career education significantly influences the career development of rural students.
3. Mothers’ in rural area exert the strongest impact on their daughter’ career decisions.

3.2(a) ATTITUDE TOWARDS MODERNITY AND CLASS/SES

Al-Khazraji (1967) examined attitudes and their sociological correlates influencing modernization. He advanced the hypothesis that high score on attitude towards modernization would be found among those situated higher on socio-economic status scale and were urban dwellers, literates, young and males as compared to their counterparts. All the variables were found to be significantly related to the level of expansiveness at .01 level of significance. The researcher observed that nearly half of these attitude preferences given by respondents on sociological attributes might have been classified traditionalist.

Kahl (1968) found similar results, that is, modernism was related to social status such as occupation, education and self identification even controlling for the size of the place of residence. When SES was held constant modernism showed low correlation with size and the place of residence.

Mohini (1972), in a cross cultural study of educated women in India and Turkey found that higher the income of the family, the higher is the modernity of Indian but not of Turkish sample. A
noteworthy observation has been made by Keineberg (1973), Rao and Rao (1976) and Singh (1976-77) in their respective studies that only one component of family SES, viz. family income is a significant contributor to the respondent’s attitudes towards modernity.

Murthy (1977), in his study on convent educated adolescent girls, too located significant positive relationship between varying degrees of modernity and different levels of SES of the subjects. These results were supported by findings of Suri and Verma (1977).

Results of no correlation between the two variables have also been reported by Garg (1976) in his study on college students in rural setting. It may be due to the fact that it is not the only factor inculcating modernity. Other aspects might have overruled SES.

Findings of Cunningham’s (1973) study on high school students and Sharma’s (1979) study on university students revealed a positive correlation between parental SES and modernity though the association measured was weak.

Sutcliffe (1978), in a study on 115 Arab parents, hypothesized education as a dependent variable in the process of modernization and insignificant correlation between SES and sending children (boys and girls) to school. As the sample covered rural peasants, these results might have deviated to insignificant relationship. If the sample had included city dwellers the expected result might have been different.

Ugai (1983) has reported significant effect of income; indicating parental income as affecting modernity level. These differences were more marked in Indian culture than in Nigerian culture. He assumed that the reason for the income factor being more pronounced among the Indians could be due to the fact that the contrast between low income Nigerians and high income
Nigerians is not as sharp as compared to Indians so far as the standard of living and various activities are concerned.

Singh (1984) reported that high SES had higher health status and higher health modernity. The positive relationship between SES and healthy modernity was further confirmed by Jayaswal (1985).

Ramana (1985) studied 125 teachers from primary, 4 from upper primary and 41 from secondary schools. He employed a self-developed interview schedule and found that socio-economic status significantly determined modernity level of his respondents.

Ahsan's (1987) study included sample from Chotanagpur and Santhal Pargona. SES came out to be a more powerful correlate of health status and modernity than rural-urban residence, sex and age. Again these findings were further confirmed by a study of the Tribal Hindus in Chota-Nagpur and Santhal Pargana of South Prihar (Sahay, 1990, Sahay and Singh 1989).

A study by Singh (1988) consisted of a sample of 400 boys and 200 girls from 8 colleges of Avadh University. The major findings of this study included that the higher level of SES, the higher was the attitudinal level of modernity. The attitude towards modernization does not differ among students with rural and urban background. The attitude of female undergraduate was nearer to modernization as compared to their male counterparts.

Lalrinkimi (1989) found that parental factors such as SES, occupation, family income and parental education had considerable influence on individual modernity.

Gupta (1991) conducted a study on 310 working women in Western U.P, India and concluded that formal education, mass media and modern environment play conducive role in the development of modernity among working women.
Zhang (1992), who conducted a study entitled “Modernization Interpersonal Power, and Conformity: A Cross Cultural Study of Significant Others Influence on Adolescents (China, Taiwan, United States)”, found that the social institution of education is less important but religion is highly valued in American society, while the reverse was found in the two Chinese societies.

Vijayalakshmi (1989) concluded that professional women with urban developed social and cultural background, higher educated family, higher levels of occupation of fathers and employment of mothers, high socio-economic status, and small families possess a more liberal attitude in their outlook towards various dimensions of sex role i.e. familial, employment, education, economic, political and social roles.

Sharma, (1994) indicated that females showed more modernity than males. Father's occupation, education and family income were found positively related with modernity. Media exposure was found positively relation with modernity. Urbanization had poor influence upon the respondents. Socio-economic status also was found to be significantly related to modernity by Chawla (1995).

Popovic et al. (1994) concluded that a sharp distinction exists between ideological and scientific modes of thought. The former involves a complex system of ideas and beliefs, accepted at face value and excluding the possibility of doubt, while the latter is characterized by doubt as an example of sociological dogma which ignores that in every class system, there are some cooperative and some conflictual relationships. When analysing the future, scientists speak about what could happen under specified conditions, while ideological adherents of a political and religious doctrine talk about what will definitely transpire.
La Valle (1995) concluded that sociology arose in the modern world along with the differentiation of new forms of solidarity separating the social sphere from traditional institutions of kinship, race and territory. In modern societies, especially liberal democracies, solidarity is no longer something inherited from a fixed tradition, but rather, the product of individual choice. This first stage in the creation of this new social order was the rise of the civil society, involving a public social dimension based on personal choice. In the civil society, association with other members is freely chosen by the individual.

Casper et al. (1995) examined the effect relative poverty of men and women among eight industrialized countries on the basis of on data from the mid-1980's Luxemburg income study. Focus of the study was on the importance of gender specific demographic compositions of marriage, parenthood and employment in accounting for differences in men's and women's poverty rates, both within and cross countries - cross national. Comparisons suggested that the relative importance of demographic characteristics differs by country; other factors include religion, culture and government policies.

Sharma (1995) analysed the practice of untouchability in H.P. (India), while exploring the role of both politio, economic and ritual factors in its survival. The author argued that politio economic factors determined the rank of a caste in the Hindu social structure; ritual was invoked to eigtime it. Thus, the continuation of the practice of untouchability is a consequence of structural inequalities, rather than of the mere ritual status of a caste. It is concluded that the practice is still current despite constitutional provisions of the contrary.
Srithang (1997) examined effects of schooling, school type and school culture on student modernity among Thailand students. As revealed by results, family SES does not intervene on student modernity. Sex does not effect the association between level of education and student modernity. He also found that urban students were more modern than their rural counterparts.

Gould and Jeremy (1997) undertook a study in order to contribute to the theorizations of social action in the context of local organizational development at the community level in rural Zambia. Empirical research revealed that the social action of rural formers was motivated by ideals of modernity.

Najafabadi’s (1998) study entitled as “Education and Modernization Among the Iranian Students: A Comparative Study of the Effects of Theological and Western Type Education” saw the association between family SES and modernity among Indian respondents and found positive correlation between family status and student modernity. Further, he reported that high income families were more modern than those in the low and middle class. Students with fathers’ low occupation were more modern than students whose fathers’ belonged to middle and high occupations categories. Girls scored higher than boys on modernity score.

Lewinson & Sydney (2000) analyzed transformations of urbanism in Tanzania. Over the colonial period, Tanzanians linked the city with a classic form of modernity namely institutions such as the state, a cash economy, scientific expertise, education, salaried labour and bureaucracy. The results revealed that Tanzanian office workers in the 1990’s faced a profound disruption in their prior vision of urbanism and in response, they reformulated their way of being modern. Through household practices, life event celebrations, popular media, and oral narratives, professionals formed a new
urbanity which drew upon multiple domains, rural or ethnic customs, village-based social networks, foreign mass media, local daily experiences and pre-existing visions of the city.

Silva & Ferreira (2000) suggested from their study that race is a crucial category to understand modern politics. The role of race is a supplement historical account of the modern condition, which produce the nation as the central political category. Deployed in science to produce the limits of history, race is a political category, whose productive effects populate the global political scene.

Anderson & David (2000) studied the politics of race, culture and identity among Garinagu in Honduras. Authors identified the politics of black modernity that links processes of diasporic identification with global blackness to the articulation and performance of a modern identity in everyday struggles over social status and identity. They concluded with findings of an effective analysis of the relationship between these two politics of blackness in relation to larger theoretical issues of race and mestizaje in Latin American, hybridity and essentialism, nationalism, transnationalism, and diaspora, and modernity and tradition.

Hoffman & Mal (2001) conducted a study to examine the contribution of theory to anthropological social class formation and restructuring in post-planned economics and their analysis reflects the results of globalization and gender politics in Asia through an exploration of how professional subject formation is related to changing modes of governing, global economic practices, and cultural and gender hierarchies.

Talwalker (2001) studied the changing ways in which caste has been understood in India, particularly in Western India and Marathi speaking society. The author isolates historical moments as the beginning of modern education and the first Marathi textbooks
written in collaboration by British Colonial officials and English-educated Brahmins (the highest caste group), the nationalistic period in Western India, and the contemporary spheres of literacy politics in Bombay. The study suggested that there are fundamental shifts in how people, Indians, were working towards transformations of India from partly tribal, partly gender or caste based and partly imperial society to its modern and occasionally post-modern shift. These cultural forms shed light on the larger socio-economic changes that constituted and constitute Indian society.

Lukose & Ritty (2001) examined the relationship between youth cultural formation and modernity in post-colonial India. The study focused on gender, class and caste dimensions of college students of Kerala. The results of study throws light on the dynamics of modernity for young people. An ethnographic analysis showed three sets of social practices; (1) practice of consumption specially clothing practices, which revealed a terrain of embodied, class infected gendered demeanors that structure the space of youth, (2) practice of politics, which revealed the masculine underpinnings of the tensions produced when youth understand a category of politics, and (3) practice of romance which emerge with modern space of youth. The author demonstrates that the dichotomy between public and private, tied to gender, class and caste specificities, is both structuring the social life and yet allows ambiguity and flexibility.

Cohn & Deborah (2001) explored the ways in which the physical movement, bodies and labour of Mexican bracero migrants working in U.S. agricultural fields became sites of resistance in struggle over Mexico’s modernity. The results revealed how the Mexican state mobilized certain ideas and practices of modernity to frame its endorsement of the bracero program, a series of Mexico-US
labour treaties which brought Mexican migrants to work in US agricultural fields. It lays out how these migrants often interpreted their experiences of race and racism, gender, nationalism, citizenship and class through the language and lens of modernity.

Baumann & Paul (2001) conducted a study on three international communities in West-central Oregon. Results indicated a complex and nuanced picture of the motivations of those who choose to reject life in main stream society in favour of joining an international community. Researchers further suggested to pay attention to the fragile balance of individual and collective which must be maintained in order to ensure the persistence of each community.

Bak & Je (2001) discovered the effects on modernity on account of level of scientific knowledge, the amount of education, the content of education, gender, race, income, the general tendency to trust in social institutions and political ideology along with other socio-demographic variables. The study found the effect of scientific knowledge on attitude towards specific controversial application of science and technology as a weaker than the attitude towards science in general, which demonstrates the limitation of deficit model as an explanation of public resistance to controversial sciences and technology.

Inge et al. (2001) employed survey data on brothers in England, Hungry, Netherland, Scotland, Spain and the USA, covering a historical period from 1916 till 1990. Results showed that the effects parental social class on educational attainment are smaller in technologically advanced societies, and that effects of parental social class on occupational status are smaller in social-democratic and communist societies. In addition, the total family impact on occupational status stands declined with modernization.
Following trends of results can be extracted out of the empirical researches presented above:

(1) The socio-economic background of family has a significant effect on attitude of students towards modernity. Occupation, education and self identification have positive correlation with modernity.

(2) One of the factors of SES vis-a-vis income of the family is the prime contributor of modernizing the attitude of respondents. Culture, too, influences the larger socio-economic changes which constitute the modern society.

(3) The effect of scientific knowledge on attitude towards specific controversial application of science and technology is weaker than that on attitude towards science in general.

(4) Effect of parental social class or occupational status are smaller in social-democratic and technologically advanced societies as compared to other types of societies.

### 3.2(b) ATTITUDE TOWARDS MODERNITY AND GENDER DIFFERENCE

Inkles and Smith (1974) studied sex differences, and found that some forces which modernize men, such as, education, work in complex organizations and mass media exposure serve to make women more modern.

Bhasin (1978) and Varghese (1977) located significant gender differences in the modernity level in their respective studies on college and university students where males were found to be more radical and female more conservative.

Sharma (1979) found that boys scored higher than girls on modernity. He argued that low modernity of girls was understandable in view of the popular impression that Indian
women were carriers of tradition. He also identified faculties such as science, professional, social science and humanities which had the potential to increase modernity and located pronounced significant differences among subjects. The group with science subjects scored more on modernity scale than the one with humanities.

Chookittikul (1981) reported the sex and level of education as non-effective contributors to modernity. In a study by Khatun, (1986) educated people responded differently from the uneducated people on the questions pertaining to joint family, age at marriage, agricultural occupations, inter-status interaction, status of women, purdah system and religiousity.

Singh, Upmanyu and Ramneek (1982) assessed the relationship between modernity scores across motives, ability and temperamental factors on a sample of 211 post-graduate students. Males and females were found to significantly differ qualitatively as well as quantitatively on modernity. The t-values showed that male scored higher than females on traditional attitude and females on modern attitude.

Ugai (1983) on the other hand, found males higher on modernity than females in both the culture: Indian as well as Nigerian, and concluded that gender was a important factor affecting modernity irrespective of cultures. Jindal (1984) also found that male respondents scored significantly higher than their female counterparts. Kumar's (1984) study, too, substantiated the results of gender differences in modernity, at .05 level of significance, in favour of males.

Males were found more modern by Mikti (1988) in attitudes and identity setting roles, while females scored higher on only one factor of identity.
Mehdi (1988) observed that men and women having differences on the actual level of modernity. Women held more modern family beliefs than men when equally exposed to modern influences or forces. He maintained that the manifestation of modernity may be constrained for men than for women among those reared in traditional Islamic cultures.

Al-Akeel (1991) measured the attitude of 492 freshmen and senior students of both sexes, at the college of Arts, King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, and suggested that females tend to have more positive attitude towards modernization traits than males.

Tsomo (1992) conducted a study on 400 Tibetan students studying in class X and XII in Himachal Pardesh employing a modernity scale designed by Jindal (1979). He found that the females students showed the sign of greater civic orientation than the Tibetan male students in class X. In other cases no significant differences were observed between the two groups in both levels of education.

A study on improving modernity was undertaken by Faier & Anne (2000). The researchers suggest that modernity does not stand alone as a process of reconciliation; that activists link modernity with nation, state, land, gender, city and place as related terms for reference and displacement; and that gender is a salient concern for activists. The trend of results of these studies indicates that:

[1] There is no clear-cut evidence with regard to the effect of gender on modernity. Some of the studies show that the girls are more modern than boys, while others contradict and show that the males are more modern than females. A fair number of researchers give neutral evidence indicating that gender has no effect on attitude towards modernity.
The level of education of the males and females is a significant concomitant correlate of modernity.

When equally exposed to modern influences and reared in the equally traditional or modern families, women hold more modern beliefs than men at least on some selected dimensions of modernity.

3.2(C) ATTITUDE TOWARDS MODERNITY AND RURAL-URBAN AREA

Jindal (1984), in a study of 465 students of class VIII, IX and X drawn from three schools of Haryana State, found modernity to be positively correlated with the quality of school, level of education and area of residence. Urban children were higher on modernity than rural children.

A study entitled “Education and Individual Modernity Among Saudi Students” conducted by Ghaban (1987) examined the impact of formal and cross-cultural education on modernizing attitudes and values. The variable that positively influenced the overall modernity included the level of education. Age, father’s education and urban exposure were not significant contributor to it.

Lai (1988) conducted a study on education and attitudinal dimensions of modernity among rural areas in Himachal Pradesh. He found that majority of the parents of the uneducated youth as against the educated youth, were illiterate & engaged in agriculture household. It was also found that the majority of the respondents with a high modernity score level were prepared to choose their life partners by personal likings whereas majority of the respondents with a low level of modernity score preferred the choice by the parents.
Non-significant differences in the individual modernity of students of urban and rural secondary schools and between boys and girls were also reported by Kallaith (1988).

Srivastava (1990), in an empirical investigation entitled “Formal Education and the Process of Modernization Among Rural Youth in Gorkhpur, U.P., India,” indicated formal education as the most powerful force in determining the rural youth modernity. Formal education was also found important factor in modernization in the area of achievement, democratic orientation but least in the area of change proneness.

On the basis of research evidence, Omar (1990) concluded that there was a positive association between education and modernization, independent of alternative modernizing factors such as parents’ education, father’s education and urban residence.

By drawing data from 963 teachers in urban and sub-urban Bangkok, Leudkrungsri (1991) found that there was no difference in modernity between urban teachers and their sub-urban counterparts.

The study by Decker & Alois (2001) consisted of a sample of 30 rural and 30 urban Bastswana men. Using data for multiple operationalizations of stress and social experience, the analyses indicated that rural residence, poverty, more negative life history experiences during the previous year, failure as an urban migrant, and failure to surpass parents’ lifetime occupational status were associated with low cortisol and high depressive affect. The results support that transitional culture has profound negative impacts on well-being among the poor by creating desires for unreachable goals. The findings of this study does not provide evidence that there is something intrinsically & stressful about either modern or urban social life. Rather, it appears that alienated awareness of and failure
to achieve to achieve current prosperity is notably stressful particularly in relation to attainment of modern success.

Trends of results of these studies suggest that while urban exposure has positive effect on some aspects of modernity, the rural setting has a positive influence on some other areas of modernity such as achievement orientation, democratic orientation and attitude.

The overall review of related studies in this chapter and the trends of results of studies given in each section clearly necessitate further research in career maturity and attitude towards modernity (both of which seem to go together) as related to variables of class and socio-economic status. As highlighted in the rationale, it may again be pointed out here that one's attitude towards modernity as a socio-psychological correlate is closely linked to one's specially choices in various areas in general, and to one's career choices in particular and hence the need to study these two variables together was felt.

3.3 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

Since research undertaken in this area is scanty and inconclusive, therefore, only Null Hypothesis have been formulated. First five hypotheses are directed to first three objectives and the remaining hypotheses were formulated towards objectives four to seven.

1. There are no significant differences between backward and non-backward class students on educational parameters of socio-economic status.
   (This hypothesis has been formulated to examine concurrence between the ‘ascribed’ and ‘achieved’ status of backward class).
2. There are no significant differences between boys and girls on career maturity in (a) the total sample, (b) backward class group and (c) non-backward class group.

3. Significant differences do not exist between rural and urban students on career maturity in (a) the total sample, (b) backward class group and (c) non-backward class group.

4. Significant differences do not exist between boys and girls on attitude towards modernity in the total sample as well as in the backward and non-backward class groups.

5. There are no significant differences between rural and urban students on attitude towards modernity in the total sample as well as in the backward and non-backward class groups.

6. Factor of “class” does not lead to significant variations on career maturity.

7. Socio-economic status does not account for significant differences in career maturity.

8. Interactional effect of class and socio-economic status does not lead to significant variations in career maturity.

9. Variable of ‘class’ does not account for significant variance in attitude towards modernity.

10. Socio-economic status is not a significant factor of attitude towards modernity.

11. Interactional effect of class and socio-economic status does not lead to significant variations in attitude towards modernity.