CHAPTER-II

THEORETICAL VIEW-POINTS ABOUT PREDICTORS
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The theoretical views and operational definitions of the predictors under consideration are presented here briefly so as to get the conceptual understanding of these variables as also to understand the relationship of these variables with the vocational maturity of students at senior secondary stage.

2.1 INTELLIGENCE

Good (1973) in his Dictionary of Education has defined intelligence as “the capacity to acquire and apply knowledge.” A number of definitions have been evolved by psychologists according to their own concept of term “Intelligence”. All the definitions of intelligence have been systematised by Vernon (1950) and Freeman (1962). Vernon (1950) classified all the definitions under three broad categories such as biological, psychological and operational. Freeman (1962) though classified all definitions of intelligence into three categories, yet his approach differs from Vernon.

Vernon’s (1950) Classification:

(a) **Biological Approach**:

This category of definition emphasises the adaptive nature of human beings. Man is one kind of organism among a million on earth. If we interpret psychology as a biological science, then there is little doubt that we must also
interpret intelligence as adaptation to environment. Any other view of intelligence is superficial.

Intelligence, according to this approach, is the capacity to adapt relatively to new situations of life. But if this biological concept of intelligence is critically examined, it is found that many great men to whom one could hardly deny an assessment of exceptional intelligence (Pascal, Kafka and numerous academic experts) have been ill-adapted in their social and physical environment. The biological concept of intelligence is not of great use from practical point of view in the study of individual differences within a culture.

(b) Psychological Approach

According to Vernon's classification, the second category of definitions are psychological. Few of the definitions advanced by experts contained a clear commitment about the relative effects of heredity and environmental influences in the development of intelligence. Burt (1937), an English psychologist, defined intelligence as innate general cognitive ability. Since scores on existing intelligence have often been shown to be susceptible to environmental influences, a consequence of this definition is that intelligence as defined differs from intelligence as measured by tests. Psychologists have attempted to escape from this dilemma in two ways: Hebb (1949) and Cattell (1971) have distinguished two kinds of intelligence calling them-intelligence 'A' and intelligence 'B' or fluid and crystallized intelligence. The distinctions made by Hebb and Cattell are more or less the same. In each case fluid
intelligence or 'A' is thought to be as genetic potentiality, or the basic innate qualities of the individual’s nervous system and the crystallized intelligence or 'B' is mainly the result of experience, learning and environmental factors. Psychologists have specified two types of intelligence, which will in normal circumstances, overlap as much as to be in practice indistinguishable. Further, it is impossible to assess genetic potential uncontaminated by the effects of training and experience and other environmental influences.

(c) Operational Approach

The third category of definitions is operational. Operational definitions are important to understand the concept of intelligence in clear and definite terms. Scientific terms are defined not in isolation, as in a dictionary but by stating the observable conditions under which a sentence containing the terms is true or false. Instead of defining the word by itself, it is defined by giving the conditions for the truth of a sentence in which the term occurs. Such definitions are called operational, for they frequently state what must be done in order to determine a child’s I.Q. We must first administer a test of specific kind, then observe his performance on the test and finally make certain calculations and decisions. All of these conditions define the meaning of I.Q., as it appears in the sentence—Ramu has I.Q. of 115.

Accepting operational definition of intelligence is always beneficial as everyone would accept this for scientific work and would distinguish it from vaguely popular conceptions of the term intelligence.
Freeman’s (1962) Classification:

(a) Adjustment or Adaptation Ability

The definitions of this category lay emphasis on the adjustment ability of an individual to his environment. The individual is considered to be intelligent in proportion to his ability to adjust to new situations and problems of life. The person who is intelligent has no difficulty in his adjustment. He adjusts in an effective way and can vary his behaviour according to the situation. A person who is less intelligent is rigid and has less responses to make in the process of social interaction. The definition given by Stern (1914) comes under this category. He defined intelligence as a general capacity of an individual, consciously to adjust his thinking to new environment, to adjust himself to the new circumstances.

(b) Ability to learn

The definition of this category emphasizes the importance of an individual’s ability to learn. Learning ability is an index of one’s intelligence. In other words, “Intelligence is the learning ability.”

(c) Ability to carry on abstract thinking

This category of definitions lays more emphasis on the effective use of concepts and symbols in dealing with situations, especially presenting a problem to be solved through the use of verbal and numerical symbols. Terman (1921) defining intelligence says, “An individual is intelligent in proportion as he is able to carry on abstract thinking.”
It should be kept in mind that different categories of definitions are not exclusive of each other but are interdependent. The division has been made for the convenience of understanding. No doubt, on the surface, these categories appear quite different but when we critically examine the definitions we find that learning ability is the basic requisite condition for the other two aspects of intelligence.

Being dissatisfied by a number of definitions and interpretations, Boring (1961) defined intelligence as:

"Intelligence is what intelligence tests test"

Stoddard (1943) presents a comprehensive description. "Intelligence is the ability to undertake activities that are characterized by (i) difficulty (ii) complexity (iii) abstraction (iv) economy (v) adaptiveness to a goal (vi) social value and (vii) the emergence of originals and to maintain such activities under conditions that demand a concentration of energy and resistance to emotional forces."

According to Wechsler (1944)," Intelligence is the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully to think rationally and to deal effectively with the environment."

THEORIES OF INTELLIGENCE

In order to define the nature of intelligence clearly, various psychologists have developed various theories regarding this. According to Monarchic theory
of intelligence, intelligence consists of a single factor which equally works in all the situations of life. Some other theories are as under:

(1) **Faculty Theory**

Faculty Theory which is the oldest theory of intelligence and flourished during 18th and 19th century elaborates that mind is made up of different faculties like reasoning, memory, discrimination and imagination etc. These faculties are independent of each other and can be developed by vigorous exercises of difficult subject matter. This theory gave rise to a new theory of education called theory of mental discipline.

(2) **Two-factor theory**

This theory was developed by an English psychologist, Spearman in 1904. According to this theory, the intellectual abilities were comprised of two factors – general ability as ‘G’ factor and group of specific abilities known as ‘S’ factor.

‘G’ factor is universal, inborn ability and general mental energy. It differs from person to person, and greater the ‘G’ factor in a person, the more he is successful in his life.

‘S’ factor is learned and acquired in the environment and varies from activity to activity in the same individual. More the ‘S’ factor, the more the person is successful in his vocation.
(3) **Multifactor Theory**

It was developed by Thorndike (1962), an American psychologist. He was against the theory of general intelligence and he proposed that there are specific stimuli and specific mental responses and intelligence is just a name for an almost infinite number of actual or potential specific connections between these stimuli and responses. According to this, there is no general intelligence. He distinguished four attributes of intelligence:

(a) **Level** :- This refers to the difficulty of a task that can be solved.

(b) **Range** :- It refers to the number of tasks at any given degree of difficulty that we can solve.

(c) **Area** :- It means the total number of situations at each level to which the individual is able to respond.

(d) **Speed** :- This means the rapidity with which we can respond the test items.

Every intelligence test consists of four attributes. When a person is tested, a certain number of tasks (area) are given which vary in difficulty (attitude) and there are a number of items at each level of difficulty and they are responded in a given time (speed).

(4) **Group Factor Structure of Intelligence**

This theory is based on factor analysis and statistical procedure that attempts to describe as simple as possible the main factors that account for
the relationship among several different tests. This theory was put forth by Thurstone (1938). According to this theory, intelligence neither consists of two factors as proposed by Spearman nor multi-factors as developed by Thorndike. These six primary factors are as follows:

i) Number factor (N)
ii) Verbal Factor (V)
iii) Memory (M)
iv) Reasoning (R)
v) Word Fluency (W)
vi) Space (S)

(5) **Structure of Intellect (SOI) by Guilford (1967)**

This theory was developed by Guilford and his associates at the Southern California University in the psychological laboratory in 1966. The idea of structure of intellect model was formulated in fifties and successively refined and modified until the present model was finally developed in the year 1966.

He suggested that the mind is composed of at least three dimensions, instead of unidimensional model of intellect. The model is a three way classification of intellectual abilities, namely, operations, contents and products.
Operation - the act of thinking

Contents - the terms in which we think (such as words or symbols)

Products - the ideas we come up with

(6) Vernon’s Hierarchy Theory

Another factor analytic view of the organization of intelligence was developed by Vernon (1950).

According to this theory, intelligence tests measure an overall factor ‘G’ as two main types of mental abilities.

The major group factors are:

(i) Ved : Verbal, numerical and educational
(ii) KM : Practical, mechanical, spatial and physical

These two major factors can be divided into minor group factors, such as mechanical, manual and these minor factors can further be divided into various specific factors.

There are a number of theories of intelligence but not a single one is complete. So the discussion on what intelligence is, continues.

Now from the above, it can be said that ability needed for the development of vocational maturity is by no means unitary. Clearly, it has number of constituent parts. It means intelligence plays a vital role in the process of development of Vocational maturity. Thus development of
vocational maturity is presumably cognitive in form. In other words, development of vocational maturity has a solid cognitive nucleus, as here the individual is primarily involved in cognitive activity. The individual is applying his mind to the solution of the problems. Just, as he would solve a logical problem and reach a decision by purely intellectual means, so he/she applies the same mental process in discovering the solution of vocational problems.

For the purpose of present study, intelligence has been operationally defined as the ability to deal with numbers, analogies, opposites and synonyms, to make categories, to draw inferences. Its measurement (verbal) is the total scores on Group Test of General Mental Ability, (Tandon, 1971).

2.2 PERSONALITY

Human personality is a complex phenomenon and it can be interpreted differently by different psychologists and authors. Therefore, to understand the nature of personality is not a simple thing.

In the view of Murphy (1947) “Personality is structured organism within environment field, each aspect of which stands in dynamic relation to each other aspect. There is organisation within the organism and organisation within the environment, but it is the cross organisation of the two that is investigated in personality research.”

Some definitions look at personality of an individual, giving weightage to his unique qualities and characteristics. According to Vernon (1957), “We
mean by it simply, what sort of man is so and so, what he is like? while a man’s intelligence, his bodily strength and skills are certainly part of his personality, yet the term refers chiefly to his emotional and social qualities together, with his drives, sentiments, interests and aptitudes.”

Stangner (1948) is more concerned about the person’s inner system and defined personality as an inner system of beliefs, expectancies, desires and values. Cattell (1956) equates personality with the individual aspects of behaviour. He directs his attention to the behavior of the individual and maintains that it should have predictive power. He defines personality “... is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation. Personality is concerned with all the behaviour of the individual both over and under the skin.” Eysenck accepted this definition in his (1960) work, ‘The structure of human personality.’ Eysenck’s own definition of personality is an analysis of behaviour as he believes in the continuity of behaviour. Eysenck (1960) defines personality “as more or less stable and enduring organisation of a person’s character, temperament, intellect and physique which determines his unique adjustment to the environment.” He distinguished four sectors of personality:

1) Cognitive Sector (intelligence)
2) Cognitive Sector (character)
3) An Affective Sector (temperament)
4) Somatic Sector (constitution)
According to Hall and Lindzey (1964) “Personality consists concretely of a set of values or descriptive terms which are used to describe the individual being studied according to the variables or dimensions which occupy a central position within the particular theory described.” In the words of Thorpe and Schmullar (1965) “An adequate definition of personality needs to emphasize the point that the individual is a human being enmeshed in a social order and symbolic culture which influences his every action.”

An important definition of personality is given by Allport (1966). According to Allport “Personality is the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his characteristic behaviour and thought.”

“Dynamic Organization” emphasizes the fact that personality is constantly developing and changing; although at the same time there is an organisation or system that binds together and relates the various components of personality. The term “Psycho-physical” reminds that personality is neither exclusively mental nor exclusively physical. The ‘organisation’ entails the operation of both body and mind, inextricable fused into a personal unity. The word ‘determine’ makes clear that personality is made up of determining tendencies that play an active role in individual’s behaviour. “Personality is something and does something. It is what lies behind specific acts and within the individual. “This definition reflects that man’s personality is organised which is constantly evolving and changing. Man is both brain and body with the help of which he does something which makes him different from others.
Therefore, every human being is unique in time, place, person, adjustment and quality. Personality is the mode of survival.

There are three main approaches to the study of personality.

(a) **Conflicting approach given by Freud (1949)**

(b) **Fulfilment approach given by Rogers (1962)**

(c) **The behavioural approach given by Adler (1924)**

(a) **The Conflict approach** :- This approach assumes that personality is shaped by a constant conflict between internal forces. According to this approach, life is a compromise between these forces.

(b) **Fulfilments approach** :- This approach to personality assumes that a single force impels people to strive constantly for fulfilment and an understanding of their environment. Life is not a compromise but a continual struggle for fulfilments and/or perfection.

(c) **The Behavioural approach** : This approach in general suggests that behaviour and personality are result of external influences such as reinforcement and punishment.

Freud’s (1949) approach to personality is called psycho analytic theory. The method of therapy based on Freud’s theory is called psycho-analysis.

Freud stated that there are three levels of consciousness. The first is conscious behaviour, the thoughts, feelings and actions of which people are aware; the second preconscious behaviour is mental activity that people are unaware of and cannot become aware of except through certain techniques.
According to Freud's theory, the primary structural elements of personality are the id, ego, and super ego and these three forces reside in the unconscious. Each amounts to a different aspect of functioning. The id is the source of a person's instinctual energy. It works on the pleasure principle which assumes that people try to maximize immediate gratification. Freud considers much of a person's instinctual energy to be sexual and the rest as aggressive.

The second major components of functioning is the ego whereas the id seeks to maximize pleasure and to obtain gratification, the ego (which grows out of the id.) seeks to satisfy the individual's instinctual needs in accordance with reality. It works on the reality principle. Whereas the id is demanding, unrealistic and works by the pleasure principle, the ego is patient, reasonable and works by the reality principle. Super ego is the moral self. When id, ego and super ego are not in a harmonious relationship or are out of balance, anxiety develops.

Rogers (1962) believes that fulfilment is the motivating force of personality development. According to Rogers, people try to express their capabilities, potentials and talents to the fullest possible extent. Rogers suggests that an inborn tendency in people directs them towards actualizing their inherited nature, and thus fulfilling potential. Rogers makes two basic assumptions about behaviour. He assumes that behaviour is goal directed and worthwhile. He also assumes that because people are innately good they will almost always choose adaptive, self-actualizing behaviours.
Roger’s theory of personality is structured around the concept of self. Self is the main structural component of Roger’s theory of personality. A group of perceptions that characterize an individual and his or his relationship to others and to other aspects of his or his life, Roger’s theory assumes that individuals are constantly engaged in the process of fulfilling their potential of actualizing the true self. Rogers suggests that each person has a concept not only of self but also of an ideal self. Ideal self is that self, where a person would ideally like to be when correspondence exists between the real self and ideal self, a person is generally happy. In contrast, a great discrepancy between the real self and ideal self often results in feelings of unhappiness and dissatisfaction. Roger’s basic principle is that people have a tendency to maximize self concept through self actualization. Self actualization for Rogers is the continuous growth and expansion of the self towards the ideal self.

Roger’s concept of personality shows an abiding concern for individual development. Rogers stresses that each person must evaluate his or her situation from a personal (internal) frame of reference, not from the (external) framework of others. Unhappiness is the result of too great a discrepancy between the real and ideal selves: but the individual can reduce or eliminate this discrepancy. Thus each person’s happiness lies within his or her conception of self through his/her involvement in the society.

Rogers’ and Freud’s theories of personality make fundamentally different assumptions about human nature and how it is expressed in behaviour or personality.
Adler (1924) was heavily influenced by Freud and many consider his theory as an extension of Freud's. Adler focused not simply on the self, but on the self as a member of society. Adler believed that people strive unceasingly to better themselves but, unlike Rogers, also believed that people also strive constantly for perfection and superiority.

Adler believed that people are basically good and that their core tendency is to strive towards superiority or perfection. Whereas Rogers stressed fulfilment through self-actualization, Adler stressed fulfilment through striving towards specific goals. Some goals are fictional and unlikely to be reached. According to Adler (1924) people are motivated, or energized, to strive for superiority and ultimately perfection, by feeling of inferiority; when people experience a sense of imperfection they seek to improve themselves. Thus feelings of inferiority are not a negative factor; these compel people to strive for superiority.

Both Adler and Rogers assume that human beings can and will fulfil themselves whenever possible. Whereas Rogers stresses self-actualization, Adler emphasizes an innate social need motivated by feelings of inferiority to strive towards perfection and superiority. To a great extent, Adler's idea of inferiority has made a way into other popular theories of personality. Psychologists see Adler as stressing an interpersonal route to fulfilment.

Adolescents react to the same kind of situation in different ways according to their personality differences. Some children are sluggish, taking
what happens without being perturbed. Others are excitable. Some are bold, others are weak. Vocational maturity is advanced or retarded according to the different personality traits of the adolescents.

For the purpose of present study, personality has been taken as defined by Cattel and Eber (1967), this is, which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation and is concerned with the entire behaviour of the individual, both overt and under the skin, and scores obtained on 16 personality questionnaire (Indian adaptation by Kapoor and Tripathi) are measures of personality.

2.3 ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Achievement motivation refers to the motive to achieve some standard of accomplishment of proficiency. Good (1973), in the dictionary of education, referred to achievement motivation on a combination of psychological forces which initiate, direct and sustain behaviour towards successful attainment of some goal which provides a sense of significance.

Highest attainment in academic field demands both good intelligence and strong achievement motivation, especially when there is little anxiety as to probable failure. But strong achievement motivation cannot compensate for low intelligence. Those with strong achievement motivation generally do well in school, are self reliant and less dependent on others (Smith, 1969; McClelland, 1961).
Murray (1938) was the first one in Harvard Psychological Clinic to find out inner convictions through projective test which may be responsible for achievement motivation, McClelland (1961) showed that achievement motivation is a fairly stable characteristic and is correlated highly with actual achievement in real life situations.

Motivation is that force which implies individual action, determines direction of action and rate of action of an individual. Achievement Motivation is an important factor which affects the behaviour of an individual.

McClelland (1961) in his book “Achieving Society” has remarked that urge for achievement is a major factor for human motivation and behaviour. In terms of content, achievement motivation may be defined as the tendency to maintain and increase individual proficiency in all areas. Motivation is derived from the world ‘mover’. It is the act of inculcating and stimulating interest in studies and in other such activities in the pupils.

According to McClelland (1961) achievement motivation is the desire to excel some standard of behaviour. It is an effect in connection with evaluated performance in which competition with a standard of excellence is paramount.

Murray (1964) considers achievement motivation as a social move to master, manipulate or organize physical objects, human beings or ideas.

According to Garry (1965) motivation is considered synonymous to aspiration. These two are positively co-related. It is synonymous with accomplishment of one’s skill, one’s proficiency in a given area of learning.
and depth of one’s knowledge. These are the indicators of the extent of one’s achievement.

Mehta (1967) has put forward a wider conceptual definition of achievement motivation as dissatisfaction with the present state of affairs and an urge to improve the life condition or self.

Heckhausen (1967) explains that the standard of excellence, which is one of the criteria of achievement motivation, represents a classification of alternatives: passed-failed, good-bad and so on. It may be task-related, e.g. degree of perfection as a result of performance or self-related e.g. comparison with one’s own earlier achievements, or other related e.g. comparison with achievements or with others as in competition.

Finger (1966) investigated some characteristics of academic motivation in general such as persistence, planning, self-control and deliberation are present usually in high motivation individuals and are lacking in low motivation people. Besides these, personal responsibility, risk taking, level of aspiration, innovative activity and vocational goals may be considered as features of achievement motivation.

According to Good (1973) achievement motivation is a combination of psychological forces which initiate, direct and sustain behaviour towards successful attainment of goals which provide a sense of significance.

One of the basic assumptions of humanistic psychology is that most human behaviour is directed towards satisfying some needs or attaining some
goals. They claim that a person’s paramount goal is to discover, develop and express one’s true self, to actualize one’s potentialities, to become what one is capable of becoming and to lead a most personally satisfying life (Kelly, 1972; Rogers, 1972).

According to Maslow (1943), there exists in human life a hierarchy of needs. Growth is achieved by progressively satisfying the needs starting from the basic needs to other higher order needs like self-actualization. These needs and corresponding goals are inherent in human nature, but the realization of a higher need is only possible when the lower needs have been satisfied properly.

In this sense, motivation is a kind of internal force which arouses, regulates and sustains all our more important actions (Vernon, 1969).

According to Atkinson et al. (1961), achievement motivation in children can be differentiated into three distinct groups:

a) Those who are having a strong persisting desire for achievement, especially long term goals;

b) Those who intend to avoid failure with a medium or moderate strength of achievement motivation, and

c) Those who are little concerned with achievement.

Persons with high achievement motivation tend to prefer tasks which require some intellectual difficulty, a challenge to their success. That way, they are risk taking individuals.
The motive to achieve is highly valued and important in our society but not every child has the motive or even wants to have it. (Horner, 1978).

Those with strong achievement motivation are not frustrated with failure in a task because it helps them to determine more firmly to achieve a goal they set for themselves. Those with high anxiety and low achievement motivation prefer to have task at a very easy level where they are unlikely to fail (Mitra, 1991).

2.4 FAMILY ENVIRONMENT

Family Environment refers to all sorts of moral, ethical values, and emotional, social and intellectual climate set up by the family members to contribute to the whole-some development.

Family with its physical, intellectual and emotional aspects shapes a child’s life in his journey towards self-fulfilment. Individual differences owe their origin mostly (barring genetic factors) to a number of variables created by home which may hinder or help the progressive growth of a child.

Although evidence gathered from twin studies and sibling and adaptive studies have clearly established the role of genetics in intellectual development (Plomin, 1989), it has become increasingly clear that the early environment of the child influences substantially the full development of those abilities.

Due to its mediating role in culture, the family 'belief system' or what is taken as 'common sense' in one home, may bear little relevance to what is
taken equally for granted by a neighbour. Perkins (1981) found that correlatives were able to produce great works, not solely as a result of their talent, but as a function of their values and beliefs, demonstrated individually in terms of originality, and independence. Feuerstein (1990) described it as crucial to the promotion of giftedness.

The most pervasive social influences on an individual’s education which apply from birth, is family outlook; its effect on the gifted, can be both different and more powerful because the stakes are much higher.

A modest family background could have a more profound effect on potential high achievers than on those of average ability. This is because they are more likely to change their educational environments, and thus, have to operate in somewhat different social setting.

A child needs to have a meaningful congruent inner life which helps him build up a positive view about himself. To be an optimistic child, one needs to have a home which is full of emotional, intellectual and social warmth.

A home may lack proper physical amenities, but that can be compensated through emotional attachment, intellectual richness and social competence whereas a home rich in physical amenities but lacking in warmth, concern and affection, may produce an individual devoid of any particular copying strategies for facing the reality of life.
TYPES OF FAMILY ENVIRONMENT

Basically, three types of environment prevails in the Indian family:

a) Authoritarian, dominant and over-protective;
b) Democratic, permissive and accepting; and
c) Laissez-faire cum submissive to child.

a) Authoritarian, Dominant and Over-protective

In this environment, the parents dominate and direct the child on all fronts. The parents decide on all issues of child’s life. They make personal criticisms, assume all responsibility, initiate all activities, define goods, impose them on child and maintain wide social distance from children. In families with this environment, discipline assumes a predominant and pervasive role.

b) Democratic, Permissive and Accepting

In this environment, the parents are more permissive, have more understanding of the child’s needs and capacities, are more lenient and less punitive. The family members share close relationships with children, ask for their contribution and encourage group initiative.

Here, parents give time, thought and effort instead of material things. Family members accept the child’s early ideas and ambitions instead of foisting their own upon him.
c) **Laissez-faire cum Submission**

This type of environment is in contrast to the authoritarian set-up. The parents operate as observer in the family, make no attempt to regulate or orient his/her ideas. They allow complete freedom to the child. No goals are established and no restrictions are imposed.

In this study, Moos and Moos's (1986) Family Environment scale was used in order to find out scores of Family Environment variable.

Drews and Teahan (1957) found that dominating mothers tend to foster high achievements in their children.

Morrow and Wilson (1961) reported that parents of high achiever of elementary, high school and college age tend to be more precise and their approval show more interest and understanding, report feeling close to their children, convey a greater sense of belongingness and identify more with their own parents. In another study, Winter and Bottom (1954) found that children with desire to achieve had mothers who valued early independence in their children.

It is expected that different types of family-environment directly or indirectly enhances or hinders the vocational maturity of adolescents.

### 2.5 SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

**Status**

By the term ‘Status’, we mean the recognition given to an individual by his group relations (Kelly, 1951). In terms of the sense of belonging (Park
and Burgess, 1921) is the result of the ranking of a role by the group (Ogburn and Nimcoff, 1960) that determines for its possessions of a degree of respect, prestige and influence (Maclver et al. 1937). They are, thus, the ancient powers and privileges of the family bestowing prestige, authority and power (Mussen et al. 1963).

Societies have thus developed two types of distinct statuses. The ascribed and the achieved (Linton, 1939; Ogburn Nimcoff, 1960).

The ‘ascribed status’ is the recognition which a society gives to a person because of his position (Cole et al. 1959). It is assigned to individuals without any reference to their innate differences or abilities (Linton, 1936). Thus it can be predicted and ascertained since birth.

The ‘achieved statuses’ are as minimum, those requiring special qualities although they are not necessarily limited to those. They are not assigned to an individual since birth but are left open to be filled through competitions (Linton, 1936; Ogburn and Nimcoff, 1960) and individual efforts (Linton, 1936; Cole et al. 1959).

Social Status

A social person is one who conforms to the three criteria of social development. He should behave in approved manner, play the role which society prescribes for him and possess favourable attitudes towards people and social activities (Hurlock, 1964).
‘Social Status’ therefore, is an indication of one’s position of respect, prestige and influence in the social structure (Cole & Montgomery, 1959) apart from his personal attributes which may either inhibit or enhance an individual’s success to sources of information and his willingness to deviate from group norms (Everettee, 1962) and may even vary with the groups (Cole & Montgomery, 1959).

**Economic Status**

The word ‘Economic’ is used generally for the motives involving earning a livelihood, the accumulation of wealth and the like (Drever, 1964). The economic endeavour entails ‘cherishing of things because of their material value’, (Spranger, 1928) and pursuer, by virtue of his activity, carves for himself a place in society recognized as ‘Economic Status’. Economic status, thus, stratifies modern population according to the amount and source of income which is usually derived from a set of occupational activities, the ownership of property or both.

**Socio-Economic Status**

The ‘Socio-Economic Status’ is obviously a blending of the statuses as enumerated earlier. Though none of the two can exist without each other yet they are distinctively different. ‘Socio-Economic Status’ appears to be the resultant of the position of an individual in a society by virtue of a complex fusion of both of them, which often do not run parallel to each other in their own areas. This intermingling takes place in an undefined and curious manner eventually to prevent an indicator to ‘Socio-Economic Status’.
"Socio-Economic Status" would, therefore, be a ranking of an individual by the society he lives in, in terms of his material belongings and cultural possessions along with the degree of respect, power and influence he wields.

In Chamber's Twentieth Century Dictionary (1970) meaning of Socio-Economic Status is 'State, condition, position of an individual or group. In other words a set of potentially influential factors generally associated with home is called the socio-economic status of the child. (Good, 1973).

It may be defined as socio-economic rank or position of the individual in the group to which he belongs. An individual's socio-economic status is his group standing or ranking in terms of his social and financial position in relation to others. He may be born to it or he may have acquired it. But in the present study, the subjects are just adolescents, so at this stage, the socio-economic status of one's parents exercises a decisive influence on one's fortunes in life. He picks up most of his work values from the family. We find that one's economic condition tends to determine largely one's social status, though of course it is a fact that social status is also determined by some other factors i.e. education, birth and social inheritance. But it is very difficult to disentangle the social status from economic status. For all practical purposes, they represent a single but complex reality in almost all advanced societies of the world.

This is the social standing or prestige of a person in his group or of the group in the community; the position that a person or group holds in public esteem. Status may be vague in some respects but fairly defined in others,
depending on the social or other norms. Economic status may be determined by the size or the source of one’s income. Economic status alone may not ensure social prestige. This may rest partly on wealth but may also be determined by race, nationality, religion, family, lineage or other factors.

Meredith’s (1972) study has shown that children of those families which are in general more healthy have developed at a higher social level. Children coming from upper class families are not only superior in health but also in intelligence and achievement. According to Terman and Marrel (1937) the children of the parents in high professional groups have their I.Q. near about 118 while children of clerks with same age group have their I.Q. as only 97. It is also essential to note that even though there is a relationship between socio-economic status and I.Q., yet it is not high. The correlation is only .3 or .4. In low socio-economic group, children of high I.Q. are found and in high socio-economic status group there are many children of low I.Q.

It is generally found, moreover, as one of a group of factors in the higher status home that tend to give the children the opportunities of acquisition of various concepts not generally enjoyed by those of lesser status home.

The blended complex of two statuses in terms of ‘Socio-economic status’ as such remains a highly important sociological concept and is usually measured in terms of occupation of father, (Warner et al. 1949; Tyler, 1965, Kuppuswami, 1962; Pareek and Trivedi, 1964; Shirpurkar, 1967; Ruch, 1970; Kulshrestha, 1980) education of father, (Freeman et al., 1928; Warners et al.

**Variable Sensitivity**

'Social' and 'Economic' statuses show intimate relationship to other variables. It has been noted that abnormality in the family is an important correlate of poor performance in 'Social Status'; (Toby and Jakson, 1957). 'Economic Status' promotes leadership (Lewis, 1954; Singh and Arya, 1966; Sharma, 1975) also affect the level of aspiration in children (Kanta, 1962) and religious affiliation (Allingmith and Lipset, 1963).

Socio-economic status influences the values (Sharma, 1979) differences in home management and table manner; in husband-wife relationship; in the concept of roles of parents, children and relatives; in the use of money; in child training and attitudes towards family life (McGuire, 1954) in the performance of children in examination (Singh, 1962) in social participation.
(Pareek and Trivedi, 1964). Children of high ‘Socio-economic status’ talk sooner, talk better than those of lower ‘Socio-economic status’ (Harlock, 1964). At every age, the articulation of children of the upper ‘Socio-economic group’ is superior to that of children of lower groups (Landreth, 1958) ‘Socio-economic status’ promotes more associations with their parents (McCarthy, 1954).

It was also found that ‘Socio-economic Status’ favours intelligence (Fryer, 1922; Shanthamani, 1970) is curvilinearly correlated and the mid-group remains favourable in bringing about a recognised creative scientist or an engineer (Roe, 1951). It demotes interest in agricultural pursuits (Bhardwaj, 1978) executive and literary pursuits (Bhardwaj, 1978), commercial, social and household pursuits (Moolchandani, 1977) but promotes in artistic and executive pursuits (Bhardwaj, 1978). ‘Socio-economic Status’ is a surivlineary correlate of scientific interest with oppression on mind (Bhardwaj, 1978), ‘Socio-economic Status’ promotes vocational interests when adolescents possess high creativity with low intelligence, (Bhardwaj, 1978).

Thus, it is clear that ‘Socio-economic Status’ is a very important sociological concept which affects the vocational maturity in so many ways.

In the present study, socio-economic status of the students is the measure of scores obtained on socio-economic status scale by Kulshrestha (1980).
2.6 SEX DIFFERENCES

Men perform better on cognitive tasks that are mathematical or verbal, spatial, whereas women do better when task is verbal one. Sex is a socio-cultural phenomenon with a variety in taste, temperament and value.

It is expected that sex-differences may affect the vocational maturity of adolescents.