CHAPTER-III

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND HYPOTHESES
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Review of related literature helps to eliminate the duplication of what has already been done and provides useful hypotheses and helpful suggestions for significant investigation. Although the research for related studies is time consuming yet it proves to be a fruitful phase. It acts as a light house to discover what is already known, what are the pitfalls of the previous studies and also widens our outlook, knowledge, insight and experience with regard to the subject. It helps us to know what methods of attack have been used successfully. According to Good, Barr and Scatis (1992), “Review of related literature may serve to avoid unnecessary duplication and may help to make progress towards the solution of new problem”.

In the above context it was thought appropriate to shift the relevant facts regarding the variables under consideration from the mass of research evidence in this chapter so as to enable the researcher to formulate hypotheses in order to provide an outline for the successful execution of the investigation.

3.1 INTELLIGENCE AND VOCATIONAL MATURITY

Intelligence is the potent variable in vocational development. It is related to academic success and attainment, it is an important factor in determining how much education a person will complete. Amount of education affects entry into many occupations, especially the professions. Intelligence is also
related in a general way to the occupational level at which a person will have
the best chance to compete. It has been demonstrated that the average
intelligence of members of different occupational groups varies in such a
way that the occupation may be arranged in a hierarchy according to the
averages. However it has also been shown that there is a considerable variation
around the averages with the result that there is much overlapping in the range
of scores between different occupational groups. (Frayer, 1921; Stewart, 1947).

Behaviour is generally influenced by the intelligence potential of a
person and vocational choice behaviour is no exception to it. A number of
studies have shown relationship between intelligence and vocational choices
and preferences (Witty and Lehman 1931, Wrenn, 1935 Holden, 1961; Jones,
1949; Joshi and Srivastav, 1964; Porter, 1954; Perrone, 1964; Pal, 1968) but
in few of them such relationship with vocational maturity has been reported.

Research findings of Terman and Oden (1947), Super and Overstreet
(1960) and Smeda (1972) revealed that the more intelligent an individual was
the more capable he was in dealing with various vocational development
tasks and hence vocationally more mature. To investigate the influence of
intelligence on vocational maturity Whiteman (1972) conducted a study on
8th and 9th grade students in rural eastern Kentucky. He concluded that mental
ability was the only statistically significant variable in the prediction of
vocational attitudes of the 8th grade students. Harkness (1973) in his research
study reported that the IQ score was the most significant predictor of the
child’s vocational maturity. Tinney (1973) studied 90 educable mentally
retarded students who were selected on the basis of stratified random sampling.
He found a significant relationship of total score of career maturity in inventory-
Attitude scale and IQ. Greenberg (1976) conducted a study with a sample of
480 girls and boys from 7th, 9th, and 12th grades. He found that intelligence
variable was statistically significant but weak predictor of vocational
maturity. Chand’s (1979) study revealed that there was positive and significant
correlations between intelligence and vocational maturity. Frank (1981) in
his study indicated that the variables of IQ, grade point average father’s
occupational level, and the occupational values of interest and satisfaction,
and preparation and ability were the best predictors of ninth grade vocational
attitude maturity.

On the other hand, Scheri (1972) found that there was only a correlation
of .46 between IQ and vocational maturity of the eleventh grade male
students. English (1974) conducted a study on Senior High School students
to compare the effect of two methods of disseminating occupational
information on vocational maturity and found that there was no significant
difference between high IQ and low IQ students in terms of increased
vocational maturity level after they were exposed to experimental condition.
Steven (1980) in his study found that there was no difference between
curriculum groups on measures of intelligence, personality and their combined
strength relationship to career maturity.

Sexana (1984) reported that intelligence deals more efficiently with
the vocational development task, depicting maturity in career making decisions.
Sujata (1988) reported significant relationship between intelligence and vocational choices.

Ranhotra (1996) in her study found significant correlation between career decision making and scholastic variable of intelligence.

These studies are the trend setters for understanding the vocational maturity and its related aspects. Though the review reveals that considerable amount of work has been done in the area of vocational maturity, yet a large number of potent variables need exploration. More research is called for finding the relationship of intelligence with vocational maturity of the students, specially at the senior secondary stage.

3.2 PERSONALITY AND VOCATIONAL MATURITY

Researchers had not generated any conclusive evidence of personality correlates of vocational maturity. Attempts to investigate significance of personality traits in occupational choice or vocational adjustment were complicated by the fact that a given occupation may provide an opportunity for many kinds of activity (Berg 1953). Dodge (1937) reported that salesmen tend to be somewhat more dominant than clerks; accountants were more dominant, self-sufficient and stable and engineers and skilled workers were the least so. Harrison and Jackson (1952) evaluated mechanical engineers on the basis of ability, aptitude, interest and personality tests. The evaluation by tests was compared with job performance. The supervisors in rating their personnel were required to say whether they agreed highly, mostly, slightly or
not at all with the evaluation report. The results are given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agreement Level</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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<tr>
<td>High Degree of Agreement</td>
<td>39.00%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Predominant Agreement</td>
<td>51.00%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Slight Agreement</td>
<td>7.90%</td>
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<tr>
<td>No Agreement</td>
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Mishra (1962) found that the personality factors of high and low achievers in engineering education were different on traits such as: anxiety, judgement, neuroticism, adjustment and total emotionality. Furthermore, people may have different motives for entering a given occupation. In summarising the previous research though approximately Super (1960), and Crites (1962) observed that “although it has been assumed that there should be linear correlations between certain personality traits and adjustment in some occupations, such relationship has in fact been found in very few occupations. Various studies have concluded that personality of the individual was related to vocational maturity.

Rao (1966) found that nurses, teachers and medical students had a comparatively higher neuroticism score while engineers and the science group showed a lower score on neuroticism. Arts students were found to be more extrovert than the other students’ group.

Super and Overstreet (1960) found that career maturity seems to be a reflection of the general personality of the individual. Crites (1962) study suggested that personality was a viable dimension in terms of vocational
development. Human beings equally differ in their adjustments and behaviour patterns, life and work situations, for which one of the important reasons may be the differences in their personality patterns. The choice and the success of people in various work situations may also be related to the personality characteristics of the individuals. Andrew (1971) reported significant results to support Holland's contention that people search out environments for vocations that are compatible with their personalities. According to Holland's personality theory of vocational choices (1959, 1966), a person is the product of the interaction of his particular heredity with a variety of culture and personal forces including peers, parents and physical environment, which he refers to as the individual's adjustive orientation. In the act of making a vocational choice, the individual in a sense "Searches" for situations which satisfy his hierarchy of adjustive orientations.

Dank (1971) tested two patterns of personality associated with Holland's Personality theory, i.e. consistency and homogeneity. These dimensions do not effectively discriminate either employed individually or in combination, between relatively efficient and relatively inefficient personalities in a normal population.

Jones (1972) study revealed that personality was one of the dimensions in terms of vocational development. Capehart (1974) studied the relationship of vocational maturity to Holland's theory of vocational choice with a sample of 148 students. He found that explicit role preference was an effective predictor of vocational maturity. McGowan (1974) measured the effectiveness
of Holland's Self Directed Search for Educational and Vocational Planning in reducing career indecision, hypothesized that career indecision and indecisiveness were differently related to anxiety and vocational maturity. Devoge (1974) investigated the validity of Holland's personality theory of vocational choice with a sample of 132 male subjects. He found that the number of the subjects whose occupational type matched their major area type was significantly different from chance. Bitney (1975) examined selected variables of personality pattern as related to vocational choice behaviour. Significant relationships were found: (i) Personality and vocational choice among male occupational and transfer students, (ii) consistency personality pattern and congruent vocational choice among male occupational students, (iii) inconsistency personality pattern and congruent vocational choice among male transfer students.

Smith (1979) found that manifest personality needs were not significantly related to vocational maturity in white women but were significantly related to black women. Chand (1979) showed that the general personality traits did not exhibit a consistent picture in correlation with all the measures of vocational maturity.
Gokhale (1984) in his study about vocationalization at 10+2 stage (commerce stream) found that (i) the practical training imparted by visits of different institutions and by arranging guest lectures was not sufficient. (ii) teachers needed to be trained on all practical aspects in their respective subjects, (iii) the service condition of teachers teaching vocational subjects were not attractive.

CASE (1985) revealed that the institution providing vocational courses in Karnataka were mostly situated in Urban localities. These institutions do not provide adequate facilities for these courses. Most of the principals had no technical education; hence they could not pay proper attention to the functioning of the system. The syllabi were very lengthy and could not be completed in time.

Shah and Misra (1997) conducted a study about vocational education at +2 stage in U.P. The results of study suggest that the number of schools providing vocational education are very few in comparison to the target set by N.P.E - 1986. The availability of number of courses in these schools are limited and students are bound to select these courses against their interest, attitude and aptitude.

Choudhary (1997) pointed out that the agent of vocationalization in India is the state. In schools practical approach and programme remain bureaucratic and government department-centered. No concrete support from private or public sector has so far been received.
Garg (1997) reported that the vocational education programme at +2 stage suffer because of (1) weak management structure at the Directorate, SCERT, district and school level, (ii) lack of social credibility and acceptance of the scheme due to weak placement both for academic and professional career, (iii) compatibility and employability in the job market.

Times of India (1998) published a news report “vocational education has failed to meet expeditiously”. In this report it is stated that the government has admitted that the scheme to impart vocational education has failed to achieve the expected levels.

3.3 ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AND VOCATIONAL MATURITY

Need achievement is an important determinant of vocational maturity. According to McClelland (1951) achievement motivation or need mastery is a competition with a standard of excellence. He said it is need which presumably is aroused by experimentally inducing ego involvement. He says that some people are more strongly motivated by the expectation of success, others by expectations of failures. He calls these two sub-forms of the achievement motivation as need achievement and fear of failure.

Achievement motivation is a task oriented behaviour that allows the individual's performance to be evaluated according to some internally or externally imposed criterion. It involves the individual in competing with others with some standard of excellence. According to McClelland and
Associates (1961) the concept of an achievement motivation encompasses success in competition with some standard of excellence, long term involvement and unique accomplishment. Standards of performance exist for most of the tasks and to match or surpass them is considered as achievement. He said it is the need which presumably is aroused by experimentally including ego involvement. He says that some people are more strongly motivated by the expectation of success, others by the need to avoid. He calls these two sub-forms of the achievement motivation as need achievement and fear of failure.

McClelland (1961) has reported the characteristics of a person with high achievement motivation. The related characteristics being moderate risk taking, energetic innovative activity, taking personal responsibility for result of action.

Decharms (1968), adds that a motive is the disposition to strive for something and have satisfaction. The achievement motivation is the disposition to strive for satisfaction derived from success in competition with some standard of excellence.

Hence achievement motivation may be regarded as the goal oriented behaviour of the individual with a felt need and a power to achieve higher.

Super and Overstreet assume that an individual’s achievement drive is related to vocational maturity. Presumably greater the individual’s need to achieve, earlier does he start planning vocational choices.
Realistic educational or vocational goals are set by those persons in whom motive to succeed is greater than the motive to avoid failure, (Maulten 1965; Feather 1967).

According to Heckhausen (1963), in terms of content, achievement motivation may be characterised as the tendency to maintain and increase individual proficiency in all area, in which standard of quality is taken as binding. Heckhausen (1963) concluded that motivation pre-supposes a level of cognitive maturation which enables the child refer to the outcome of his performance back to self and thus be viewed as an effect of his competence. He is of the view that need achievement appears along with the cognitive steps in the maturation of the child.

Minor and Neel (1958) studied the relationship of achievement motivation to vocational preferences, and hypothesized that (i) the higher the achievement score, the higher the prestige level of the subject’s chosen occupation (ii) There was statistically significant tendency for subjects who have moderate or low levels of achievement motivation to choose occupation which were more consistent with their age, education, intelligence and financial resources. Super and Overstreet (1960) assumed that an individual’s achievement drive was related to his vocational maturity. Presumably, the greater the individual’s need to achieve, the earlier he will start planning for making vocational choices. Mahone (1960) found that the men in whom need achievement was dominant, more frequently had high realistic choice, whereas the man dominated by anxiety, more frequently were unrealistic.
A number of studies Aronoff and Litwin (1971); Aubrey, (1971); Alper (1973); Kelly’, Rawson and Terry (1973) showed relationship between need achievement and occupational selection.

Bernstein and Liberty (1963), Singh (1970), Krishna and Mahfooz (1975) concluded that achievement was significantly related to occupational preferences.

Pandey (1974) compared the occupational aspirations of urban and rural college youth. The data showed that although achievement orientation, realistic approach and active involvement were implicit in the youth’s discussion of job choices, urban youth surpassed rural youth in this respect.

Bryne (1974) found that there were two separate roles of sex as in respect of achievement motivation. For males achievement means success in terms of intelligence, leadership, occupational prestige and income—which depends on individual’s ability and hard work. Achievement has two meaning for females. Firstly, there was personal achievement which related with social acceptance or popularity with peer of both sexes and it was the ability to run a home well, as a mate, as a cook, as a house keeper and as a mother. Secondly, a female could achieve vicariously through the success of their husband or their son.

Tseng’s (1972) research studies concluded that school drop-outs who had low level of achievement motivation and lower accuracy in perceiving the occupational aspiration, choose occupations of types which were of lower level of difficulty, responsibility and prestige.
Harvey (1986) found that men in the traditional career of engineering were higher in achievement motivation than men in the traditional field of accountancy.

These studies established the fact that need achievement was a potential factor affecting vocational maturity of the individual.

Mohan and Gupta (1990) studied factors related to choice of vocational courses. Some of the significant factors identified were – interest, motivation, personal concern, values, level of self-concept, attitudinal aspects, career, maturity and future prospects.

Venketeshwarlu (1991) viewed that in most of the states, the percentage of students who are going into vocational stream is less than 5% of the total enrolment of the school.

3.4 SOCIO–ECONOMIC STATUS AND VOCATIONAL MATURITY

The adolescent’s family background affects his vocational development by its influence on his becoming the kind of person he is, and by the effects of the general socio-economic milieu of the family on the young person’s attitudes, values, opportunities and the reactions of others towards him (Jersild 1957).

The father’s occupation often has a direct influence upon the occupation which his selects. Regoff (1953) found that, although the majority of sons do not enter the same occupation as their fathers yet are more likely to enter their
fathers’ occupation than any other. Findings from another study (Jenson and Kirchner, 1955) indicate that sons tend to follow the general type of occupation at higher socio-economic level than their fathers’.

Social class status of the child has a positive correlation with vocational development (Reynolds and Shister, 1949; Hollingshead, 1949). Gribbons and Lohnes (1964) in their studies found moderate correlations ($r=.50$) for eighth and tenth grade subjects between RVP (Readiness for vocational planning) and socio-economic status. Bukhari (1968) in his study on secondary school programmes in Jordan found that the vocational streams cost ten times more per pupil than academic secondary schooling and that the benefit cost ratio for vocational graduates was 2:1 while for academic secondary graduates the ratio was 3:1. Camp and Rothney (1970) found that parents of all socio-economic levels were interested in the development of their children and took action when specific suggestions based upon the knowledge of children were provided. Vignod (1972) concluded that the higher the socio-economic status of the child, higher was the level of the expected occupation than deserved occupation. Berman (1972) studied the relationship between ethnic group membership and occupation aspiration among graduates of a girl public high school. He observed that ethnic group membership was a factor in the determination of occupation aspiration which affects the maturity of the students. Prenter and Steward (1972) showed that high IQ and superior class room performance were related to vocational aspiration and higher socio-economic status.
Scheri (1972) found little correlation between socio-economic position of the child’s parents and vocational maturity of 11th grade male students. Crosby (1974) found that social class status tends to have very little effect on vocational maturity of students. Huang (1974), while comparing career maturity of American and Chinese students, found that there was no relationship between socio-economic status and career maturity among American population. But in Chinese population, those who belonged to higher socio-economic strata were superior on vocational maturity than the students from the lower group. Anderson (1977), McNamara (1977), Chand (1979) and Kenneth (1980) concluded that socio economic status and vocational maturity were not related to one another.

Urebee (1984) reached the conclusion that it is not certain that vocational education in Nigeria promotes economic development any more than conventional schooling.

Gupta (1990) investigated the implementation of the programme in the schools of the Union Territory of Delhi. The researcher also identified the problems associated with it. It was found that vocational students came from all sections of the society.

3.5 FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND VOCATIONAL MATURITY

Crites (1969) holds that the family in which the individual is raised affects his vocational choice. Generally the sons follow the occupation of
their parents. Jenson and Kirchner (1955) found that there was some association between fathers occupation and sons' vocational choice. Super (1953) found that the identification of children with parents plays a significant role in the selection of an occupation. The inter-personal relationships with parents also affects the vocational choice. This relationship has been confirmed by Nachman (1967). Srivastva and Polo (1970) report that students prefer occupation at a higher level than their fathers' occupational level. Fathers suggest choice of occupation to their sons at a higher level than their own.

As per the findings of National Institute of Education (1980) in rural areas, mothers exert the strongest influence on their daughter's career decisions.

Heins (1982) indicated that family influence and extra family encouragement had been important motivations towards their career choice.

Lee (1984) reported that parental influence has a greater impact on career choice attitude of American students than on that of White students.

Eigen et.al (1987) identified no significant relation between family adaptability and career decisions.

Family was reported as the most helpful and important factor that helps in career decision making by Galbraith and Mariah (1989).

Hoffman and Hofacker (1992) reported that parents were found to be of primary influence on their offsprings' career choice.
Ranhotra (1996) found significant correlation between career decision making and independent variable of family environment.

### 3.6 SEX DIFFERENCES AND VOCATIONAL MATURITY

Vocational development differs in boys and girls because of difference in their social roles. This culture strongly supports one vocational role for female i.e. wife and mother (Jersild, 1957). Males have no such traditionally favoured vocational role. Instead there is the more general role of bread winning for males which may be expressed in many different occupations. The adolescent boys are, therefore, faced with a greater variety of potential kinds of work from which to choose a vocation but they usually do not have to decide whether or not eventually to seek employment (Overstreet and Nicholas, 1957, 1963).

For girls the situation is more ambiguous. It is generally expected that they will find employment after leaving school until their marriage. Although such an employment is often considered as a temporary arrangement, the young women cannot be sure how temporary and how long actually it will be. To the adolescent girls, their matter of vocational preparation and selection may be more important (Jersild, 1963). It is easier for the adolescent girls to learn her traditional role than it is for boys. The mother provides a model for girls who herself is going to become homemaker someday (Parsons, 1942). Young girls, therefore, would be wise to consider occupation which will be rewarding to them from long range as well as from a short range point of view.
It has been suggested by various studies that girls grow vocationally mature earlier than boys of their age. Bloss (1973) conducted a study on the secondary school students. He found that females had significantly higher vocational maturity than did males have. When either sex or grade point average was included as a factor in a two way analysis of variance of vocational maturity scores, the difference among enrollment among group vocational maturity scores were not significant. A significant finding of the study by Christen (1973) was that vocational scores of females seem to be affected by presenting them information concerning the labour market and themselves. Measured vocational maturity scores of males do not seem to be affected by presentation of material dealing with future work world and themselves.

Burkhart (1973) compared the vocational maturity of men and women at their levels of education to assess their similarities and differences. A total sample of 189 males and females from 10th grade students and graduate students were taken. When groups were compared on the basis of sex, significant differences between the means score were found. Rhodes (1973) studied high school students (Grade nine to twelve) in order to see the effects of the sex, the grade level on career development. He found that girls were more vocationally mature than boys; eleventh and twelfth grade students were more vocationally mature than those in the ninth and tenth grade.

Currie (1973), Harkness (1973), Huang (1974), and McNamara (1975) in their studies found that girls were more vocationally mature than boys of their age. Smith (1975) found that even amongst girls, urban girls were superior
to rural girls of their age. Cassie (1977) and Humby (1977) found marked sex differences in vocational maturity among boys and girls. Alexander (1977), Warner (1977) also hold that females were detected to be more mature vocationally than the male students. Markiewicz (1979) investigated that males showed a higher level of vocational exploratory activity than females. This difference was highly pronounced in the technical and trade area and notable in the scientific fields. However, females increase their level of occupational knowledge over males. Romm (1979) supported that both the perception of the vocational career concept and the perception of the housewife mother career concept change significantly throughout adolescence. Burkhart (1980) concluded that female college students, both disabled and non-disabled were more vocationally mature than male college students. Women scored significantly higher than male on vocational maturity variables, self appraisal and problem solving. Kenneth (1980) found differences between males and females on levels of vocational maturity. John (1980) concluded that male students experienced some negative reactions by their peers to the non-traditional choice of vocation. The female students experienced very little negative reactions. Long (1980) in his study concluded that sex was correlated significantly with vocational maturity only for upper grade students.

The purpose of Tinney (1973) was to determine the career maturity development of educable mentally retarded students and to investigate the relationship of sex, ethnic origin, chronological age, mental age, vocational training, grade level and intelligence quotient as independent variables. There were no significant differences found between total score on the Career
Maturity Inventory Attitude Scale when compared with each of the five independent variables (sex, grade, vocational training, mental age, and ethnic group). English (1974) found that there were no differences between male and female response to the experimental condition in terms of gain in vocational maturity. Anderson’s (1976) studies revealed that there existed no sex differences with regard to vocational maturity.

Cook (1983) concluded that men and women differ in their career choices. Vondracek et. al (1990) revealed that males were more career decided than females.

Ram Kumar (1995) referred that a comparative picture of vocationalization programme in various parts of the country as well as status of vocational education programme presents a vivid picture of male dominated courses.

Ranhotra (1996) revealed that boys scored high 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.

3.7 GRADE (CLASS) DIFFERENCES AND VOCATIONAL MATURITY

Holden (1961) in a sample of 109 students from grade VIII to IIth concluded that students tend towards those vocational choices that are most suitable to their scholastic abilities.
3.8 ACADEMIC AND VOCATIONAL STREAMS

In her study on the career decision making as related to career maturity and other variables at +2 stage Ranhotra (1996) concluded that students from the vocational group were found to have better decidedness than their counterparts in the academic group.

3.9 HYPOTHESES

1. Adolescents having high socio-economic status will be more vocationally mature than adolescents belonging to low socio-economic status irrespective of academic and vocational streams.

2. Adolescents having high score on family environment scale will be more vocationally mature than adolescents having low score on family environment scale irrespective of academic and vocational streams.

3. Female adolescents will be more vocationally mature than male adolescents irrespective of academic and vocational streams.

4. Adolescents of 10+2 class will be more vocationally mature than adolescents of 10+1 class irrespective of academic and vocational streams.

5. Adolescents scoring high on intelligence will be more vocationally mature than low scorer irrespective of academic and vocational streams.

6. Adolescents scoring high on achievement motivation will be more vocationally mature than low scorer irrespective of academic and vocational streams.
7. Adolescents scoring higher on personality factors viz. Factor A (reserved vs. outgoing), Factor B (less intelligent vs. more intelligent), Factor C (emotionally less stable vs. emotionally stable), Factor E (humble vs. assertive), Factor F (sober vs. happy-go-lucky), Factor G (expedient vs. conscientious), Factor H (shy vs. socially bold), Factor N (sentimental and simple vs. shrewd and calculating), Factor Q1 (conservative vs. experimenting and critical), Q2 (group dependent vs. self-sufficient), Factor Q3 (indisciplined vs. controlled), will be more vocationally mature than low scorer irrespective of academic and vocational streams.

8. Adolescents scoring lower on personality factors viz. Factor I. (toughminded vs. tenderminded or sensitive), Factor L (Trusting and adaptable vs. suspicious), Factor M (practical and careful vs. imaginative), Factor O (self-assured and confident vs. depressed), and Factor Q4 (relaxed vs. tense) will be more vocationally mature than high scorer irrespective of academic and vocational steams.

9. There will be significant difference in the level of vocational maturity of adolescents belonging to academic and vocational streams and difference will be in favour of adolescents of vocational streams.