REVIEW OF RESEARCH LITERATURE
In this chapter, an attempt has been made to present a review of related studies, with a view to arriving at the trends of results with regards to Intellectual (Intelligence, Verbal Creativity, and Figural Creativity in this study) and Personality correlates of vocational maturity measures, so as to formulate hypotheses for the conduct of the study. The research literature on vocational maturity as reviewed in this section involves western studies as also evidence related to Indian culture although still scant. Review of related studies has also been intended to throw light on intelligence, creativity and personality measures as potential predictors of vocational maturity. Further, studies mostly undertaken after 1955, have been included, as the concept of vocational maturity was crystallized more systematically by Super during this year. The review of intellectual variables including intelligence and creativity as correlates and predictors of vocational maturity, and personality variables as correlates and predictors of vocational maturity, have been presented in separate sections.

VOCATIONAL MATURITY AND INTELLECTUAL VARIABLES:

Intelligence And Vocational Maturity:

The importance of intelligence in vocational development and in achieving vocational maturity has been scrutinized by
many researchers. Probing into the realm of correlational studies, Super and Overstreet (1960) assessed the vocational maturity of 9th grade boys in their Career Pattern Study and demonstrated that the vocational maturity index total and IQ had a positive correlation significant at .01 level. Conclusions drawn from their study were that the more intelligent boys did have a slight tendency to think more about the choices they needed to make, and they accepted more responsibility for choice and planning. On a sample of 116, 12-year old sixth graders, Davis, Hagan and Strouf (1962) tested the influential factors of occupational choices wherein results seem to suggest that more mature choices correlate positively with intelligence thus substantiating Ginzberg's theory (1951). In his research on vocational development inventory, Crites (1969) demonstrated that VDI scores are moderately positively correlated with intelligence.

In early seventeens, more attempts were made to study the relationship of intelligence with vocational maturity. Scheri (1973) studied a sample comprised of 181 subjects (male members of XI grade) and administered vocational development inventory (VDI) to measure their vocational maturity (VM). A coorelational analysis indicated that a linear relationship (+0.46) existed between IQ scores and VM scores. Tinney's (1973) study purported to determine the career
maturity development of educable mentally retarded students (N = 90) and to investigate the relationship of career maturity with intelligence quotient, sex, ethnic origin, etc. Results showed a significant relationship when total scores of CMI-Attitude scale were related with intelligence quotient. On a sample of high school students enrolled in vocational programmes, McGee (1973) observed that VDI scores appears to be related to the developmental characteristics of age and intelligence.

Crites' Career Maturity Inventory stimulated an outpouring of research in mid-seventees (1975-76). While looking for variables, that might be related to variations in individual's career maturity, many investigators studied intelligence as related to career maturity. Lawrence and Brown (1976) in their attempt on a sample of black and white males and females investigated the relationship of career maturity and intelligence along with other variables. Their results confirmed the past findings of a positive significant correlation between career maturity and intelligence. IQ and career maturity correlated at .001 level of significance was reported by Seaward (1977) while comparing 240 females participating in Cooperative Vocational Office Training, Intensive Business Training; and Regular Business Educational Programme in selected high schools in Mississippi. While working with school juvenile offenders (N=100), Wilson (1979) found that career
attitude scores of the CMI showed a significant interaction with I.Q. scores. Further, Wintersteen (1979) also revealed that a strong positive relationship exists between intellectual ability and vocational maturity.

Some Indian researchers also substantiated research efforts for observing the relationship between intelligence and vocational maturity. Chand (1979) while studying correlates of vocational maturity on a sample of B.Ed. students reported that intelligence was found to be positively and significantly correlated with all the seven dimensions of vocational maturity (CCA, r = .36; SA, r = .36; OI, r = .33; GS, r = .30, PL, r = .33; PS, r = .26 and CCC, r = .43). Results of this study thus demonstrated that intelligence may be accepted as a correlate of vocational maturity and that more intelligent students tended to be high on all VM dimensions. Agrawal (1981) constructed CMI (Hindi adaptation of Crites'(CMI) and administered the same to a sample of 8th, 10th, and 12th graders for examining factors related to vocational maturity. Results indicated that career choice attitudes are significantly and positively related to intelligence ( 'r' ranging from .35 to .55). Josan (1983) conducted a study on rural and urban high school students and supported the earlier findings that intelligence is a significant correlate of vocational maturity. Results of this study indicated that intelligence emerged to be a significant determiner of career choice attitudes, problem-solving, and career choice competencies.
In order to test for the existence of significant differences in vocational maturity among different samples, some researchers submitted the data of their respective researches to analysis of variance techniques. In this regard, Maynard and Hansen (1970) administered VDI-Attitude Scale (Crites, 1965) to measure the VM of 5th - 12th graders of Iowa Public Schools being subdivided into 5 groups. A univariate analysis of co-variance, with intelligence controlled as the covariate, was conducted to determine the effect of socio-economic groups and grade levels on vocational maturity. When mean scores reflecting the vocational maturity of different groups were adjusted with intelligence controlled as a covariate, the patterns of the means did not change. Smeda (1973) studied 6th graders of a private school in New York for testing the null hypothesis that the high I.Q. subjects would not score significantly higher than the lower I.Q. subjects on VDI. A two-way factorial analysis of variance design was employed and significant F-ratios were obtained indicating thereby that high I.Q. subjects were found to be more vocationally mature than were the low I.Q. subjects, and thus rejecting the hypothesis of this study. In a somewhat related study by Smith (1975) on rural and urban students of 11th and 12th grades, comparison of the mean VDI-attitude scores of the various groups as identified by levels of academic aptitude was done by employing one way AOV. Results of the study revealed that VDI-Attitude scores increased as academic aptitude
increased from below average, to average, to above average DIQ for both the groups.

The position regarding the developmental trends of intelligence and vocational maturity as revealed by Hollander (1971) on a sample of 5200 students in grades 6th through 12th depicted that increasing intellectual ability assessed by scholastic aptitude measures was associated with increasing vocational decisiveness for males and females. Kelso (1975) on a sample of male high school students (N=1484) ranging from 7th to 12th grades, exhibited that intelligence is a crucial mediating variable in vocational development. Similar patterns were reported by Indian researchers. Parlikar (1973) observed that intelligence was associated with overall vocational maturity of 9th and 10th graders. That high intellectual ability tends to be related to higher maturity in one's attitudes towards career-decision making (grades 8th, 10th and 12th) was depicted in Agrawal's (1981) investigation.

Some of the researchers advanced towards identifying the potential predictors of vocational maturity by employing the multiple regressions and step-wise multiple regressions for data analysis. Intelligence presumed as one of the good predictors of vocational maturity (Super and Overstreet, 1960) was confirmed by some of the empirical evidences. On a sample of 4th, 5th and 6th graders drawn from urban, suburban
and rural communities, Harkness (1973) found that I.Q. scores appeared as the most significant single predictor of a child's occupational knowledge. Lawrence and Brown (1976) also arrived at a conclusion that the only predictor which contributed significantly to the prediction of career choice attitudes, for the subgroup black males (R=0.32) and white females (R=0.47) was found to be intelligence. Similar findings were reported by Pavlak (1981) and Chodzinski (1983) who concluded that intelligence emerged as one of the best predictors of vocational maturity. Likewise, a study conducted in India by Agrawal (1981) reported that intelligence is one of the potential predictor of vocational maturity measures. Mintzer's (1976) investigation was undertaken to examine the correlates of vocational development of secondary school students (N=480) of 7th, 9th and 12th grades. This study sought to test the validity of the proposals of several theorists by asking questions (a) can the vocational maturity of secondary school students be predicted from their scores on tests measuring their self-concept, sex-role identification and intelligence, (b) was intelligence a component of the vocational development of secondary school students, or perhaps another measure of their vocational maturity? Results of this study indicated that intelligence was found to be statistically significant but a weak correlate, and was also a weak predictor of vocational maturity lacking any systematic developmental trend.
Probing further from correlational studies, very few investigations employed the use of factor-analysis. In Chand's study (1979), intelligence (DIQ) contributed significant original first factor (.549) and varimax first factor (.455) loadings. Results of Josan's (1983) study on examining socio-psychological differentials of vocational maturity between rural and urban high school students, also exhibited that for the total sample, factor IV named as 'low scholastic mental ability' contributing 9.16% variance was shared by verbal intelligence (= -.535) and non-verbal intelligence (= -.596) along with personality factor A (= -.746). Also factor V (8.08%) shared significant loadings on verbal intelligence (= .506); self-appraisal (= -.709) and personality factor Q3 (= .334) and was named as 'mental capacity'.

Although the empirical trend of evidences has led to visualize that intelligence is significantly related to vocational maturity, yet scanty efforts are traceable to depict a factor analytic picture of this relationship and more so to denote intelligence as a potential predictor of vocational maturity. Thus an attempt in this direction based upon factor analytic and regressional approaches will be worthwhile.
Creativity And Vocational Maturity:

A large body of research findings indicates that individuals who score high on divergent thinking tests show certain personality traits that distinguish them from average population. Some of these personality characteristics in turn, can be expected to influence the individual's world of work including his occupational choices, aspirations and maturity. Mainly for reasons of relative newness of both the concepts i.e. creativity and vocational maturity, the research evidence attempting to relate these concepts is very scanty. The traceable efforts are restricted to the relationships of creativity to vocational choices and aspirations rather than vocational maturity. The review of these studies is being undertaken simply for their indirect bearing (as vocational maturity reflects realistic vocational choices) in developing insight into possible relationships of vocational maturity and creativity so as to provide some direction in the formulation of related hypotheses.

Ziller (1957) obtained an index of utility for risk or risk taking tendency closely associated with creativity from an objective device administered to college sophomores at the University of Delaware. The comparison of risk scores of those who had made various vocational choices, showed that the group having the highest mean risk score had chosen
sales work, followed by mechanical engineering, education, business, administration, and other types of engineering. The lowest group consisted of those who were undecided concerning their vocational choice.

It may be due to risk taking tendencies that high creatives also reflect unusual career choices. Getzels and Jackson's (1959) data in their monumental work on creativity and intelligence relationship throw some light upon the problem of "unrealistic" career choices. Their results indicated that while sixty two percent of the highly creatives chose unconventional occupations, only sixteen percent of the highly intelligent subjects chose such occupations, and eighty-four per cent of them chose "conventional" occupations. While studying about career-choice problems of creatives, Roe (1959) maintains that all may go well as long as the individual is climbing in his career and still has hopes of solving his problem. When the apex is reached, he may experience depression and become unproductive.

Nichols and Holland (1963) revealed that creative students more often expressed preferences for unconventional occupations, or expressed more unrealistic occupational preferences than did less creative students. Their study thus confirms the findings of Getzels and Jackson (1962) in their classic investigation of creativity and intelligence in high
school students; wherein they showed that creative children's vocational choice seemed to be influenced less by the social status value of the various occupations, non-creative individual's choice was related strongly to the prestige of the vocational field.

In an extensive clinical study of ten exceptionally creative adolescent girls, Schaefer (1970) reported that they showed their liking for writers, artists, teachers, actors, zoologists, and other similar professions. Torrance (1971) observed that most of the creative individuals in the world of work have attained distinctions in one particular field only e.g., science, poetry or music. Administering Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking, figural Form-A, and a questionnaire of vocational interests, classified into Roe's classification, under controlled conditions to 149, X-grade students, Tanpraphat (1976) observed that students interested in arts and entertainment possessed higher creativity than students interested in groups like; social service, technology, organization, business contact, science and general culture.

Research on "cross-cultural studies of creative development in seven-selected societies" was conducted by Torrance (1973). He asked children in each of the samples to indicate their occupational choices or aspirations. In obtaining the data concerning occupational choices and aspirations, it was
hypothesized that the freedom to grow creatively will be influenced by the freedom of children to consider a diversity of occupations and to consider the creative occupations as possibilities. At a gross, general level, the occupational choice data and the teachers' responses to the ideal Pupil Check-list seem to be related to the overall level of creative functioning of the children within a culture. Relationship of divergent thinking (creativity) and vocational preferences was investigated by Veronika and Nachmias (1977) on a sample of Israeli High School children (N = 1000). While testing the relationship of cognitive (creativity) and emotional factors to concurrent fields of interests and future vocational preferences, results obtained in the study indicated the existence of relationship between scores on the fluency of association test of divergent thinking (i.e. creativity) and those on the questionnaires of both intellectual interests and vocational choice, thereby supporting a large body of previous research showing that a divergent thinking style is associated with a wider range of interest. It was depicted further that high school students who scored high on a test of divergent thinking, chose fields of intellectual and occupational interest over a wider range of possibilities than their classmates who scored low on divergent thinking.
On the basis of these findings, it was asserted that these results may provide useful information for the school or vocational counsellor, increasing his efficiency in helping the students make both curricular and later vocational choices. Yet another study (Marilyn, 1979) revealed that career commitment was strikingly intense in case of highly creative women.

Recently, Torrance (1980) after conducting a '22-Year longitudinal study' on "Growing-Up Creatively Gifted", derived five indices of creative achievement from questionnaire responses. One of the indices, thus described was - ratings of the creative quality of the aspirations and future career images. Results of this study indicated significant Pearson- product moment coefficient of correlation between the creativity index and future career images.

Results of Toong's (1982) study pertaining to relationship of creativity and vocational aspirations, were found to be similar to those of Getzels and Jackson (1962) that high creativity leads to unconventional vocational aspirations.

However, on the basis of research, available in this direction, it is difficult to point out findings to identify consistent trends. Hence, to draw conclusions with regards to vocational maturity as related to creativity and to add
to the theory of vocational maturity in its relationship with creativity, an attempt into exploration of vocational maturity and creativity relationship is worthwhile.

VOCATIONAL MATURITY AND PERSONALITY VARIABLES:

After having examined the relationship between vocational maturity and intellectual variables, it is proposed to review the research studies concerning vocational maturity and personality characteristics in this section. Since total personality often appears too complex for measurement, much effort has been expanded in breaking it up, into components and to study the traits. A 'trait' is a 'mental structure' an inference that is made from observed behaviour to account for regularity or consistency in this behaviour (Cattell, 1950). In practice, most studies of personality and occupations have either explicitly stated or implicitly assumed that personality is made up of constellation of traits, more or less integrated into functioning unit (Schaffer and Shoben, 1956).

Since 1950, Cattell's long continued and widely documented research into personality factors represents the single most-monumental effort to operationalise those sources of individual differences often referred to as 'temperament' or personality traits into vocational terms (Howarth, 1976). It is assumed that because of the inherent differences in the roles that occupations require people to play, the ideal and personal characteristics of members of various occupational groups vary. At the same time recognizing that most
people are not rigidly shaped at the time of occupational entry, it is also assumed that exposure to the activities and climate of any given occupation will exert an influence upon an individual's manner of behaviour and personality which in its own turn may shape vocational choice behaviour of the individual. Thus initiated, increased efforts in identification of distinctive personality characteristics in relation to developing vocational choices, vocationally mature behaviour, and in membership of various careers has become a matter of growing interest in research.

Fundamentally, Cattell and his co-researchers have made a significant attempt in identifying the personality characteristics of individuals choosing different vocations. Cattell (1950) observed that greater desurgency (F⁻) seems to go with the occupational choice of physicist, farmer, artist, mathematician, and accountant, and greater surgency (F⁺) with the choice of advertising man, lawyer, and school superintendent. Analysing biographies of scientists, Cattell (1954, 1963) further concluded that scientific researchers were generally found to be schizothyma (A⁻), withdrawn, skeptical, internally pre-occupied, precise and reliable. Their average level of ego-strength and emotional stability (G⁺) was distinctly high. They were also characterized by high level of anxiety; irritability, and excitability and
were found to be more desurgent ($F^-$) as compared to artists, businessman and others. A high general inhibition combined with high level of resource and adaptability was also noticeable in them. In a similar attempt to compare personality patterns of research-scientists in American Universities with those of University teachers and administrators Cattell and Drevidahl (1955) found research-scientists to be significantly high on factor of schizothymic ($A^-$) and self-sufficiency ($Q^+$) as contrasted with university group of teachers and administrators.

The study on 144 physicists, biologists, and psychologists led Cattell (1959) to arrive at three conclusions: (i) the personality profile of these researchers differed significantly from that of average man in as much as they were more schizothymic, intelligent, dominant, inhibited, emotionally sensitive and radical, (ii) the researchers' personality profile differed from those of person's of equal general intelligence who were outstanding in administration and teaching in the sense that former were more schizothymic, less emotionally stable, more radical and uniformly lower on all primary personality factors of extraversion; and finally (iii) the researchers' profiles when compared with those of person's eminent in literature and decorative arts were found to be more schizothymic, intelligent, dominant,
desurgent, radical and self-sufficient. Yet some more studies by Drevdahl and Cattell (1958) on artists and writers and by Cross et al. (1967) on creative artists confirm Cattell's (1959) findings. Cross et al. (1967) further remarked that artists differ on twelve out of fifteen factors (intelligence excluded) on 16 PF particularly, being more dominant ($E'$) and intellectually self-sufficient ($Q_2$). One of the largest differences has been noticed on artistic or bohemian tendency and unconcern ($M$).

The importance of personality factors in vocational choice is further well established by Roe (1956), Super (1957); Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963). Segal (1961) claimed that writers would be more sensitive to emotional situation, have less compulsive defenses, be skillful in handling emotional situations, show more hostile responses, be able to tolerate ambiguity better than accountants. Siegelman and Peck (1960) found differences in personality traits of chemists, ministers and officers. Roe and Siegelman (1964) revealed significant differences on factor A between engineers and social workers.

It was observed that Birdie and Hood (1963) investigated the relationship between certain personality factors and students' post high school plans. Both boys and girls planning to attend college indicated greater social needs
and more social competencies than the students planning to enter jobs. Bohn (1966) attempted to understand the vocational maturity and its significance to personality variables. Results of the study reported that individuals with high interest maturity scores would have need profiles appearing more mature than individuals with low interest maturity scores.

Bartlett's (1968) study was an attempt to develop a better understanding of vocational maturity, as defined by Crites (1961), and its relationship to personality variables. The results of this study suggest that the development of vocational behaviour is analogous to the development of mature personality characteristics. Implications of the findings thus illustrates that the vocational maturity scale of the VDI appears to be related significantly to personality characteristics, such as self-confidence, achievement, dominance, autonomy, abasement and deference. Absement and deference were inversely related to vocational maturity scores. It was further reported by Bartlett that the personality profiles of MDTA trainees with high VM scores compared to those with low VM scores, demonstrated that the high scorers are more mature. In general they are more assertive persistent, goal-oriented, forceful and independent. Conversely they are self-critical and less persevering. These results are consistent with Bohn's findings (1966) who reported a vocationally more mature person as one who is goal-directed, more realistic, and more independent.
Chapin (1975) examined the personality correlates of vocational maturity on 321 students in grades XI and XII of high school, and XIII and XIV of college. Vocational maturity was measured by using Crites' VDI and personality traits were measured by Forms A and B of Cattell's 16 PF questionnaire. Personality traits of vocationally mature students were compared with those of vocationally immature students, separately for males and females. Stepwise regression analysis represented the relationship between vocational maturity and personality factors as G (conscientiousness), L (trusting/adaptable), and factor M (imaginative). In this study, personality accounted for 34% of the variance in vocational maturity. Yet another study was undertaken by Bergwall (1975) to determine the effects of personality adjustment on vocational maturity of XI grade adolescents. It specifically investigated Super's theoretical construct which states that vocational adjustment (maturity) is linked to personality adjustment and changes in one aspect of adjustment, personal or vocational, affects the other. The Attitude Scale of CMI was administered to determine the VM level of 425 adolescents in high school in northern Indiana. The correlation between personality adjustment and vocational maturity is found to be significant, the correlation coefficient explaining only 6.75% of the variance in vocational maturity.
On an Indian sample of 1000 female undergraduates in Rajasthan, India; Kathuria (1974) did not find any significant difference on the anxiety scores of vocationally decisive and undecisive. Chauhan (1975) studied a sample of 100 male and 100 female undergraduates. Results of the study indicated negative correlations between extraversion and vocational maturity (Vocational Preference Inventory) for males, whereas opposite was the case for females. Yet in another Indian study, Patni (1975) collected data from undergraduate students in Rajasthan, and revealed low positive correlations between rigidity and VM for first year students and for third year students a negative significant correlation between these two variables emerged. Also positive significant correlation was found between self-control and vocational maturity. Significant differences appeared in the occupational choices of extraverts and introverts when Gupta (1977) studied occupational choices of 300 students of both sexes, ages 18-20 years.

Although mainly directed to pointing at some variables which restrict individuals in their career decision-making, research efforts during the year 1976 also continued to focus upon variables that have proved helpful to individuals in choosing from career alternatives. Ward, Cunningham and Wakefield (1976) compared VPI scores of education undergraduates with their scores on the 16 PF questionnaire.
Significant interrelationships were found between the 16 PF variable I (tough minded vs. tender minded), M (practical vs. imaginative) and VPI variables E (Enterprising), A(Artistic), and C (Conventional). Other studies in which VPI types were related to other personality measures included Jones, Hansen and Putnam (1976) study of self-concept and Kunce and Kappes' (1976) study of students', preference for structured vs. unstructured college environments. However, McCaffrey (1980) when stepped towards determining whether relationships exist between career maturity and vocational personality type variables as assessed by Holland's typology, the results obtained revealed that among students classified by Holland's Vocational personality (VPI) types, no career maturity differences existed. Students classified as possessing high, medium, low or undecided congruence between vocational personality type and academic major had different levels of career maturity in the exploratory stage.

The use of Cattell's 16 PF questionnaire and 14-factors HSPQ has been made by some Indian researchers too for examining the nature of relationship of personality traits to vocational maturity. Chand (1979) attempted to identify the correlates of vocational maturity and employed Cattell's 16 PF questionnaire as a measure of personality. Correlation matrix of the study revealed that Factor B (intelligence), Factor C (emotional stability), Factor O (Anxiety), Factor Q2
(self-sufficiency) and Factor $Q_3$ (self-control) have significant correlations with various measures of vocational maturity. Similar picture was depicted by principal-axes components and varimax rotated factors. Yet, in another study, Agrawal (1981) substantiated research efforts for studying some factors related to vocational maturity and made use of Cattell's HSPQ as a measure of personality characteristics. As theorized earlier (Crites, 1965) results of Agrawal's study revealed a significant positive relationship of career choice attitudes with personality factors $A$ (sociability), $C$ (ego-strength), $F$ (surgency), $H$ (adventurousness), $Q_2$ (self-sufficiency), $Q_3$ (self-control), and a negative correlation with factor $D$ (excitability), $I$ (sensitivity) and $Q_4$ (ergic tension). Except for factors $J$ (passive individualism) and factor $O$ (anxiety) all other personality factors were found to be related significantly positively and negatively (in some) to different measures of career choice competencies also. In a study conducted by Josan (1983), it was found that personality factors $B^+$ (Intelligence), $E^-$ (Submissive), $G^+$ (Super Ego-Strength), $H^-$ (Shy), $O^-$ (Untroubled) and $Q_2^+$ (Self-Sufficient) appeared as significant correlates of vocational maturity, while $A^+$ (warm-hearted), $D^-$ (Phlegmatic), $F^-$ (Desurgency), $I^-$ (tough-minded), $J^+$ (Internally restrained), $Q_3^+$ (Controlled) and $Q_4^-$ (Relaxed) were found to be insignificantly related to vocational maturity.
Probing further from the realm of correlational studies, it has been observed that just a few studies have used discriminant analysis for analyzing the data for establishing personality correlates of vocational maturity measures. To mention these, Elton and Rose (1967) made an extensive study comprising of dependent variables (viz. vocational choices of 637 freshmen females) in a multiple-discriminant analysis and independent variables consisted of five personality factors (as measured by Omnibus Personality Inventory) and a measure of scholastic aptitude (as measured by American College Test). The two dimensions which emerged from the discriminant analysis indicate both intellectual and personality differences between the various vocational choices. The importance of personality differences was partially supported by a similar analysis of two groups of female graduating seniors. Another study that employed discriminant analysis to analyze the data was conducted by Smith (1980), to determine the relationships between the VM and manifest personality needs of black and white female college freshmen enrolled at the university of Alabama. Results of this research culminated in concluding that manifest personality needs were not significantly related to vocational maturity in white freshmen college women, but they were found to be significantly related to vocational maturity in black freshmen college women. Needs for autonomy
and dominance, along with the 'Information and Decision Making' subscale of vocational maturity, correlated significantly with a canonical variate. Two attitudinal subscales of vocational maturity, Planning Orientation and Resources for Exploration, correlated in a negative manner. The findings produced in this investigation add to the expansion of the needs approach to career development. Clearer identification of individual needs, as well as identification of basic styles characterizing individuals, seemingly would lead to increasingly accurate predictions of vocationally mature behaviour.

On perusal of the related research studies in the field of personality and vocational maturity, employing a wide variety of procedures and methods - biographical data, experiments, psychological testing, clinical observation, and statistical analyses it is observed that although a considerable research has been carried out in the area of investigating whether personality characteristics are related to vocational choices, vocational aspirations and preferences leading to some conclusive results yet as far as the relationship between personality variables and vocational maturity is concerned, evidence appears to be very inconclusive. Further more lack of enough evidences (barring Agrawal's 1981 study) in support of stating personality variables as potential predictors of vocational maturity has warranted the need for further investigations. Agrawal reported
personality factors of sociability (A), adventurousness(H), super ego-strength(E), self-control(Q₃) and surgency(O) as significant variables in the prediction of career maturity for both boys and girls, although as compared to intelligence and SES, personality variables contributed less to the variance in the criterion measures of this study.

The research on vocational maturity, its intellectual and personality correlates and predictors, as mentioned earlier, cannot be claimed to be conclusive, hence a promise for further work in this area.