

**A STUDY OF
OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS OF COLLEGE
STUDENTS IN ERNAKULAM DISTRICT
AS RELATED TO THEIR SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND**

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by

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C E R T I F I C A T E

Certified that the thesis 'A STUDY OF OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS OF COLLEGE STUDENTS IN ERNAKULAM DISTRICT AS RELATED TO THEIR SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND' is the record of bona fide research work carried out by Fr.K.V. VARGHESE under my supervision. The thesis is worth submitting for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy under the faculty of Social Sciences.


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D E C L A R A T I O N

I declare that this thesis is the record of bona fide research work carried out by me under the supervision of Dr. Jose T. Payyappilly, Professor, School of Management Studies. I further declare that this thesis has not previously formed the basis for award of any degree, diploma, associateship/fellowship or other similar title of recognition.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A study of the occupational aspirations of the college youth is an important topic, both for the individual and for the nation. By aspiring for and choosing the right occupations, the individuals will enjoy their world of work and the nation will flourish through the efforts of the dedicated working men and women.

To achieve this task, obviously, it becomes important to understand the various factors related to the occupational aspirations of the college youth. This effort will be of great help to the students in understanding their possible success fields of occupation as well as to gain better internal adequacy for upward social mobility.

Within the last few decades, social scientists have become increasingly concerned with factors underlying the occupational aspirations of individuals at all levels of society. Sociologists such as Miller and Form (1951) and Caplow

(1954) stress forces in our social structure as the major determinants of occupational choice; economists such as Harris (1949) stress manpower economics and psychologists emphasise the traits and needs of the individual.

In one of the first books on occupational sociology, Miller and Form (1951) state that accident is the deciding factor in the determination of the occupation of most workers. By accident they meant the accident of birth which establishes family, caste, nationality, social class, residential area and also educational and cultural opportunity.

Caplow (1954) discussing vocational choice in his book "Sociology of Work" says that we know little of how people choose their vocations. He says, parents, particularly of the middle class, project their ambitions on their children, want them to be mobile upward socially through education and reject the semiskilled and unskilled occupations. Caplow also believes that children "inherit" the occupational level of their parents and they choose a vocation within a restricted range of occupations that is acceptable to a given class.

Much of what is known as vocational aspiration comes from research done by psychologists. Vivian H. Hewer (1963)

says that of all the theories dealing with vocational aspirations, the trait and factor theories have been most helpful. This is because through good interest tests students can understand their goals and motivations; for interest is a stable trait and man's interests persist over the years and interest has lifetime meaning in choosing an occupation.

Meaning of Occupation

It is quite useful to enquire and find out the element common to the activities of carpenters and statesmen, teachers and students, engineers and doctors, composers and business executives, fighting soldiers and professional boxers in the ring and toiling farmers and computer scientists. The identical structure of such widely disparate performances does not show on the surface and is not easily grasped by a logical definition.

Paul Schrecker defines work and attributes a common element in all the occupations by the following definition: "Every action on the contrary, rightly called work actually changes, be it but infinitesimally, one or several fields of civilization" (Work and History, pp. 13-18, 1948). It is clear that all acts called work operate some change in the

field of civilization. Mere transformation of potential energy into movement by human action and vice versa, is therefore not a sufficient criterion for work. Thus many instances of activity under certain conditions may be called work, but under other would be called play or sport or pastime. The professional football player, violinist, singer, or actor is certainly working while playing football, performing a concerto, singing for a film or acting a drama. The amateur player, violinist, songster, or actor is just as certainly considered not to be working, says Schrecker. Now where does the difference lie? As expressed in the definition of work, by the professional activity at least one or even two or more provinces of civilization undergo change-namely, at least the economic and in most cases, the juridical. The professional acquires by his activity the right to a fee, which changes the distribution of money or other goods, in the world and normally by his activity he fulfils stipulated obligations. If the relevant province remains 'in status quo ante' after work is done, the expenditure of energy simply means a change in nature; it is not an element in history. Here what is important is the viewpoint with which an activity is done and so it makes no difference whether the purposed effect of the action is

achieved or not. Therefore, all work implies that the object is in some way perfectible through expenditure of energy in fulfilment of a norm.

Berger on Work

Berger had a thorough study on the meaning of work in human society. In a collection of essays edited by him we find three ideologies of work: (1) that work is identity, fulfilment; (2) that work is oppressive, an indignity, that it threatens self-identification and (3) that work is a grey region between these two poles, which man puts up with for the sake of other things which are more important (Berger, 1964).

Work as Self-Expression or for Payment

Weiss and Kahn studied, people from different socio-economic statuses, what distinguished work from what was not work and three fourths of them defined work either as activity which was not enjoyed, or as activity which was scheduled for and paid for. They further saw that those people whose work relates them directly to people consider work as opportunity for self-expression, recognition and sense of competence,

while others as the factory workers tend to be concerned only with whether pay and working conditions are as good as can be expected (Weiss and Kahn, 1966).

Meaning of Aspiration

Aspirations are the goals a person sets for himself in tasks which have intense personal significance or in which he is ego-involved. Aspirations must be considered from three points of view: first, what performance or aspect of it the individual considers important and desirable, or what he wants to do; second, how well he expects to perform especially in the important aspects of the activity and third, how important the performance is to him either as a whole or in its different aspects (Cronbach, 1963).

Kinds of Aspirations

Psychologists divide aspirations into three major categories: Positive and Negative, Immediate and Remote and Realistic and Unrealistic (Hurlock, 1974).

Positive and Negative Aspirations

Positive aspirations are oriented towards achieving

success and negative aspirations are for avoiding failure. When a person is having history of failures he is likely to be satisfied with negative aspirations for maintaining present status and avoiding a downward slide in the social scale.

Immediate and Remote Aspirations

Immediate aspirations are derived from the person's wishes at the moment, from success or failure from the immediate past and from the social pressures placed on the person as he forms his aspirations. During early childhood, we find mainly immediate aspirations as when the baby purposefully reaches for a toy held before him, expecting to grasp it. Remote aspirations are influenced by interest and aptitude, cultural pressures and past successes and failures in the areas concerned. If an adolescent says "When I will reach college I will study for medicine" he is expressing his remote aspiration.

Realistic and Unrealistic Aspirations

Realistic aspirations are based upon one's potentialities and favourable socio-economic conditions that will help him to actualize those potentialities. Unrealistic

aspirations are wishful thinking not based upon his potentialities or the socio-economic conditions. People with unrealistic aspirations will meet with failure and disappointment. Realistic aspirations are also called real aspirations. Real aspiration implies what youth are expecting to achieve or planning about. Unrealistic aspirations may be called ideal aspirations. Ideal aspiration refers to what youth would like to achieve. The causes of unrealistic aspirations found by psychologists are uncontrolled imagination, the mass media and ignorance due to inexperience (Perrone 1967); Thompson(1966); Ulrich (1966).

Occupational Aspirations

Occupational aspiration of youth is the goal set by youth with regard to his future career.

Major Theories of Occupational Aspirations

Life on earth is unimaginable without some work. Food must at least be gathered and prepared and some shelter is needed. In our times all those who are working and not working do have the experience that there is more to an occupation than making a living. Sociological as well as psychological

studies are practically unanimous on the point that social and economic status of individuals and families depend more upon the occupation than upon anything else. Let us examine the major theories of occupational aspirations:

Work and Class Consciousness

Centers (1949) believes that a person's status and role with respect to the economic processes of society imposes upon him certain attitudes, values and interests relating to his role and status in the political and economic sphere. The status and role of the individual in relation to the means of production and exchange of goods and services gives rise in him to a consciousness of membership in some social class which shares those attitudes, values and interests. "A man's way of getting his livelihood demonstrates much of his waking life and it is out of the forces acting upon him in its economic sphere that class consciousness has been seen to exercise. That it structures itself primarily around the economic self-interest born of status and role and the forces of economic circumstances is a wholly reasonable discovery" (Centers, "The Psychology of Social Classes", Princeton N.J., Princeton University Press, 1949).

Work and Need Satisfaction

In the theory of occupations developed by Abraham Maslow (1948), individual is seen as an integrated organized whole and motivation of work is seen as need satisfaction. Maslow arranges the needs of human being in a hierarchy of prepotency. The prepotent needs are more urgent and insistent than the others under equal deprivation and until the prepotent ones are relatively satisfied the others do not emerge as consistent motivators of behaviour.

The basic needs are: (1) the physiological needs, (2) the safety needs, (3) the need for belongingness and love, (4) the need for importance, respect, self-esteem, independence, (5) the need for information, (6) the need for understanding, (7) the need for beauty, (8) the need for self-actualization.

The more the possibility for satisfying higher needs in this hierarchy, the more a person will enjoy freedom and social status. Thus occupations and the needs satisfied through them determine the happiness and social status of an individual. The need hierarchy theory of occupation presented by Maslow helps us to understand why occupation

is so important in the life of an individual for happy and fuller life (Maslow, 1954).

Trait and Factor Theory

This was the first structural model of occupational choice. According to this theory each individual possesses certain rather stable psychological traits that are inhibited or developed as a result of person-environment interaction. Certain occupations require more or less of these traits for satisfactory performance. The task of occupational choice making, then, is to match person to jobs, so that individual needs will be met and satisfactory job performance will result. The Dawis, Lofquist and Weiss (1968a) Work Adjustment Theory goes on to suggest that job change occurs when either the job is being performed unsatisfactorily or the individual's needs are not being met.

This mold is comprehensive because it applies equally well to men and women, nonminorities and minorities. Trait-oriented vocational psychologists suggest that biological, geographical and sociological factors affect the occupational aspirations and choice.

Roe's Need Theory

Roe's theory of occupational aspirations and choice finds relationship between certain early childhood environments, need development, personality and job choice. Although her early work studied particularly artists and scientists, now it is a general theory.

Roe says, each of us is born with certain psychological predispositions and a cluster of physiological and physical strengths and weaknesses. These interact with certain environmental conditions and a need hierarchy develops. Each of us tries to meet those needs in a particular type of work environment (Roe, 1957).

Even though Roe has recognized the importance of socio-demographic variables in career choice, she has not developed an adequate statement about how this interaction occurs. This is a weakness of this theory.

Structural Theory by Holland

John Holland's structural theory of career choice (1973a) was developed from a number of research studies by

himself and others. His theory is based on the assumption that vocational interests are one aspect of what is commonly called personality and that the description of an individual's vocational interests also describes the individual's personality. Holland's theory is structural-interactive because it provides an explicit link between various personality characteristics and corresponding job titles and because it organizes the massive data about people and job.

Holland (1982a) describes what the different structural interactive approaches have in common. (1) 'The choice of an occupation is an expression of personality and not a random event although chance plays a role. (2) The members of an occupational group have similar personalities, they will respond to many situations and problems in similar ways. (3) Occupational achievement, stability and satisfaction depend on congruence between one's personality and the job environment.

The four basic assumptions underlying Holland's theory are the following (1973a):

- (1) "Most persons can be categorised as one of six types: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising or conventional.

- (2) There are six kinds of environments: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising or conventional.
- (3) People search for environments that will let them exercise their skills and abilities, express their attitudes and values and take on agreeable problems and roles (Birds of a feather flock together).
- (4) A person's behaviour is determined by an interaction between his personality and the characteristics of his environment.

According to Holland a person is oriented towards some occupation as opposed to others because of a special life history of activities, competencies, self-perceptions, values and so forth. Consequently if we desire to change the vocational aspirations of a person or a special group we must change the experience of people before they arrive at the age when they must go to work (1973a).

Bordin's Psychoanalytic Theory

This theory is a theory of life development with an emphasis on careers. He sees relationship between biological needs or drives and family atmosphere, which results in a

certain personality types. These ideas are somewhat similar to those of Roe and Holland, but Bordin's ideas are based on a completely different psychological theory. Bordin believes that the primary determinant of personality development is the child's identification with both parents which is a slight deviation from traditional psychoanalytic thinking. The quality of the identification depends on mutuality, the relationship between the parents and the child. When high mutuality exists, external demands are fused with desire to get satisfaction through play and thus work can become a happy, playful experience. Lacking mutuality, work may be defined as drudgery. The needs stemming from biological drives and identification emerge; some become prepotent and dictate life role selection including career.

Bordin also helps us to understand the nature of career indecision. Doubts about self, lack of clarity of needs and a polarity between spontaneity and work may cause paralysis in career development (Bordin, 1943).

This theory does not give importance to socio-demographic variables. Implicitly he assumes that his theory is a global one that applies generally to males and females,

various ethnic groups and races and perhaps to persons from various socio-economic groups as well.

Ginzberg's Theory

Ginzberg and others proposed a model of career development and advocated the idea that occupational choice making requires a series and sometimes a number of simultaneous decisions instead of a single choice point. Ginzberg is focusing on family status and income on career aspirations. He also alludes socio-economic variables; but he failed to generate hypothesis about the relationship of these to career choice. He has also failed to relate sociological, psychological and economic variables to problematic career development patterns and this is a defect in developing career counselling (Ginzberg, 1970).

Although his theory fails on many aspects including comprehensiveness and integration of propositions, it helps us to have the importance of the socio-economic variables in the career development process.

Theory by Carter

Carter, H.D. developed a theory that emphasises

personal dynamics as well as environmental realities. He came to the conclusion that vocational attitudes develop in the attempt to make a practical adjustment to environmental conditions. The external realities of the individual's familial and social situation and his own capacities, needs and motives limit the possible solutions open to him.

Carter further says that if there are serious discrepancies between his own capacities and the requirements of the vocation, he must become oriented towards a different occupational group. And slowly there emerges in him a pattern of vocational interests which becomes closely identified with the self and forms a basis for many decisions and a guide for long time planning (Carter, 1940).

Super's Developmental Theory

Super, a pioneer in the career choice theory gives a set of twelve propositions related to career development (Super, 1957).

1. People differ in their abilities, interests and personalities.
2. People are qualified by virtue of those characteristics, each for a number of occupations.

3. Each of these occupations requires a characteristic pattern of abilities, interests and personality traits, with tolerances wide enough to allow both some variety of occupations for each individual and some variety of individuals in each occupation.
4. Vocational preferences and competencies, the situations in which people live and work and hence their self-concepts change with time and experience, although self-concepts are generally fairly stable from later adolescence until late maturity making choice and adjustment a continuous process.
5. This process of change may be summed in a series of life stages characterised as those of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline.
6. The nature of career pattern-that is, the occupational level attained and the sequence, frequency and duration of trial and stable jobs - is determined by the individual's parental socio-economic level, mental ability and personality characteristics and by the opportunities to which he or she is exposed.
7. Development through the life stages can be guided, partly

by facilitating the maturing of abilities and interests and partly by aiding in reality testing and in the development of self-concept.

8. The process of career development is essentially that of developing and implementing self-concept. It is a synthesizing and compromising process, in which the self-concept is a product of the interaction of the inherited aptitudes, physical make-up, opportunity to play various roles and the evaluation of the extent to which the results of role-playing meet with the approval of superiors and fellows.
9. The process of synthesis of compromise between individual and social factors, between self-concept and reality is one of role playing, whether the role is played in fantasy, in the counselling interview or in real life activities such as classes, clubs, part-time work and entry jobs.
10. Work satisfaction and life satisfaction depend on the extent to which the individual finds adequate outlets for abilities, interests, personality traits and values.

They depend on establishment in a type of work, a work situation and a way of life in which one can play the kind of role that growth and exploratory experiences have led one to consider congenial and appropriate.

11. The degree of satisfaction people attain from work is proportionate to the degree to which they have been able to implement self-concept.
12. Work and occupation provide a focus of personality organization for most men and many women, although for some persons this focus is peripheral, incidental, or even nonexistent and other foci such as leisure activities and home making, are central.

Although Super has given the chief factors associated with occupational choice in his twelve propositions, there is the criticism that Super has not clearly brought out the specific socio-economic variables influencing the occupational choice and so further research should help to explore the extent of influence of socio-economic variables on occupational choice. For example, Osipow has the following observation. "Super still must devise a way to include economic and social factors which may influence career

decisions in a more direct way than the events described in the theory currently do" (Theories of Career Development, 1973, p. 168).

Determinants of Occupational Aspirations

Studying and analysing more directly the socio-economic determinants of career choice we can have effective prediction of career development and thus career aspirations. The researcher attempts to fill this gap and to bring out the concrete relationships between occupational aspirations and socio-economic variables.

Thus to answer the question as to why and how youth aspire for different occupations we arrive at the theory of social structure which has a dual significance. On the one hand it influences the personality development of the chooser; on the other hand, it defines the socio-economic conditions in which the choice is made.

This two fold effect of social structure is schematically presented by Peter M. Blau, John W. Gustad and Richard Jessor, a psychologist, economist and sociologist respectively (1956).

The model presented by them (Fig. 1) gives a theoretical background for assessing the influence of personal as well as socio-economic variables on occupational aspirations.

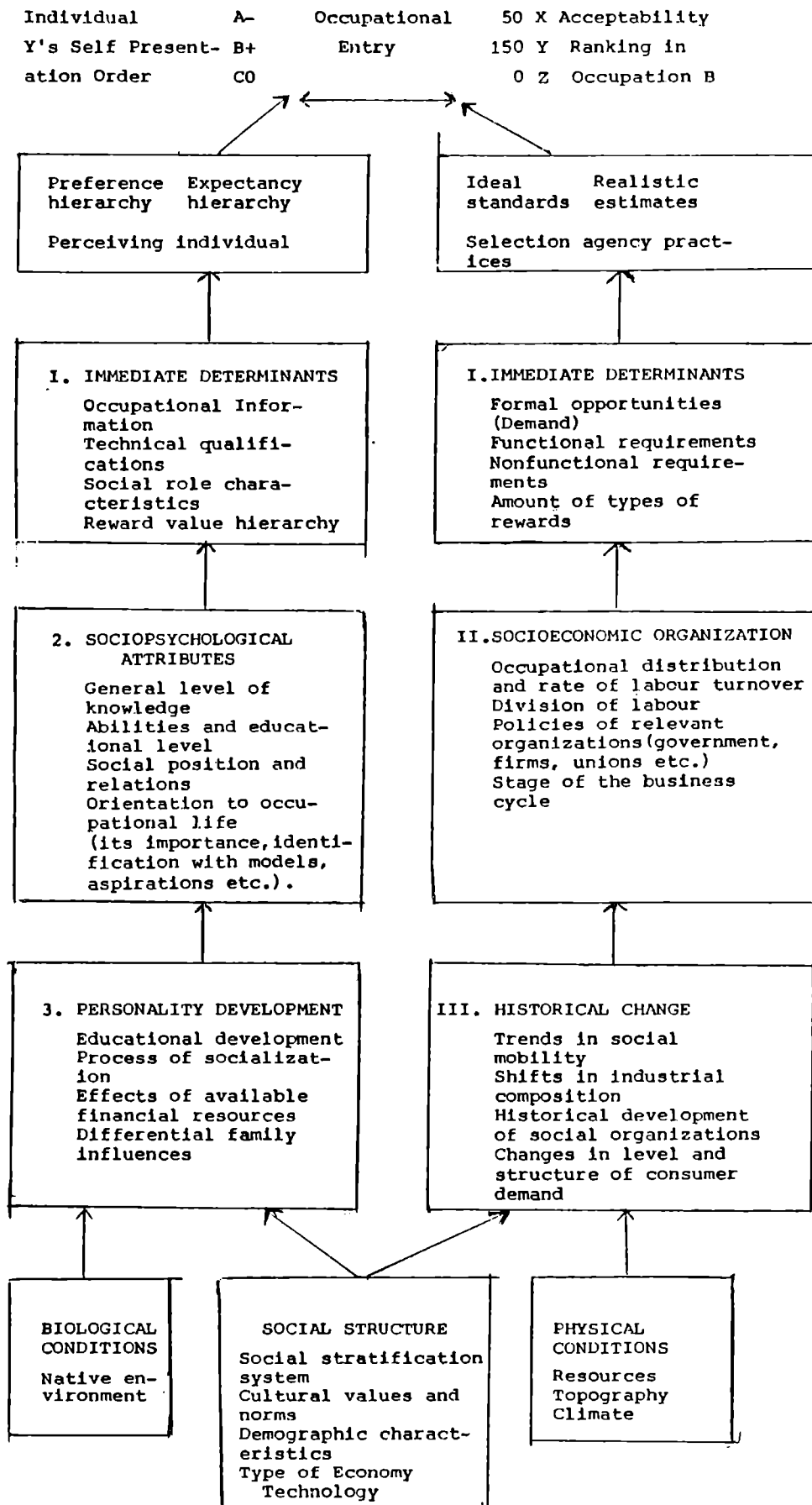
In Fig. 1 the left side suggests that the moulding of biological potentialities by the differentiated social structure (Box 3) results in diverse characteristics of individuals (Box 2), some of which directly determine the occupational choice (Box 1).

At the same time as indicated on the right side, the social structure changes (Box III), resulting in socio-economic organization at any point in time (Box II), some aspects of which directly determine occupational selection (Box I). These two developments separated only for analytical purposes, must be joined to explain the entry into occupations.

Looking more closely to the specific situation of occupational choice, a choice between various possible occupations may be motivated by two interrelated sets of factors: the individual's valuation of the rewards offered by different alternatives and his appraisal of his chances of being able to realize each of the alternatives.

These valuations and appraisals of chances are acquired through and modified by social experience and both are conceived

Fig. 1: Showing the Influence of Social Structure on Occupational Aspirations of Youth



to be roughly ordered in hierarchical fashion for each person - a hierarchy of preferences (valuations) and a hierarchy of expectancies (appraisals). The course of action, upon which an individual decides, will reflect a compromise between his preferences and his expectations (an attempt to maximise expected value). Thus his actual choice will probably not be identical with his preference if his expectation of reaching the preferred goal is very low.

Restrictions to Occupational Choice

Occupational choice is restricted by existing opportunities. It does not necessarily involve conscious deliberation and weighing of alternatives. Variations in knowledge, rationality and discrimination between alternatives constitute, therefore, the limiting conditions within which individuals choose occupations by arriving at a compromise between their preferences and expectancies. This compromise is continuously modified upto the time of actual entry, since each experience in the labour market affects the individual's expectations and recurrent experiences may also affect his performances.

Let us take an example to illustrate this point. A

graduate of personnel management would have to his first preference to become a Personnel Manager in an industry, but his expectations of getting a job in this desirable occupation is so low that he does not even apply for one. The first occupational position for which he presents himself as a candidate is that of a Welfare Officer, which ranks lower on his preference hierarchy, but where his expectation of success is somewhat greater. Unable to get the position of Personnel Manager (A on the top of the chart) he tries to find work as Welfare Officer, another professional trade, which may lead to a career as Personnel Manager since he obtains employment as a Welfare Officer (B), what position he would have looked for next (C) is irrelevant; indeed this third alternative may not have crystallized in his own mind (Fig. 1).

This expectation of why an individual chooses a given occupation must be supplemented by an explanation of why he is selected for it. Let us assume that the employment practices in the industry have the result, whether achieved by deliberate effort or inadvertently, that persons with certain characteristics including considerable practical experience, have the greatest chance of being hired as Personnel Managers. Since only 50 candidates of this type present themselves for

200 openings (X) employers also accept 150 applicants whom they consider not quite as suitable for the job, such as individuals with more than adequate training but without experience (Y). Having found a sufficient number of workers, employers are not forced to lower their requirements further and hire persons who are not properly trained (Z). There is probably a floor below which employers would not be willing to drop their requirements. The closer the qualifications of applicants approach this floor, the greater is the likelihood that employers will redefine the entry situation by increasing rewards in order to attract better qualified workers.

Occupational choice, then, can be conceptualized as a process involving a series of decisions to present oneself to employers or other selectors as a candidate for a number of more or less related occupations. Each decision is governed by the way in which the individual compromises his ideal preference and his actual expectations of being able to enter a given occupation. It is in this background that individuals are aspiring for different jobs. Occupational selection on the other hand, consists of successive decisions of employers about applicants for jobs.

Other Determinants of Occupational Entry

Eight factors, four pertaining to occupations (Box I) and four characterising individuals (Box 1), determine occupational aspirations and consequently the occupational entry (Blau, Gustad and Jessor 1956). First the demand for new members in an occupation is indicated by the number of vacancies that exist at any one time, which can be more easily ascertained, of course for the employed than for the self-employed. The size of the occupational group, its tendency to expand and its turnover rate will influence the demand for 'new members'. The second factor, functional requirements, refers to the technical qualifications needed for optimum performance of occupational tasks. The third one, non-functional requirements, refers to those criteria affecting selection that are not relevant to actual performance, such as good looks or the proper caste etc. Fourth, rewards include not only income, prestige and power, but also opportunities for advancement, congenial fellow workers, emotional gratification and all other employment conditions that are defined as desirable (Fig. 1).

Shifting now from the attributes of occupations to those of potential workers, a fifth factor that influences

occupational entry is - the information people have about an occupation - their knowledge about the requirements for entry, the rewards offered and the opportunities for employment and advancement. Two characteristics of individuals are complementary to the two types of occupational requirements, namely their technical skills to perform various occupational duties and their other social characteristics that influence hiring decisions. Finally, people's value orientation determines the relative significance of different kinds of rewards and that the attractive force exerted by them.

Many other characteristics of individuals influence their careers - level of knowledge, ability and education, social positions and relationships and orientation towards occupational life (Box 2). It can be hypothesized that the effects of all other factors can be traced through the immediate determinants of occupational entry. In other words, unless a social experience or attribute affects the information individuals have about occupation, their technical or social qualifications for entry, or their evaluation of occupations, it is not expected to influence their careers. Similarly, whereas the many aspects of the socio-economic organization (Box II) must be examined to explain the four

characteristics of occupations outlined in Box I, it is those four (plus the four directly relevant characteristics of individuals) that directly account for occupational entry, according to the hypothesis advanced here.

Problem and Its Significance

The theoretical search for the determining factors of occupational aspirations has made the researcher aware of the situations that, it is the socio-economic factors and the interests of the individuals that have a major role to play in the occupational aspirations. The investigator therefore, understood that a more concrete relationship between the occupational aspirations and socio-economic variables is to be established to have a meaningful prediction of career choice. The present study is aiming at this objective plus to relate the occupational aspirations of youth with their vocational interest, which in many cases may be developed in various socio-economic environments.

In all cultures it is the individual's occupation, through which earned status is attained or expressed. Whenever socio-economic roles are differentiated by a functional

division of labour, or a hierarchy of social prestige values, the typical occupation of a man defines and symbolizes his relative position in the stratified social organization that almost inevitably results.

According to Parsons "the most fundamental basis of the family's status is the occupational status of the husband and father..... This is a status occupied by an individual by virtue of his individual qualities and achievements. But, both directly and indirectly, more than any other single factor, it determines the status of the family in the social structure, directly because of the symbolic significance of the office or occupation as a symbol of prestige, indirectly because as the principal source of family income it determines the standard of living of the family" (Choosing a Vocation, 1909, p. 609).

Adolescents internalize the general level of status aspirations of their particular cultural or sub-cultural milieu and sustain the level of aspiration by experiencing an appropriate degree of "Socially adoptive anxiety" about the status they are expected to achieve.

As a result of this process of differential

internalization of status needs, mean differences between cultures or sub-cultures in the relative importance of acquiring prestige, preeminence, or superordinate position in the social hierarchy are transmitted and maintained. Therefore, considerable variability is found in the relative status needs of different individuals in different socio-economic groups and that such differences in urgency and magnitude of need are largely a function of the presence or absence of intrinsic feeling of adequacy.

These feelings of adequacy in adolescents are created by various individual and socio-economic determinants. Therefore, an enquiry into those individual and socio-economic factors that create the presence or absence of this intrinsic adequacy will be of great practical importance.

The independent India, in her attempt to improve the general socio-economic standard of the country, initiated many industrial ventures which naturally created changes in the aspirations and outlook of the Indian Youth. The agricultural and traditional jobs of old generation no more attracted the young. Starting of industries and the consequent job opportunities in the organized sector attracted youth

to cities with new aspirations and definite determinations.

Moreover, the Constitution of India promises equal opportunity to all citizens in the field of occupation as in any other field. In this context it is worthwhile to study what the youth of India, especially those from lower socio-economic strata, are aspiring for. Because these aspirations in the occupational fields are the indicators of the intensity of their internal adequacy. Do the youth of lower socio-economic strata have the internal adequacy to aspire for higher occupations? How far are the Constitutional safeguards with regard to occupational choice applied in practice to the average citizens of India, especially to the youth belonging to scheduled caste and scheduled tribes? Answers to these questions will reveal the real democratic climate in which Indian Youth are growing. The gap between the promised and the practised is important to be understood, so that the ideals of Indian democracy may be upheld where individuals, regardless of caste, creed and economic differences will get a chance to serve India and bring her to progress according to each one's ability and interest.

The investigator, therefore, is making a humble

effort to measure the intensity of adequacy of youth in Kerala (a state which stands first in literacy rate and in general awareness) by measuring the influence of the individual and socio-economic variables on the occupational aspirations of the college students.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Through an intense survey of literature in the field of occupational aspirations of youth, the investigator understood that great interest have been shown in the past by scholars in the study of the sources of aspirations of youth. The important variables came across during the survey of literature are discussed below.

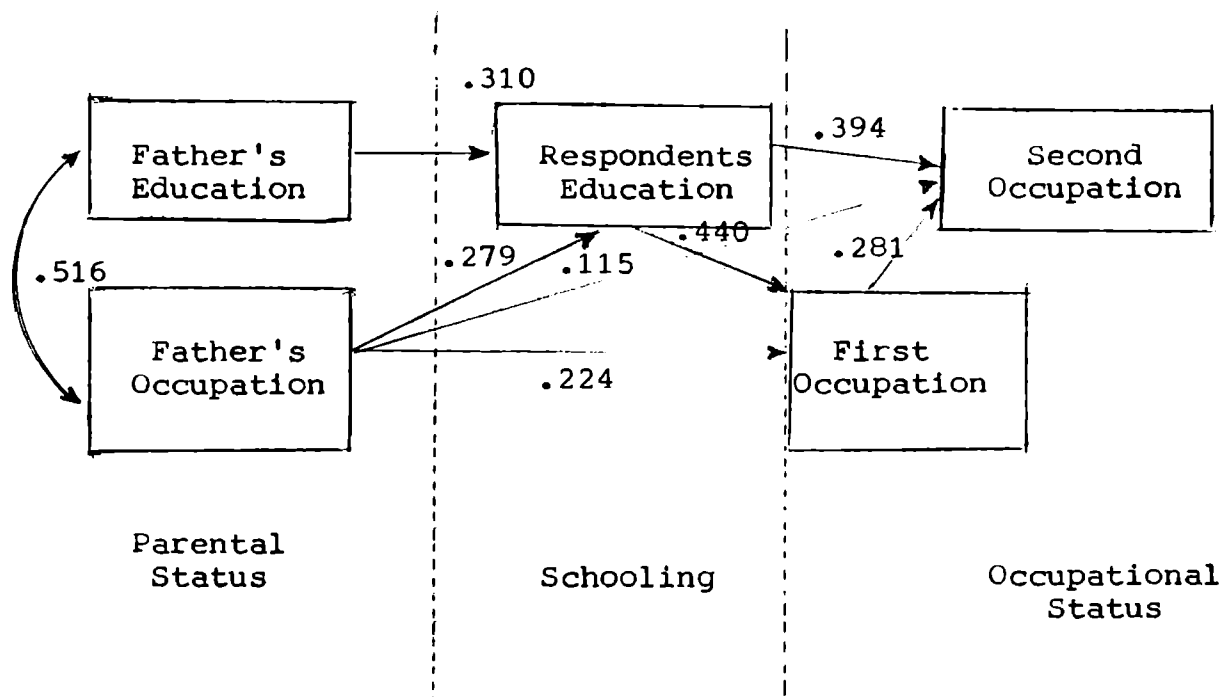
Parental Education and Occupation Influencing the Occupational Aspiration of Youth

Blau and Duncan (1967) give clearly a model of status attainment. The formal theory of status attainment was expressed by Blau and Duncan using conventions of path analysis (Duncan, 1966b, 1975; Wright, 1934). The status attainment model depicts that the social status of one's parents affects the level of schooling achieved which, in turn, affects the occupational levels that one aspires and achieves. An informal path diagram of this idea is (Duncan, Featherman and Duncan, 1972) Parental status → Schooling → Occupational status. In

this view schooling is intervening variable between parental status and one's own occupational status. Thus although education is one of the indicators of status, it plays a functional role in a model of process that occurs over time (Fig.2).

By studying the path analysis given by Blau and Duncan we get specific quantitative indicators to assess direct effect, indirect effect and total effect of different variables on occupational choice and status.

Fig. 2: Blau-Duncan Path Model

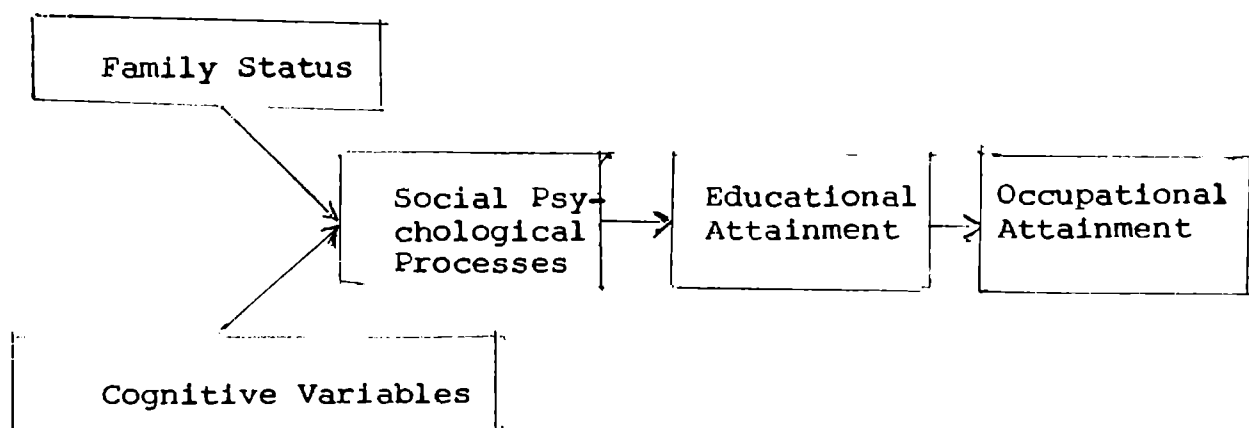


Note: The number next to curved arrow is a product moment correlation. Numbers next to straight arrows are standardized partial regression coefficients.

Source: Peter M. Blau and Otis Dudley Duncan, *The American Occupational Structure*, 1967.

William Sewell (1980) and his colleagues collected longitudinal data describing the career histories of a large sample of Wisconsin residents. The Wisconsin data contained rich detail on respondents, beginning in their senior year in high school (1957) and continuing through 1975 (Clarridge, Sheehy and Hauser, 1977). The first wave of the Wisconsin survey collected information about parental status educational and occupational plans of the youth, parental career expectations and encouragement to their children, perceived career plans of peers, school grades and measured mental ability. Subsequent waves of data collection have obtained information about educational experience, occupational attainment and income. Thus by the end of the last survey the Wisconsin data described the socio-economic profile of the respondents rather completely. The basic ideas in the presentation of the theory are summarised in Fig. 3.

Fig. 3: Wisconsin Model



While perceiving the ideas in Blau-Duncan model (Fig. 2) Wisconsin model contains substantially more detail. The cognitive variables included a measure of mental ability and academic performance in school. The social psychological set of variables include educational and occupational aspirations of youth before leaving high school, parental encouragement to attend college and peer plans to attend college. In short, the hypothesis in this model is that parental status affects the occupational level of their offspring.

Experimental Support

The Blau-Duncan Model was tested on a large national sample of men. As we can see in Fig. 2 the coefficient associated with the curved double headed arrow is the correlation between father's education and father's occupation. The other coefficients are sample estimates of the path coefficients. For example, the standardized partial regression coefficient of 0.440 indicates that education has direct effect on the choice of the first occupation. Further, this path analysis reveals that the indirect effect of father's occupation on son's first occupation is 0.123. Comparing this direct effect to indirect effect (0.224) shows the indirect effect to be only a little more than half the direct effect; hence the

chain of effect theory is not well supported in this instance. In contrast, the indirect effect of father's occupation on son's second job is 0.207, of which 0.144 operates through education. Hence the intervening variable model is more nearly supported by the data for second occupation than for first occupation.

The fairly close association of educational and occupational aspirations with educational and occupational attainments is important in evaluating the potential effectiveness of career guidance. In the Wisconsin data, these correlations are substantial, about 0.60 for education and 0.45 for occupation.

Examination of the role of significant others in occupational aspirations forms an important focus of the Wisconsin model studies (Alexander, Eekland and Griffin, 1975; Curry and others, 1976, 1978; Duncan, Featherman and Duncan, 1972; Duncan, Haller and Portes 1968; Featherman and Hauser, 1978; Haller and Butterworth, 1960; Hotchkiss and Chiteji, 1981; Hout and Morgan 1975; Kerckhoff, 1974; Kerckhoff and Huff, 1974; Porter, 1974; Rehberg and Hotchkiss, 1972; Sewell and Hauser, 1975; Sewell, Hauser and Wolf, 1980.

Sewell and Hauser (1975) presented a comprehensive review and refinement of the studies upto 1975. In earlier studies parental status had been indicated by a composite socio-economic index. Sewell and Hauser said the model was not capable of explaining income attainment nearly as accurately as it explains educational and occupational attainments.

The Relationship Between Scholastic Achievement and Occupational Aspirations

It is well-known that those successful in the academic career can get occupations of high status. But there may be exceptions too. Some highly successful individuals have very little formal education and some highly educated people have had little vocational success. Nevertheless, the positive relationship between education and vocational success is generally quite strong and it has influenced very much the popular thinking about education.

One of the ways in which the education-success relationship has influenced our thinking is that we have come to attach a cash value to education, especially higher education. If only students achieve well in the educational

field they get a good chance for competing for higher jobs.

These notions about the payoff value of education make an assumption about cause and effect that needs to be examined. The assumption is that the greater success of educated people is pretty much the direct result of their education, so if it worked for them it ought to work for others. Educated people are more successful; therefore education is the pathway to success.

This cause and effect interpretation of the education success relationship tends to view educational institutions as "skill and knowledge factories" that take in raw materials (students) and somehow process them so that they emerge a few years later transformed into more finished "educated" products. And if the education factories do such a good job with those they have been processing, why not assume that they could do an equally good job with the many others who do not presently continue that far in educational institutions? The answer is clear: those who seek and attain extensive amounts of education start out more able, ambitious and advantaged on the average than those who do not.

Many studies have found positive association between the scholastic achievement and occupational aspirations and occupational success. Gist, Pihlblad and Gregory (1942) found a fairly consistent correspondence between average scholastic achievement and subsequent occupation, the professional groups showing higher academic records. Success in School and "Success in life" are related according to these authors.

Another study of the relation between high school grades and employment history and income, based on 20,000 high school graduates as subjects (Ryan and Merton 1944) found no consistent relation between school grades and occupational achievement.

A study by Raj Kumar Yadav (1979) found that scholastic achievement had positive correlation with preference in biological science area for the arts students; negative correlation with preference in business area for the commerce students and again negative correlation with preference in biological science, computational, executive, persuasive and linguistic areas for the science students.

Race and Gender Effects on Occupational Aspirations

Studies reveal that there are no persistent findings to say race and gender exercise direct effects on career choices. Nevertheless studies in the west show that there is empirical evidence of race and gender effects on occupational achievement and income. Those from minorities concentrated in the low status occupations and earn substantially less than whites (Johnson and Sell, 1976; Porter, 1974; Portes and Wilson, 1976; Reich, 1981; Smith and Welch, 1977; Stolzenberg, 1975).

Gender segregation by occupation is pronounced than differences in racial composition across occupations. Similarly income differences by gender exceed racial differences. Although educational differences by race and gender account for part of the occupation and income, disadvantages of blacks and women occupational and income differences by race and gender persist at every level of education (Stolzenberg, 1975; Suter and Miller, 1973; Treiman and Hartman, 1981; Treiman and Terrell, 1975).

Studies prove clearly that race and gender exercise strong effects on such career outcomes as educational and occupational levels and income. Human capital theory suggests

that the differences are due to 'human resource' difference between races, between males and females. Human resource variables include education and on the job training. The basic proposition is that, if human resource variables are controlled, race and sex discrepancies in income and occupational level should disappear or at least diminish by a substantial proportion (Corcoran and Duncan, 1979; Mincer and Polachek, 1974; Stolzenberg 1975; Treiman and Hartman (1981)).

Caste and Occupational Aspirations

In Indian situation caste is prominent variable controlling the educational and occupational aspirations and choice. Sheo Kumar Lal (1976) in the research paper "Occupational aspirations of scheduled caste student" found that a little more than two-fifths of the students (41.2%) want to be government officers and a little more than one third (35.2%) aspire for high level professions. Somewhat more than one-tenth of the students (12.4%) like to be teachers, gramsevaks, clerks and typists. Only 1.7 per cent wanted to become political or social workers. It is interesting to see that Lal could not find even a single student who wanted

to do farming which has been the major occupation of Indian population. And only 3.4 per cent wanted to follow the occupation of their parents while 96.6 per cent wanted to enter some occupation other than those of their parents.

Another study, by Naik J.P. (1971) "Education among scheduled castes", came to the conclusion that disparities in the educational levels and literacy rates between the scheduled caste population and the general population are significant. Bernard Cohn (1956) saw that the practice of discrimination against scheduled caste students and teachers continues in the schools, particularly in the rural areas. Education is the condition for better occupations and hence these studies tell that scheduled castes still have problems in the way of aspiration for higher occupations.

Brij Raj Chauhan and Narayana G. (1976) through their research paper show that there is differential use of educational facilities among scheduled castes. They further conclude that political and economic differences within these castes over a period of time may be responsible for this situation. Thus the differences in the use of educational facilities perpetuates the inequalities already existing

within the scheduled castes. Although exceptions may be had, economically and culturally confined youth frequently acquire learned helplessness and adopt an external locus of control. The adverse circumstances of socialization for such individuals commonly include (1) highly restricted life space, that is, limited geographical and social boundaries for experiencing the world; (2) inadequate human work models among the parents and in the neighbourhood and often the permanent or long term absence of one parent from home; (3) a devaluing of both the youngsters intellectual promise and performance; (4) a 'Street Cornor'ethos, which furnishes fantasies or personal success and power that typically exclude reference to the mediating role of education and (5) a frequently held and abiding belief, acquired from and sustained by the reference group, that the prevailing social system is an efficient and watchful trap permitting few avenues of status improvement by their means (Borrow, 1966, 1968; Vontress, 1971).

Rural Urban Differences and Occupational Aspirations

Evidence of geographical effect on status attainment comes particularly from comparative studies of the socialization patterns of urban versus rural youth. Although increased

outmigration from rural areas and the spread of technologically sophisticated mass communication media have reduced the cultural isolation of country youth, a consensus suggests that a restricted range of social experiences and a comparatively low degree of geographical mobility result in a narrower view of the nation's occupational structure and somewhat lower level of aspiration scores for farm youth and rural non-farm youth in comparison with urban youth samples.

Rajendra Pande (1974) in his study "Rural urban comparison of occupational aspiration of college youth" had the following conclusions: (a) Urban youth mostly aspire for professional technical occupations and rural youth for white collar jobs. More rural youth wanted to be farm owners and more urban youth wanted to be industrialists (b) Urban youth surpass rural youth in achievement orientation (c) Rural youth give more emphasis on social service, high pay and interest in work respectively, whereas urban youth's basic emphasis is on interest in the job followed by emphasis on high pay and social service aspect of the job (d) the two groups perceive difficulties differently: urban youth have mainly personal and domestic difficulties, while rural youth have mainly social difficulties.

As for aspiration for income, urban youth tend to aspire for earning more income as compared with rural youth. The urban youth also showed greater self-confidence achieving their aspirations for income than do the rural youth.

Other important studies showing rural urban differences in occupational aspirations of college youth are the following: Beyon 1935; Laybourne, 1934, Haller, 1960; Burchinal 1961; Schwarzweller, 1968; Gore, 1968; Sharma 1970: All these studies show that the aspiration level of career choices of rural youth are lower than those of their urban counterparts.

Economic Status and Occupational Aspirations

Many studies show that economic status of the family is a determining factor in the occupational aspirations of college students. In the study by Sheo Kumar Lal (1976) it was found that among scheduled caste students majority of the students from a comfortable economic status chose high profession for their future career and among them 35.7 per cent wanted to become government officers. But the trend was the reverse among the economically weaker sections.

Amba Rao, U. (1976) who studied the occupational aspirations of undergraduate girl students reached the conclusion that students from well to do homes acquire a positive attitude towards work which will benefit them economically.

Gopalapillai, P. (1975) studied students of tenth standard and found that students from low or middle income families aspire for higher occupations where they can make money and acquire status.

Ambarao, T. Uplakonkar (1983) in his study 'Occupational aspirations of college students' concludes that the proportion of women students in the high social class status category with middle occupational aspirations was higher (29 %) than men (15%).

Interests and Their Measurements

Interest

Strong (1943) defines interests as "activities for which we have liking or disliking and which we go towards or away from, on concerning which we at least continue or discontinue the status quo, further more they may or may not

be preferred to other interests and they may continue over varying intervals of time" (Vocational Interests of Men and Women, 1943).

Murphy (1955) defines interest in the following way "Interests are conditioned stimuli related to goal objectives and expressed as likes or dislikes of activities, objects, characteristics, or people in the environment" ("The Cultural Context of Guidance", Personnel and Guidance Journal, 34, 1955).

Guilford (1963) says "Interest is a generalized behaviour tendency of an individual to be attracted to a certain class of incentives or activities that are vocational in nature and to those whose broad meanings transcend vocations" ("Fundamental Statistics in Psychology & Education", 1963).

The above written definitions show that interests represent a tendency to select one activity or thing in preference to something else, to choose one instead of another. The term interest has been used in many ways.

According to Super (1949) there are expressions, manifestations, tests and inventories of interests.

He defined expressed interest as the verbal expression

of interest in an object, activity, task, or occupation. If a child says, "I am going to be a doctor when I grow up" an interest in a profession is expressed. How far these expressed interests are reliable is doubtful. Many factors work upon the child to have changes in his early interests.

By manifest interest he meant actual participation in activity or occupation. If one spends his leisure time in stamp collection, gardening, making designs, imitating religious ceremonies or on some other activities, we may assume that something of interest is here for him in these areas.

Tested interests mean interests as measured by objective tests. Results of these tests are accepted on the assumption that interest in an activity will result in an accumulation of information about that activity, and the amount and type of information can be measured.

Interest inventories are questionnaire in which the items are given an experimentally determined weight, yielding a score that represents a pattern of interests.

The characteristics of interests are the following (Kochhar, 1984):

1. They are shaped by both heredity and environment.
2. They are fairly stable traits of personality.
3. They never become permanently fixed. There is a constant shaping of the detailed pattern - but broadlines of interests remain unchanged.
4. They are sufficiently unique to have special consideration in the study of an individual or group. Super feels there seem to be something magnetic about interests, putting people in their direction and holding them in place once there.
5. They vary with age and differ among individuals.
6. They gradually crystallise as the individual begins to discover himself and piles up rewarding experiences in a few fields.

Relation Among Interests, Ability and achievement

According to Cronbach (1970) "A high interest score needs to be interpreted as indicating that if a person survives

training and enters the occupation, he is likely to enjoy his work. Though interests imply motivation, their influence on success is rather small. But it can be concluded that a person with interests and abilities suitable for an occupation can and will do well in it; person with suitable abilities but unsuitable interests can do well but may not and a person with suitable interests and low aptitude will do badly" (Essentials of Psychological Testing, New York, Harper and Row, 1970, p. 427). Many studies have shown that there is a moderate relationship between intelligence and interest. A correlation ranging from +0.4 to -0.4 was found depending upon the nature of interests.

Why Interests be Identified?

To help the testee to identify and clarify their interests in terms of the demands of varied courses and careers and choose work and experiences consistent with their interests.

To help in the selection of the right person for the right work and thus save frustration, unhappiness and disappointment in the lives of the individuals and increase production capacity of the individual.

Use of Interest Inventories in Identifying Interests

The measurement of interests by means of inventories is a rather recent development. The nature of interest inventories can be explained by considering two most important ones. They are (1) The Strong Vocational Interest Blank for Men and (2) The Kuder Preference Record-Vocational.

Strong Vocational Interest Blank

The Vocational Interest Blank for Men was originally published in 1927 and revised in 1951. It consists of 50 categories, arranged in 11 groups. Scoring scales are available for 47 occupations, for six groups of occupations and for four special variables: interest maturity, occupational level, specialization level and masculinity-femininity. To items in some of these groups, the individual responds "like", "indifferent", or "dislike". The other groups contain items which require the individuals to indicate preference for certain vocational activities, to compare interest between two items and to rate his present abilities and characteristics. Since the inventory has no time limit, the individual is expected to respond to all items.

In scoring the inventory, each item has weights assigned to its response positions. The weight may be either positive

or negative; its direction and size depend upon how that item differentiates men-in-particular occupations from men-in-general. This method of weighting items is a distinguishing characteristic of Strong's Blank.

We shall further examine how Strong determined the weights to be assigned a particular response to an item. He carefully selected a group of blanks which had been filled out by a typical group of men, whom Strong calls "men-in-general". This group may be thought of as the basic population. He then tabulated the responses of these men-in-general. He found, for example, that these men responded to the first item, "actor", in this manner: 21 per cent liked it, 32 per cent were indifferent and 47 per cent disliked it. When he tallied their responses to "architect" he found that 37 per cent indicated "like", 40 per cent "indifferent" and 23 per cent "dislike". Using this procedure, Strong obtained a picture of how men-in-general would respond to each of the items in his blank.

As the next step in determining weights for the items, Strong gave the blanks to successful men in various occupations and then tallied their responses to each of the items. To the item "actor" the engineers answered thus: nine per cent responded "like", 31 per cent "indifferent" and 60 per cent

"dislike". To the item "architect", the percentages responding "like", "indifferent" and "dislike" were, respectively 58, 32 and 10.

With this information for each of the items, Strong computed the differences between the percentages for men-in-general and for the engineer group. By use of critical ratio formula which takes into account the significance of difference between the two percentages, Strong then computed the weight to be assigned to each of the three possible responses to an item. These weights vary from - 4 through 0 to + 4. Roughly speaking, they are based on the degree to which the responses of engineers, for instance are different from the responses of men-in-general. This procedure is illustrated in Table 2.1.

As the final step in constructing the scale Strong converted the scoring weights into a scoring key. This key is used to weight an individual's responses. The more nearly his answers correspond to those of engineers, for example, the higher is his score on the engineering scale. The final score thus obtained are converted into letter grades of A, B+, B, B-, C+ and C. The meaning of these grades is explained by Strong in the following words.

Table - 2.1: Table showing Determination of Weights for An Occupation Interest Scale on Strong Vocation Interest Blank for Men

Item	Percentage of men-in-general tested	Percentage of engineers tested	Differences in percentage between engineers and men-in-general	Scoring weights for engineering scale
Actor (not movie)	21 32 47	9 31 60	-12 - 1 +13	- 1 0 1
Architect	37 40 23	58 32 10	+12 - 8 -13	2 - 1 - 1

Source: E.K. Strong, Vocational Interests of Men and Women (Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1943), p. 19.

"An A rating means the individual's interests agree very well with the interest of men in the occupation; a C rating means that there is no such agreement; whereas scores in the B range indicate the degree of approximation to A or C ratings. Scores should never be viewed as conclusive. They should be considered as merely suggestive, taking into account all other information bearing upon one's vocational choice. Occupations rated A or B+ should be carefully considered before definitely deciding against them; occupations rated B- and C should be equally carefully considered before definitely deciding to enter them" ("Vocational Interest of Men & Women", 1943; p. 19).

The Strong inventory may be scored for 50 occupations. A factor analysis by Strong, made at a time when 36 scales were available, revealed that certain of these scales can be grouped together. Following are the groupings of the specific occupations:

- Group I Artist, psychologist, architect, physician,
dentist.
- Group II Mathematician, Physicist, engineer, chemist.
- Group III Production Manager.

- Group IV Aviator, farmer, carpenter, painter, mathematics - science teacher, policeman, forest service.
- Group V YMCA Physical Director, Personnel Manager, YMCA Secretary, Social Science teacher, School Superintendent, Minister.
- Group VI Musician
- Group VII Certified public accountant
- Group VIII Accountant, office worker, purchasing agent, banker
- Group IX Sales Manager, Real estate salesman, life insurance salesman
- Group X Advertising man, Lawyer, author journalist
- Group XI President of manufacturing concern.

Kuder Preference Record-Vocational

The main assumption of Kuder preference record is this: Although a person's interests find expression in a multiplicity of activities, measurement of an individual's basic interest can be expressed in terms of the relative strength of his preference for certain broad categories of activity.

The Kuder Preference Record was originally published in 1939. At that time it could be scored for seven broad areas of interest. Since then there were many revisions of this inventory. In 1949 the name was changed to Kuder Preference Record - Vocational to distinguish it from an entirely new inventory - Kuder Preference Record - Personal. The latter is to measure personal characteristics not covered by the Vocational form.

The Kuder Preference Record - Vocational yields scores in the following broad areas of activity: Outdoor, mechanical, computational, scientific, persuasive, artistic, literary, musical, social service and clerical. The blank contains 504 items, each offering three possible choices. The individual reads the three choices and indicates which he likes least. A typical item is:

- a. Develop new varieties of flowers
- b. Conduct advertising campaign for florists
- c. Take telephone orders in a florist shop

In this item if individual chooses "a" as liked, he receives credit toward his score in the scientific and artistic areas. If he chooses "b" he is credited toward the persuasive score. And if he chooses "c" he is credited

toward clerical score. By adding the credits, a total score is obtained for each area of vocational interest. The scoring is facilitated by an ingenious answer pad, which can be completely scored in about five minutes. The scores obtained are then converted to percentile ranks based on the responses of so called "people-in-general".

It is important to note that the Kuder yields scores which can only be interpreted by comparison with the scores made by persons in broad categories, such as high school girls, or male adults. In other words, the Kuder scores are not interpretable, as are those obtained by the Strong blank, in terms of similarity to specific occupational groups. The Kuder manual, however, presents data which show that persons in peculiar occupations tend to receive relatively higher scores in the corresponding Kuder areas to which their occupations are logically assigned. With the publication of another Inventory, the Kuder operational Form D, Kuder has developed specific occupational keys using an approach identical to Strong's pattern of procedure. For instance, it takes into account differences between men-in-general and men in a specific occupation. At present 42 occupational keys are available for the Kuder occupational.

In constructing the Kuder vocational inventory the first step was to prepare a large number of items which logically appeared to measure preference for activities in a certain area such as scientific activity. These items were then given to an unselected group of people and were scored according to an a-priori key. This key was necessarily based on Kuder's judgement of the kind of responses which indicated scientific interest. Each of the items was then analysed in terms of its ability to discriminate between persons who made high and low scores on a priori key. An item which discriminated was retained; one which did not was discarded. Thus the responses to items intended to measure interest in the scientific area were consistent with each other. The pattern of these responses was then embodied in the scoring key for the scientific area of interest. This process was repeated in covering each of the other broad areas of interest.

Then Kuder developed a scale of scores for each of seven interest areas. He then found that these scales were reasonably independent of each other. The correlations among the seven scales ranged from 0.19 between the scientific and computational scales to - 0.34 between the scientific and persuasive scales. Kuder has developed three additional scales too. These scales have higher intercorrelations than

did the original scales, yet are sufficiently independent to be regarded as measuring separate areas of interest.

Scores on the Kuder inventory can be interpreted as indicating the relative degree of interest which a person has in each of the areas given.

The two interest inventories given above, those of Strong and Kuder is basic in developing many other interest inventories and preference records. The other interest inventories and preference records are the following.

3. Vocational Interest Inventory (Gujarati)

This is developed by Badami, N.D. It gives a profile showing relative interests in various occupational areas. This inventory is meant for college and senior high school students. The time limit to complete the inventory is 15 minutes. Reliability coefficients for ten different interest scores range from 0.78 to 0.90. The inventory has been validated against several professional groups. Average profile is given for comparison (Available from: Badami, N.D., Department of Psychology, Education and Philosophy, Gujarat University, Ahmedabad).

4. Occupational and Avocational Interest Record (English)

This record is by Bharadwaj, S.B.L. It consists of two scales, occupational and avocational. Each scale contains 140 items. This scale is for graduates and requires about two hours to complete. Percentile norms are available (Available from: Directorate of Psychological Research, West Block 8, R.K. Puram, New Delhi).

5. Chatterji's Non-Language Preference Record

This scale is non-verbal in nature and is used in group. It measures the interest in ten broad areas: fine arts, technical, crafts, outdoor, sports, household work, scientific, literary etc. It is meant for high school and college students. The time limit is from 45 minutes to one hour (Available from: Chatterji, S., Psychometric Unit, Indian Statistical Institute, 203 B.T. Road, Calcutta).

6. The Interest Test Parisuchi

This test is by Kulshrestha, S.P. It contains 350 educational and vocational activities and measures seven interest areas as arts and humanities, science, commerce, agriculture, home science, fine arts and technology. It is

a half-forced-choice and half-simple-choice. This can be applied to school and college students (Available from: Rupa Psychological Corporation, Agra).

7. Vocational and Educational Interest Record by Kulshrestha, S.P. and Damale, O.P.

It contains 200 vocational and 98 educational activities, ten areas are covered in vocations and seven in education. The time limit to complete the test is 10 minutes for Vocational Interest Record and five minutes for Educational Interest Record (Available from: National Psychological Corporation, Agra).

8. Vocational Preference Record (Hindi)

This is by Manovigyan Shala, Allahabad: It is a group verbal test and the scale is meant for students of class X and XII. The time required to complete the test is 30 minutes. It is used for guidance and counselling (Available from: Nideshak, Manovigyan Shala, Allahabad).

9. Interest Inventory

(English and Gujarati. by Mascarenhas, J.). This

contains 150 items to measure interest in Medicine, Engineering, Commerce, Arts and Fine Arts. It is meant for 14 - 18 year old boys and girls. The time limit to complete the test is on an average 30 to 35 minutes and maximum time 40 minutes (Available from: Mascarenhas, J., St. Xavier's Institute of Education, 15, New Marine Lines, Bombay - 1).

10. Adaptation of Kuder Preference Record (Hindi)
by Singh, N.P.

Here items that could fit in the local conditions have been rendered in Hindi. Others have been so modified that though the content of an item has been changed its functional value for measuring a particular interest, area remains the same (Available from: Singh, N.P., Department of Psychology, T.N.B. College, Bhagalpur (Bihar)).

11. Interest Inventory Prepared by Department of Educational Psychology and Foundations of Education

This inventory has two forms: senior and junior. The senior form is meant for men between the ages 18 and 25 years and the junior form is for boys between ages of 15 and 18 years. This inventory is available in four

languages - English, Hindi, Kannada and Marathi. It has been developed for use on men only. The inventory consists of four parts each with one type of items. Part I includes situation items, Part II consists of statements, Part III consists of pairs of words (paired associates) and Part IV consists of normal checklists. No time limit is given but it is believed that better results will be obtained with the individuals giving their responses rapidly (Available from: Department of Educational Psychology, NCERT, New Delhi).

12. Interest Record (Hindi) by Singh, R.P.

This scale is verbal in nature and is administered in group as well as individually. It is meant for higher secondary level and it can be used also in educational and vocational counselling of young adults out of school. There is no time limit but it needs 30 to 40 minutes to complete the scale. There are 168 pairs of items with seven interest factors, (a) Mechanical, (b) Business, (c) Scientific (d) Aesthetic, (e) Social, (f) Clerical, (g) Outdoor (Available from: Smt. Sarma, R.K., 26/46, Shakti Nagar, Delhi).

13. Comprehensive Scale of Entrepreneurship by Sharma, V.P.

This scale is to discover the entrepreneurship

qualities among youth who aspire to hold high risk taking positions in some industry, factory, firm or business enterprises to get self-employed by running some ambitious projects or enterprises. The essence of the scale lies in evaluating the degree of entrepreneurship attributes that the individual possesses and in predicting his future success in his undertaking. It consists of six parts: (1) Self-perception, (2) Organizational ability and Managerial skill, (3) Personality maturity, (4) Executive Research Pattern Scale, (5) Human Relation and (6) Human Engineering.

The scale may be useful as a diagnostic device for the business organizations, vocational institutes, industrial managements and banks for screening, identifying and catching the young entrepreneurs when they start thinking for entering the vocations (Available from: National Psychological Corporation, Agra).

14. Thurstone Interest Schedule

It has been prepared by Thurstone, L.L. Here the subject is asked to express his preferences for different occupations. The occupations are given in pairs and he is

asked to check them to indicate his preferences. In each comparison, the subject is to assume that there is no difference in income or prestige. For each pair of occupations, the subject is to draw a ring around an occupation which he prefers out of the two, draw rings around both numbers if he likes both the occupations - and cross out both occupations if he dislikes both of them.

15. Vocational Interest Inventory (English) by George Mathew, V.

It consists of 7 scales which are outdoor, mechanical, clerical, persuasive, aesthetic, social work and scientific. It is meant for English knowing persons in India.

16. Mathew Interest Inventory by George Mathew, V.

The test measures the interest patterns of adults. The test has been standardized largely on pupils of standard X and the test is applicable from that level. The eight areas of interests measured are: Aesthetic, Social, Science, Business, Outdoor, Political, Sports, Religious.

The investigator made use of this Inventory in the present study to measure the interests of college students. The investigator got personal guidance from the author

Dr. George Mathew, V. in administering the test. More details about this Inventory is given in Chapter III where the methodology is discussed in detail.

Classification of Occupations

The study of occupational aspirations should cover the occupational classifications also. There are two types of classification in use in our country: (1) National Industrial Classification (NIC) and (2) National Classification of Occupations (NCO).

National Industrial Classification (1970)

This classification is done by the Government of India, for the use of its various fact finding agencies. Information regarding employment and unemployment in various sectors of economy can be understood through this classification. Industry means, that sector of economic activity in which the earner is, or was, engaged eg.: textile industry, automobile industry etc. Code numbers are assigned for each industrial group on "the digit" system for the use in employment exchange records. This system is related to

the international usage as recommended by the International Labour Office.

The Sixth International Conference of Labour Statistics adopted the following definition of an occupation: "An occupation is a trade, profession or type of work performed by an individual irrespective of the branch of the economic activity to which he is attached". The concept of an occupation has been adopted in the National Classification of Occupations (NCO).

National Classification of Occupations

In 1946 Directorate General of Resettlement and Employment (Directorate General of employment and Training' the new name), published the "Guide to Occupational Classification" for day-to-day work at Employment Exchanges; such as registration of applicants, documentation of vacancies, compilation of statistical data etc. It was framed after the British pattern and this was based upon industrially biased occupational classification. As there was a plan for a new classification of occupations, the International Labour Organization (ILO) published, in 1958, a

complete classification of occupations, together with their definitions, called the International Standard Classification of Occupations, 1958.

The Directorate General of Employment and Training prepared the 'National Classification of Occupations, 1958', based upon the International Standard Classification of Occupations, 1958 and substituted the "Guide to Occupational Classification".

The NCO, 1958 was revised in 1968. The National Classification of Occupations NCO, 1968 has been prepared after the second edition of the International Standard Classification of Occupations (I.S.C.O.), 1966, published by the International Labour Organization, I.L.O., 1968. This made easy to ensure international comparability of reporting and analysing of statistical data relating to occupations, manpower, population census etc.

The National Classification of Occupations 1968 attempts to group together occupations according to combinations of specific duties, tasks and work functions concerned with, while actually performing the same or closely related work.

Consequently, job definitions or descriptions given in N.C.O. represent only the average national picture of the various occupations. Thus there could be variations in job-combinations or job-breakdowns, as also differences in job-titles of occupations, from establishment to establishment and state to state. It is also recognised, as only natural, that a group of persons engaged on the same occupation may 'inter se' vary widely in such characteristics as level of performance, education, institutional training etc. Therefore, even though the revised definitions do not describe the level of education, training or work experience required for efficient performance of the tasks and functions in an occupation, broad inferences regarding qualifications etc. could be drawn from occupational grouping and from the job description.

Major Divisions in National Classification of Occupations are given in the Appendix.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The main aim of this research is to make an exploratory study of the occupational aspirations of the college students as influenced by the socio-economic variables and interests and it proceeds with certain definite hypotheses which are formulated on the basis of Indian situation and also with the help of available research material.

Objectives of the Study

General Objective

The main objective of this study is to find out how far the differential location in the socio-economic status and the various interests determine the occupational aspirations of the college students in Ernakulam district.

Specific Objectives

1. To find out the influence of caste and community affiliations, rural-urban background, gender differences and academic achievements on the occupational aspirations of college students.

2. To see how far the economic status of the family is associated with the occupational aspirations of the college youth.
3. To assess the influence exerted by the occupational and educational standards of the parents on the occupational aspirations of the students.
4. To find out the gap between the occupational aspirations and the occupational preferences of the students.
5. To see the relation between the occupational aspirations and interests of the college students.

Hypotheses

- I. The occupational aspirations of college students are influenced by their:
 1. Caste and community affiliations
 2. Economic status
 3. Parental Education
 4. Parental occupation
 5. Gender Differences
 6. Rural-Urban Background and
 7. Academic Achievement.

II. The occupational aspirations of college students are related to their interests.

In order to understand the strength of the occupational aspirations the investigator studied the occupational preferences of the college students also.

Definition of Concepts and Variables

Occupational Aspiration

Occupational aspiration is the goal set by an individual, with regard to his future career, not taking into consideration his socio-economic limitations.

Occupational Preference

The preference shown by an individual for actually entering in an occupation taking into consideration his socio-economic limitations. The occupational aspirations of the students were studied in four categories of occupations:

1. Professional-Managerial-I
2. Professional-Managerial-II
3. Semi-professional and
4. Skilled occupations.

These classifications were adopted based upon the 'occupational classification' given by Anne Roe (1956). She gave six categories according to the level of function. They were Professional-Managerial-I, 2. Professional-Managerial-II, 3. Semi-professional, 4. Skilled, 5. Semi-skilled and 6. Unskilled.

Out of these groups only the first four groups were taken for the present study. Because the last two groups - the semi-skilled and unskilled were not aspired by any of the students when the pilot study was conducted. Taking these four broad categories for determining the hierarchical positions of the occupations, some alterations were adopted as to the specific occupations to be included in each of these categories. These alterations were done on the basis of the social prestige value in Kerala, the functional responsibilities and the training needed for these occupations. These characteristics of the occupations were determined on the basis of the results of an opinion poll conducted among 100 persons selected from different fields of occupations and also in consultation with the officers of the Public Service Commission and the University Employment Information and Guidance Bureau of Cochin University of Science and Technology.

Accordingly the following occupations were included in each of the four groups of occupations.

Professional-Managerial-I Occupations

Doctor, Engineer, Lawyer, Proprietor of large business concern.

Professional-Managerial-II Occupations

Professor/Lecturer, Manager, Officer, Journalist, Medium business concern.

Semi-professional Occupations

School teacher, small business concern, social worker.

Skilled Occupations

Nurse, Clerk, Typist, other skilled works with I.T.I. or other similar qualifications.

College Students

In this study, college students mean all the senior pre-degree students from the colleges of Ernakulam district, affiliated to Mahatma Gandhi University. The students of parallel colleges do not come under this study.

Caste and Community Affiliations

Caste

"It has been widely used to describe ranked groups, within rigid system of social stratification and especially those which constitute the society of Hindu India" (Gerald, D. Berreman, Encyclopedia of Social Sciences).

The present study does not fully reckon with the traditional hierarchical caste structure. But the investigator grouped the entire students into three categories based upon the notifications of the Government of Kerala, for the purpose of reservations in educational institutions and occupations.

The three groups are the following:

1. Scheduled Castes

All the castes included in the list of scheduled castes as declared by the President of India, on the basis of socio-economic backwardness. According to the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes (Amendment) Act, 1976 (Central Act No.108 of 1976) there are 68 castes included in the list of the scheduled castes (Census of Kerala, 1981).

2. Backward Communities

All the communities which are not included in the list of scheduled castes or forward communities. Muslims, Latin Catholics, Anglo-Indians, Converted Christians and all Hindus who are not considered as scheduled castes and forward communities come under this category. The inclusion of these communities is on the basis of the socio-economic backwardness, as categorised by the government orders. These communities enjoy the benefits of educational and occupational reservations.

Forward Communities

All the communities not coming under the backward communities and scheduled castes are included in this category. Brahmins, Nairs, other Hindus who are not included in the list of scheduled castes or backward communities and all Christians except those belonging to the backward communities are considered as the members of forward communities. Members of forward communities do not enjoy any benefits of educational or occupational reservations.

Economic Status

The economic status of the students is determined based upon the annual income of their parents. The investigator grouped the students into five categories as the following:

- 1) Upto Rs. 5000
- 2) Rs. 5001 to 15000
- 3) Rs.15001 to 25000
- 4) Rs. 25001 to 35000
- 5) Above Rs.35000.

Parental Education

The formal educational qualifications attained by the fathers and mothers of the students. In the present study the investigator grouped the students into four: 1) with graduate and Post-graduate parents, 2) high school, Pre-degree and technical qualification as I.T.I. certificate or of similar educational standards of the parents, 3) upto upper primary, 4) Illiterate parents.

Parental Occupation

The present occupation of the parents. The investigator studied only the occupations of the fathers. Based upon the occupations of the fathers the students were grouped into seven categories as the following: 1) The students

whose fathers are in the professional-managerial-I occupations, 2) The students whose fathers are in the professional-managerial-II occupations, 3) The students whose fathers are in the semi-professional occupations 4) The students whose fathers are in the skilled occupations 5) The students whose fathers are in the semi-skilled occupations 6) The students whose fathers are in unskilled occupations and 7) The students whose fathers are unemployed.

Gender Differences

Boys and girls.

Rural-Urban Background

Rural Students

Students who have their original families in the rural areas and who live at present in the rural areas.

Urban Students

Students who have their original families in the urban areas and those who live now in the urban areas. Those students who have their original families in the rural areas but who

live in the urban areas for at least three years are considered as urban students.

Academic Achievement

The marks obtained by the students in the Secondary School Leaving Certificate (SSLC) examination were taken as the criterion to determine the academic achievement of the students. Accordingly, the students were divided into four groups: 1) upto 40 per cent marks, 2) above 40 per cent and upto 60 per cent marks 3) above 60 per cent and upto 80 per cent marks, 4) above 80 per cent marks.

Interest

"Interest is a generalised behaviour tendency of an individual to be attracted to a certain class of incentives or activities that are vocational in nature and those whose broad meanings transcend vocations" (Guilford J.P. "Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education", New York: McGraw Hill, 1963).

In the present study, the interests expressed by the students through the Mathew Interest Inventory are considered.

Field of Study

The field of this study is all the colleges of Ernakulam district, affiliated to Mahatma Gandhi University.

Pilot Study

The investigator visited five colleges in Ernakulam district and had discussions on this topic with the principals and teachers and also with 100 students. The discussions were very useful in the formation of the questionnaire and in the selection of the scale for studying the interests of the students. The principal, teachers and the students were very positive about the feasibility of this study. They all encouraged the investigator highlighting the urgent need for such a study which would be of great help to the young students to assess their aspirations and interests in various occupations. And the principals, teachers and students promised full cooperation to the investigator for this study.

Universe

The universe of the study included all the senior Pre-degree students from the colleges of Ernakulam district. The investigator wanted to study the senior Pre-degree students, because it is at this level that the boys and girls seriously think about their future career. Students join most of the professional colleges after the Pre-degree

course. The senior Pre-degree year is, therefore, the most appropriate time to study the occupational aspirations of the students.

The investigator visited the Mahatma Gandhi University and obtained the list of the colleges of Ernakulam district where Pre-degree courses are offered. There were 28 colleges in Ernakulam district, of which only 22 colleges had Pre-degree course. Out of these 22 colleges one college had only sanscrit subjects for Pre-degree. This college was deleted from the universe. Thus the universe of this study consists of the senior Pre-degree students of the following 21 colleges during the academic year 1989-90 (Diary 1989, Mahatma Gandhi University).

1. Alwaye, St. Xavier's College for Women
2. Alwaye, Union Christian College
3. Angamaly, Morning Star Home Science College
4. Cochin, The Cochin College
5. Edathala, Al-Ameen College
6. Edacochin, Aquinas College
7. Ernakulam, Maharaja's College
8. Ernakulam, St. Albert's College

9. Ernakulam, St. Theresa's College
10. Kalady, Sree Sankara College
11. Kalamassery, St. Paul's college
12. Kolencherry, St. Peter's College
13. Kothamangalam, Mar Athanasius College
14. Maliankara, S.N.M. College
15. Manimalakunnu, Koothattukulam Govt. College
16. Muvattupuzha, Nirmala College
17. Perumbavoor, Mar Thoma College for Women
18. Thevara, Sacred Heart College
19. Thrikkakara, Bharatha Matha College
20. Tripunithura. Government College
21. Valayanchirangara, Perumbavoor S.S. V. College.

There were 11200 Senior pre-degree students in these 21 colleges.

Sample

Stratified Random Sampling method was used to select the respondents of this study. The total 11200 senior Pre-degree students were grouped into two strata: stratum one consisted of the scheduled caste students(1750),

and stratum two consisted of students from all other categories (9450).

350 students (20%) from the first stratum (scheduled castes) and 850 students (9%) from the second stratum (all the other students) were randomly selected to form the sample (1200) of the study, which was more than 10 per cent of the universe (11200).

The investigator purposefully included more percentage of students from the stratum of the scheduled caste students for two reasons: 1) investigator's special interest to understand the aspirations of the students from the scheduled castes and 2) to ensure inclusion of adequate number of the scheduled caste students in the sample due to possibility of relatively lesser number of this category if drawn on a simple random basis from the universe.

After collecting the data it was found that 46 from the stratum of the scheduled caste students and 54 from the stratum of the other students did not attempt majority of the questions either of the questionnaire or of the interest inventory. These 100 students from the sample were deleted when further work of the study were carried on.

The actual number of students in the sample therefore, became 1100 (304 from the scheduled caste and 796 from the other students) which is approximately 10 per cent of the universe (11200).

Tools of Data Collection

1. Questionnaire
2. Mathew Interest Inventory

Questionnaire:

An elaborate questionnaire was used to collect the data regarding the following dependent and independent variables.

Dependent Variables

1. Occupational aspirations and 2. Occupational preferences.

Independent Variables

1. Caste and community affiliations, 2. Economic status, 3. Parental education, 4. Parental occupation, 5. Gender differences, 6. Rural-urban background and 7. Academic achievement.

Mathew Interest Inventory

The test measures the interest pattern of adults. The test has been standardised largely on pupils of standard X and the test is applicable from that level. The test does not differentiate vocational, occupational and avocational (hobby) interests. Some of the measured areas have more vocational implications than others.

The eight scales and their trait descriptions are given below:

1. Aesthetic: Artistic, musical, literary, general aesthetic
(25 items)
2. Social: Social work, social science
(25 items)
3. Science: Biology, physical science, psychology, general
Science, technology.
(25 items)
4. Business: Clerical, persuasive, commerce, computational,
mechanical agriculture.
(25 items)
5. Outdoor: Travel, adventure, tourism, general outdoor
(20 items)
6. Political: Organisational, party politics, political
science
(15 items)

7. Sports: Sports appreciation, sports participation
(15 items)
8. Religious: General interest in religion, participation in and practice of religion
(15 items)

The 165 items are grouped into interest in jobs, reading about academic subjects related to various fields, hobbies, visiting places related to different areas, getting acquainted to people representing different areas, etc., in order to make it easy for the respondents to maintain a mental set and answer the items.

Reliability

The odd-even reliability (corrected for attenuation) of the eight scales are given below:

Table III. Odd-even reliabilities

<u>Scale</u>	AE	SO	SC	BU	OU	PO	SP	RE
<u>Sex</u>								
Males (N=60)	.83	.88	.87	.90	.77	.79	.87	.89
Females (N=60)	.94	.90	.89	.87	.81	.81	.86	.85

Validity

The correlations of the eight scales of the Mathew Interest Inventory with the most similar scale in Vocational Interest Inventory (Mathew, 1968), an ipsative type inventory in English for college students in Kerala are given below:

Table IV. Intercorrelations between MII and VII

<u>Scale in MII</u>	<u>Scale in VII</u>	Males (N=18)	Females (N=25)
Aesthetic	Aesthetic	.78	.74
Social	Social work	.70	.34
Science	Scientific	.61	.46
Business	Mechanical	.38	.55
Outdoor	Outdoor	.45	.52
Political	Persuasive	.47	.12
Sports	Outdoor	.39	.14
Religious	Social work	.15	.25

Pre-testing the Tools of Data Collection

The questionnaire and the Mathew Interest Inventory were tested on a sub-sample of 50 students not included in

the sample, but included in the universe. On the basis of the pre-testing few alterations were made in the questionnaire. Originally the occupations "farmer" and "fishermen" were added in the list, but they were deleted later knowing that no one marked these occupations during the pre-test. With regard to the Interest Inventory the pre-testing was useful to give the initial suggestions to the students in a better way.

Data Collection

The investigator spent 5 months (June-October 1989) to complete the process of data collection. The collection of data from 1200 students of 21 colleges of Ernakulam district involved many tasks. The investigator obtained the help of a female assistant to make the process effective and easier among girl students. In addition, the principals and the office staff of the colleges cooperated well with the data collection process.

Printed notices informing the students in the sample the nature of the study and also requesting their cooperation, were distributed three days in advance. The time for filling up the questionnaire and answering the inventory was informed by a notice of the principal of each college.

Students showed great enthusiasm in giving the data, especially in answering the inventory.

Editing, Coding and Statistical Treatment of the Data

The data were edited and coded and were entered on a master sheet manually.

The statistical treatment of the data was done by computer application using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) in the electronic data processing section of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay. Chi-square test was used to see whether there was any association between the socio-economic variables and the occupational aspirations and preferences and also between the interests and the occupational aspirations and preferences. The association and other inferences were considered significant at five per cent level of significance ie. $p = 0.05$.

Scheme of Chapterisation

The entire report is presented in seven chapters. Chapter one gives a general introduction where the definition and major theories of occupational aspirations, the main thrust of the study and its significance are given. Chapter

two presents the review of relevant literature, while chapter three gives the methodology. Analysis and interpretation of data are given in chapters four, five and six. Chapter seven gives the summary of the study, the major findings and recommendations and the contribution of the researcher. Tools of data collection used in the study have been appended.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

In this part the data obtained from the respondents were analysed and interpreted.

The General Characteristics of the Respondents

Out of the 1100 senior pre-degree students, who were the respondents of this study, 670 were girls and 430 were boys. 86.5 per cent of the students belonged to the age group of 15-17 years and 13.5 per cent belonged to the age group of 17-19 years. The rural-urban composition of the respondents was the following: 778 (70.9%) students were from the rural background and 319 (29.1%) students were from the urban background (3 students did not reply, N. 1097).

The other characteristics of the students will be discussed alongwith the detailed interpretations of the data.

In this chapter analysis and interpretation regarding four socio-economic variables are given. They are:

- 4.1 Caste and Community affiliation
- 4.2 Economic Status of the family
- 4.3 Parental Education
- 4.4 Parental Occupation.

The occupational 'Aspirations' and 'Preferences' of the students are analysed and interpreted in relation to the above four variables.

4.1 Caste and Community Affiliation and Occupational Aspirations of College Students

Among the various factors affecting the occupational aspirations of college Youth caste and community differences are seen as predominant ones. A person's value system depends to a great extent on the traditional beliefs and attitudes held by the community to which he belongs. In the traditional Indian society, caste gave each member a fixed social milieu from birth to death and from which there was no escape.

But under the fastly changing situations of the society, caste system in India also has undergone many changes. Marriages between castes are not rare and occasionally we find individuals from low caste at the top of certain large concerns.

Now the question is whether it is only accidental that a few from the lower castes rise to responsible positions. The investigator therefore, wanted to study deeper and find whether the hypothesis "the occupational aspirations of college students are influenced by the caste of the students" is true or not. The investigator studied the aspirations of college students belonging to different castes and communities to know whether membership in a particular caste is helping the students to aspire for higher occupations, or membership in some other particular caste or community is hindering the students from aspiring for such occupations.

The Census Report of 1901 mentions 3000 castes and subcastes for the whole of India. According to this report there are 578 castes in Kerala. Cochin Census Report of 1901 gives the following list of castes in Kerala in the order of hierarchy.

1. Brahmins and allied castes consisting of Nambutiri, Muthad, Elad etc.
2. Kshatriya castes consisting of Thampuran, Thampan and Thirumulpad.

3. Antharala Jatis consisting of Nampidi, Ambalavasis, divided into Atikal, Chakkiyar, Chakkiyar Nambiyar, Nambiyar or Unni, Tiyyattu Unni, Pisharoti, Variyar, Puthuval and Marar.
4. Sudras consisting of high caste Nairs and low caste Nairs. The latter consists of Chaliyan (Weaver), Veluthedan (washerman) and Velakkathalavan (Barber).
5. Kammalans or artisan castes consisting of Kallasari (mason), Kollan (blacksmith), Marasari (Carpenter), Musari (bell-metal worker), Tattan (goldsmith), Tolkollan (leather worker).
6. Patika Jatis consisting of Iluvan or Thiyan (toddy taper), Velan, Arayan, Mukkuvan, Marakkan (all fishermen), Kaniyan (astrologer), Vilkurup (maker of bows and arrows), Panan (tailor), Velan (washerman for lower castes), Pulluvan (Singer in serpent grooves) and Paravan.
7. Nicha Jatis consisting of Kanakkan, Kootan, Pulayan or Cheruman, Parayan, Velluvan.
8. Extra Jatis consisting of Ulladan, Nayati.

The above written categories are the castes among the Hindus.

In the present study, the investigator has taken the caste and community groups as accepted by the government of Kerala for job reservations and for educational and other purposes. Accordingly there are three broad groups under which we can bring all the castes and communities. They are:

(1) Scheduled castes, (2) Backward communities and (3) Forward communities.

Scheduled Castes

All the communities that come in the special list given by the President of India as scheduled castes. This list is prepared on the basis of socio-economic criteria.

1. Adi Andhra
2. Adi Dravida
3. Adi Karnataka
4. Ajila
5. Arunthathiyar
6. Ayyanavar
7. Baira

8. Bakuda
9. Bandi
10. Bathada
11. Bellara
12. Bharatar
13. Boyan (excluding the areas comprising the Malabar district as specified by sub-section (2) of section 5 of the States Reorganization Act, 1956 (37 of 1956)).
14. Chakkiliyan
15. Chamar, Muchi
16. Chandala
17. Cheruman
18. Domban
19. Gavara
20. Godagali
21. Godda
22. Gosangi
23. Hasla
24. Holey a
25. Kadaiyan
26. Kakkalan
27. Kalladi
28. Kanakkan, Padanna
29. Karimpalan

30. Kavara
 31. Koosa
 32. Kootan, Koodan
 33. Kudumban
 34. Kuravan, Sidhanar
 35. Maila
 36. Malayan (in the areas comprising the Malabar district as specified by sub-section (2) of section 5 of the States Reorganization Act, 1956 (37 of 1956)).
 37. Mannan
 38. Mavilan
 39. Moger
 40. Mundala
 41. Nalakeyava
 42. Nalkadaya
 43. Nayadi
 44. Padannan
 45. Pallan
 46. Palluvan
 47. Pambada
 48. Panan
 49. Panchama
 50. Paraiyan, Parayan, Sambavar
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51. Paravan
52. Pathiyan
53. Perumannan
54. Pulayan, Cheramar
55. Pulaya Vettuvan
56. Puthirai Vannan
57. Raneyar
58. Samagar
59. Samban
60. Semman
61. Thandan
62. Thoti
63. Vallon
64. Valluvan
65. Vannan
66. Velan
67. Vetan
68. Vettuvan

Backward Communities

All the communities which are not included in the list of scheduled caste and forward communities. Muslims, Latin Catholics, Anglo-Indians, converted Christians and all hindus

who are not considered as scheduled castes or forward communities.

Forward Communities

All the communities not considered as backward communities or scheduled castes come under this heading. Brahmins, Nairs and other hindus who are not considered as backward or scheduled castes. All Christians except those coming under the backward communities also come in this group.

Results of the Study

Out of the 1100 students in the sample, 1096 students marked their occupational aspirations. There were 620 students belonging to the forward communities, 172 belonging to the backward communities and 304 from the Scheduled Castes (Table 4.1).

The results show that from all the groups, highest percentage of the students are aspiring for Professional - Managerial -1 occupations. From the forward communities 50 per cent aspire for this group, while 54.7 per cent from the backward communities and 37.8 per cent from the scheduled

Aspirations of the Students

		Occupational Aspirations of Students					
	Count Row Pct Col Pct	Professional- Managerial-I occupations	Professional- Managerial-II occupations	Semi-profess- ional occu- pations	Skilled occupat- ions	Row Total	
Forward Communities	310 50.0 59.7	108 17.4 63.5	94 15.2 45.0	108 17.4 54.5	620 56.6		
Caste and community affiliat- ions							
Backward Communities	94 54.7 18.1	33 19.2 19.4	24 14.0 11.5	21 12.2 10.6	172 15.7		
Scheduled Castes	115 37.8 22.2	29 9.5 17.1	91 29.9 43.5	69 22.7 34.8	304 27.7		
Column Total	519 47.4	170 15.5	209 19.1	198 18.1	1096 (missing observations 4)		

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

castes aspired for the same occupations. This shows the importance people from all communities give to these professions and the social prestige value they attach to them.

But one thing we have to note is that proportionately only lesser percentage of students from the scheduled caste aspire for the Professional-Managerial - 1 occupations. This result is in spite of a favourable suggestion given to the students before they marked their occupational aspirations. The suggestion was, "imagine that you have all the abilities and facilities to enter into any occupation and then mark your occupational aspiration". Even with this suggestion only if 37.8 per cent of the scheduled castes aspired for the socially prestigious occupations, it is an indication of the lack of internal adequacy among majority of the students belonging to the scheduled castes. The reminiscence of the feelings that they are from a discarded group and that prestigious occupations are not meant for them may be the thoughts of those students who did not aspire for these occupations.

Further, it was found that from the backward communities 54.7 per cent aspired for the professional-managerial-1 occupations. This is a little higher than the percentage of

students aspired for the same occupations from the forward communities, where only 50 percentage showed their aspirations. It is an apparently strange phenomenon that the students of backward communities showed the confidence even more than that showed by the forward communities to aspire for the prestigious occupations as doctor, engineer, lawyer, etc.

We can understand this phenomenon from various aspects. First, the communities coming under the "backward communities" in Kerala, cannot be said as socially backward. In the field of education, for example, while the NSS (Nair Service Society), a leading forward community, has 17 colleges, the SNDP (Sree Narayana Dharma Paripalana Yogam), a backward community has 15 colleges in Kerala. And the Muslim community, which is another backward community has 22 colleges here. Second, students belonging to the community to which the college belongs, get ten per cent seats reserved. In addition to this, 20 per cent seats are allotted as 'Management Quota', and these seats are also very often enjoyed by the students of that community. All these "backward communities" have a large number of schools also.

Educational facilities and opportunities, therefore, being equal, the students of the so called 'backward communities' get every chance equal to, or even more than the forward communities in the matter of social development.

The investigator could not find many studies comparing the forward and backward communities on the occupational aspirations. George and George Mathew (1966) studying the vocational aspirations of school leaving pupils found that more backward christians aspire to become teachers; fewer Muslims and Ezhavas aspired to become teachers and fewer members of scheduled castes aspired to become doctors. But in their study the aspirations of forward christians are not included.

The results of the present study therefore, is very important in comparing the occupational aspirations of forward communities and backward communities.

Few studies in the west comparing the occupational aspirations of minorities and the White say that minorities aspired for low status occupations. Porter, N.J. (1974) in the study "Race, Socialization and mobility in educational and early occupational attainment" says that, Whites earn more from socially prestigious occupations, while the blacks are satisfied with any type of job and earn

considerably less than the Whites. Reich (1981) in the study "Who benefits from Racism" found that minorities do not have the motivation for earning more. People may earn more from less prestigious occupations, but to aspire for socially prestigious occupations means that those aspiring for such occupations have the internal adequacy and this internal adequacy is the yardstick here to measure the spread of democracy among the citizens of the country.

The Mandal Commission while granting 27 per cent reservation to the members of the backward communities had the view that these were socially and economically backward. But at least in Kerala the social situations have changed. This situation in Kerala is clear from the present study where more members from the backward communities than from the forward communities aspired for higher occupations. The very aspiration to higher occupations can be seen as a very good indicator in the development of internal adequacy among the students of backward communities.

Thus, the awareness of opportunities and the confidence to make use of them have increased considerably among the backward communities. One point I would like to add without delay is that this

picture is of those in the colleges. The possibility is that those who are not in the colleges may show a different trend. This we have yet to study.

Another important question that may arise at this point is that why the forward community members fall behind the backward community members in the matter of aspirations to the professional - managerial occupations?

Among the forward communities there can be the possibility of disappointment in the issue of reservation for the backward communities. While many students are economically in difficulty, many members of the so called backward communities are even able to 'buy' seats by giving capitation fee. In such situation reservation also is received by that group. The outburst of the disappointments may be the self-immolation events by many students of the forward communities. Except in Central Services, in Kerala, already such reservations were in effect years before. And this is one reason why there was no much commotion in Kerala after the declaration of the Mandal Commission Report. Kerala students, to some extent, have adjusted to this policy.

And this adjustment is seen from Table 4.1. After

the first 50 per cent aspiring for professional-managerial-I occupations the rest 50 per cent students are aspiring for the other three groups of occupations without giving much preference to any single group. 17.4 per cent aspired for the Professional-managerial-II occupations, 15.2 per cent aspire for semiprofessional occupations and 17.4 per cent aspire for the skilled jobs. This shows after the 50 per cent who keep some hope of entering in professional-Managerial-I occupation, the rest is ready to take up any job not showing any emphasis to any of the other groups.

While comparing with the students of the forward communities, another phenomenon which we find among the scheduled caste students is that, only 9.5 per cent of them aspire for the professional-managerial-II occupations, while from the forward communities 17.4 per cent students aspire these occupations. Since only lesser qualifications are needed for the semi-professional and skilled occupations more than half of the scheduled caste students aspired for those occupations: 29.9 per cent for the semi-professional and 22.7 per cent for the skilled occupations. And from the backward communities 19.2 aspired for the professional-managerial-II occupations. Thus, compared to the forward

communities and backward communities the scheduled caste students' aspirational percentage is very low in case of occupations like professor, lecturer, manager, officer etc. This is another indicator reaffirming the lack of adequacy among the scheduled caste students to aspire for the socially prestigious occupations of the second category also.

Thus we can say that with regard to the Professional-Managerial - I occupations more members of the backward communities aspire for this category of occupations than by the forward communities and the scheduled castes. Fewer members of the scheduled caste aspire for professional-managerial-I occupations than by the forward communities and the backward communities. From the forward communities 50 per cent aspire for the professional-managerial-I occupations and the other 50 per cent aspire for the professional-managerial-II occupations, semi professional occupations and skilled occupations in rather equal percentages.

The chi-square test shows the result is significant at $P < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
51.78092	6	0.0000

Thus significant association was found between the castes and communities and the occupational aspiration.

Caste and Communities and Occupational Preferences

The students were asked also to mark their preference for occupations considering the particular family situations and other possibilities for entering in that occupation. Analysing the data here also we find similar results but the concentration of preferences was shifted to different occupational groups (Table 4.2).

The professional-managerial-I occupations were preferred by 26.9 per cent of the forward communities and by 26.2 per cent of the backward communities. Thus there is no much difference in the occupational preferences of the forward communities and backward communities with regard to the preferences for the professional-managerial-I occupations group. Another important feature is that the highly preferred occupations by the forward communities are the skilled work. 29.1 per cent from the students of the forward communities preferred the skilled work. Among the students of the backward communities, the highly preferred occupations are the semi-professional occupations. 30.8

Table - 4.2: Crosstabulation: Caste and Community Affiliation Vs Occupational Preferences of the Students

		Occupational Preferences of Students					
Count		Professional- Managerial-I occupations	Professional- Managerial-II occupations	Semi-profess- ional occupat- ions	Skilled occupat- ions	Row Total	
Caste and community affiliat- ions	Forward communities	167 26.9 63.3	116 18.7 63.4	157 25.3 53.4	181 29.1 51.0	621 56.7	
	Backward communities	45 26.2 17.0	29 16.9 15.8	53 30.8 18.0	45 26.2 12.7	172 15.7	
	Scheduled Castes	52 17.2 19.7	38 12.5 20.8	84 27.7 28.6	129 42.6 36.3	303 27.6	
Column Total		264 24.1	183 16.7	294 26.8	355 32.4	1096 (missing observations 4)	

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

28.40900 6 0.0001 28.719 None

per cent from the backward communities preferred these occupations (Table 4.2).

Here again we find that more students from the backward communities prefer the semi-professional occupations and only a lesser percentage from the forward communities prefer the same occupations. Thus the occupational preference level in terms of social prestige value is more for the backward communities than for the forward communities. Thus the theory of the internal adequacy is reaffirmed here. The internal adequacy developed through the years as a result of government policies and other preferences for the backward caste is depicted in the present result. And we may suspect whether this internal adequacy is weakened among the students of the forward communities as a result of the same government policies and reservation rules. These results have great practical significance, because the students marked their preference, only after assessing their overall abilities and facilities to enter in those occupations.

As in the case of the occupational aspirations the occupational preferences of the scheduled castes are also at a lower percentage when compared to the students of the

backward communities and the forward communities. Only 17.2 per cent from the scheduled caste preferred the professional-managerial-I occupations, while 26.9 per cent from the forward communities and 26.2 per cent from the backward communities preferred the same occupations.

More students from the scheduled caste preferred skilled work. One reason for this can be that comparatively only less educational qualifications are needed for the skilled work. Only fewer students from the scheduled castes preferred for the occupations that needed higher educational qualifications. The decreasing trend is like this: 42.6 per cent for the skilled works; 27.7 per cent for the semi-professional occupations and 12.5 per cent for the professional-managerial-II occupations. Here we can notice that the internal adequacy of the scheduled castes is more for the skilled work. The least aspired (9.5%) and the least preferred (12.5%) occupations by the scheduled caste are the professional-managerial-II occupations.

Chi square test shows that the association is significant at $p < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
28.40900	6	0.0001

The scheduled caste students have still to acquire the needed internal adequacy to come upto the level of other communities. For many youth who are handicapped by socio-economic or minority ethnic status, negative experiences with neighbourhood, school and work have often created serious obstacles to the growth of vocational maturity and adjustment to work. Distrust of education, meaningless social reward system, lack of recognition for intellectual promise, the absence of effective occupational role models in the home environment and poor school and guidance facilities have been typical conditions with which disadvantaged children and adolescents have had to content themselves. For many, these have been factors too difficult to circumvent and which, when combined, have militated powerfully against the prospects for adequate career development. The consequences are to be seen in the behaviour of those boys and girls who may hold negative self-images as potential workers and who lack realistic pictures of the world of work. They show inability or unwillingness to undertake long-range planning, seek immediate or short-term payoffs on their efforts and fail to comprehend the conventional work etiquette that employers appear to expect from those seeking work.

This does not mean that young people from the disadvantaged sectors of society categorically reject the concept of work as a personal value. By and large, their attitude toward work appears similar to that of youth from the higher socio-economic class. Like those of higher socio-economic class, they seek work as the chief means of upward socio-economic mobility and as a way of acquiring some degree of personal power. Yet many of them are understandably pessimistic about their chances of finding attractive employment and some are uncertain of their ability to achieve success in their career.

Especially in Kerala situation those in the scheduled castes have good opportunities with reservations in jobs. But we know that many posts are vacant due to the lack of qualified hands. Thus a general lethargy is found among the scheduled caste students to continue studies and to get good jobs. They seek easy work and more money to improve their socio-economic conditions. Their expectations of work as a means to a better life may be high. Young minority group members, when employed, are more likely than older employees to complain of work that is dull, repetitious and meaningless.

Among the sample of Polish, Irish and Italian blue-collar workers, job dissatisfaction was reported with much higher frequency by the younger subjects than by those in middle age and older worker categories (Levine and Herman, 1973).

Members of the scheduled caste have also to struggle against the unfavourable home environments in the process of their career development and choice. A number of observers have described the virtually universal tendency of healthy infants and young children to explore their immediate environment and to strive for mastery in dealing with it. Laura Murphy (1962) calls this "coping behaviour", she states that it is to be seen in the young child's persistent efforts to satisfy curiosity, to participate in what is going on around him (rather than to avoid it) and to increase his manipulation and control of his delimited surrounding world. Robert White (1959) uses the term "competence" and effectance motivation in his account of how the child learns to deal successfully with his environment. Effectance motivation, White says, is commonly exhibited in the play and exploratory activities of young individuals. Gardner Murphy (1973) relates notions of coping and developmental mastery behaviour in children to "work and the productive personality". Children of the scheduled caste families get only limited family environmental facilities to have this developmental mastery behaviour.

A number of other studies have the conclusion that eminent men do not come with proportionate frequency from all socio-economic levels. Being a member in the lower socio-economic group does not make it impossible to achieve eminence in any field, but it surely makes it less probable. The effect may be an indication of the greater opportunities open to upper class persons, as well as an indication of difference in motivation resulting from training. Studies have shown that in the United States half of the scientists have been the sons of Professional men (Cattell and Brimhall, 1921; Roe, 1953; Visher, 1947). In 1932 Taussing and Joslyn found that half of the business leaders had fathers who were businessmen.

Similar relationships are seen in other countries too. Geiger (1950) says that the Danish intelligentsia are recruited more numerously from the professional classes. He further found that, the middle class, although in smaller proportions, has made a notable contribution to the more practical sciences and to the well-to-do in business and the few members of the lower class who broke into the intelligentsia usually achieved enduring fame. The last factor is true in the case of India also. Eminent personalities like Ambedkar, B.R. and Narayanan, K.R. belonging to socially backward communities, had a marvellous performance in the development of Indian democracy.

Religious Affiliations and Occupational Aspirations of
College Students

Religion also may influence the occupational aspiration decision making of the college students. People belonging to certain religious groups may have traditional attractions to certain types of jobs and may have apathy to certain other type of jobs.

In the present study the investigator, while studying the influence of castes and communities on the occupational aspirations, also studied the different religious affiliations of the students to check the influence if any, on the occupational decision making. 1096 students responded to the question of religion. Among them there were 654 hindus (59.7%), 386 christians (35.2%) and 56 muslims (5.1%). (Table 4.3).

The result shows that there is no significant influence of religion on the occupational aspirations of college students. From the hindus 23.5 per cent aspired for the professional-managerial-I occupations, while 25.1 per cent from the christians and 23.2 per cent from the muslims

Table - 4.3: Crosstabulation: Religion Vs Occupational Aspirations of Students

		Occupational Aspirations of Students				
Count		Professional- Managerial-I occupations	Professional-II Managerial occupations	Semi-profe- ssional occu- pations	Skilled occupat- ions	Row Total
Reli- gion	Hindus	154 23.5 58.3	106 16.2 57.9	179 27.4 60.9	215 32.9 60.6	654 59.7
	Christians	97 25.1 36.7	65 16.8 35.5	99 25.6 33.7	125 32.4 35.2	386 35.2
	Muslims	13 23.2 4.9	12 21.4 6.6	16 28.6 5.4	15 26.8 4.2	56 5.1
Column Total		264 24.1	183 16.7	294 26.8	355 32.4	1096 (missing 100.0 observat- ions 4)

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F.< 5

2.04615 6 0.9154 9.350 None

aspired for the same occupations. Thus from every religious group rather equal percentages of students are aspiring for the 'most prestigious' occupations. And again for the semi-professional occupations following is the percentage of students aspired from the different groups: Hindus 27.4 per cent, christians 25.6 per cent, muslims 28.6 per cent. Similar results are seen for other occupational groups also. Even in the last category of skilled labour, there is similarity in the percentages of students aspiring from different religious groups. Hindus: 32.9 per cent, christians 32.4 per cent and muslims 26.8 per cent.

Chi square test shows that the result is not significant at $P = 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
2.04615	6	0.9154

Thus we do not find much association between occupational aspirations and religion. In Kerala, although people believe in religions, religion is not capturing the total life style of the people in terms of their occupational aspirations and other employment factors.

The investigator could not find many studies in this regard. A study by Yadav (1979) named, "A study of motives for the vocational preferences of adolescents", quoted in Indian Educational Review concluded that there was no influence of religion on the occupational aspirations of adolescents. Yadav studied six hundred students of Agra district. Agra being in the northern part of India and Kerala in the South end, these results are significant on the occupational aspirations of college students in India. Although we cannot claim an all India trend due to the enormous diversities in India, we can at least say that the present study had supportive findings in the north end of India also.

Let us also examine some similar studies abroad. Fry (1933) classified the first half of 'who is who' entries in 1910-1911 into occupational and denominational church membership groups. He reports that only 56 per cent had given a denominational affiliation; this is roughly the same as that recorded for the total population there. Fry remarks that failure to give an affiliation did not necessarily mean that one was lacking, but it can however be interpreted as meaning that such an affiliation was not personally so important to the subject. He also noted that the more creative or

mechanical the occupation, the less likely religious affiliation was to be recorded. And another important finding from Fry is that the Protestant sect which discourages free inquiry among their members contributed the fewest scientists. Thus Fry found some association, though not strong, between the religious affiliations and occupations.

And so, religious affiliations may have some relationships to occupational selection, but in the overall social picture, it is usually an indirect one and very often connected with some other aspects. In some cases those connected with selection and promotion may favour a member of the same religious affiliation and this may cause the entry and promotion of few in that occupation. This is only an indirect relationship.

In Kerala, more than religious affiliation, it is the political affiliation that can be a factor to enter into key positions, through direct appointment or promotion. We do not have data for that at present and we have yet to study this effect of political affiliations on the occupational entry.

4.2 Economic Status and Occupational Aspirations of College Students

In this part we analyse the economic status of the

family of the students and examine how the students with different economic status aspire for the different occupations. In the present society where people believe that everything can be bought by money, it is possible that our college youth also think that money can "buy" any occupation too. It is with this confidence that the economically sound parents may pressurize their children to aspire for higher occupations that may bring prestige to the family. In many medical and engineering colleges seats are available if enough capitation fee is given. Thus there is a chance that the annual income of the family becomes a key variable influencing the occupational aspirations of the students. The investigator eagerly seeks answer to this problem here.

On the basis of the data received, the students were divided into five groups related to the annual income of their families as: (1) Upto Rs.5000, (2) Rs.5001 to 15000, (3) Rs.15001 to 25000, (4) Rs. 25001 to 35000, (5) Above Rs.35001.

Results show that as the annual income of the family increases the aspirations of the students for higher occupations also increase (Table 4.4). Only 37.9 per cent from

of Students

		<u>Occupational Aspirations of Students</u>					
Count		Professional- Managerial-I occupations	Semi-profess- ional occupat- ions	Skilled occupat- ions	Row Total		
Row Pct	Col Pct						
Upto Rs. 5000		116 37.9 22.4	46 15.0 27.2	73 23.9 34.4	71 23.2 35.9	306 27.9	
Rs. 5001-15000		130 44.5 25.0	42 14.4 24.9	62 21.2 29.2	58 19.9 29.3	292 26.6	
Annual income of fa- mily		113 53.8 21.8	30 14.3 17.8	36 17.1 17.0	31 14.8 15.7	210 19.1	
Rs. 25001-35000		56 57.1 10.8	15 15.3 8.9	13 13.3 6.1	14 14.3 7.1	98 8.9	
Above Rs. 35000		104 54.2 20.0	36 18.8 21.3	28 14.6 13.2	24 12.5 12.1	192 17.5	
Column Total		519 47.3	169 15.4	212 19.3	198 18.0	1098 (missing 100.0 observat- ions 2)	

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

32.55383 12 0.0011 15.084 None

the lowest income group aspired for the professional-managerial-I occupations and 44.5 per cent from the next higher income group aspired for the same jobs. The percentage of students aspiring for the professional-managerial-I occupations is more than fifty in the case of the remaining three groups of higher income: 53.8 per cent from the third income group, 57.1 per cent from the fourth income group and 54.2 per cent from the fifth income group.

Although an increasing trend is seen in the occupational aspiration in relation to the family income, students of the highest income group is 3 per cent lesser in their aspiration for the professional-managerial-I occupations than the students in the income group just below the highest income group. The reason for this may be, except having money, some of the students of the highest income group may be intellectually poor and consequently lack the capability and the confidence to aspire for the occupations that need an above average intellectual standard. Still 54.2 per cent of the student from the highest income aspiring for the professional-managerial-I occupations is worth noting.

There is a change in the trend with regard to the third and fourth groups of occupations. While only 14.6 per cent of the students from the highest income group aspired for the third group of occupations (semi-professional), 23.9 per cent from the lowest income group aspired for the same occupations. While only 12.5 per cent of the students from the highest income group aspired for fourth group of occupations (skilled works), 23.2 per cent of the students from the lowest income group aspired for the same occupations. Thus we find clear association between the occupational aspirations and the annual income of the family. The general trend was that, as the family income increased, the aspirations for higher occupations also increased.

The result is significant at $P < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
32.55383	12	0.0011

The phenomenon that the students from the higher income families aspire for higher occupations might be due to the special situations prevailing in our country. First of all, the availability of seats in medical and engineering colleges on payment of capitation fee is an important

motivating factor for the students from the economically well placed families. It is a bare reality that a student with a minimum mark of 51 per cent manages to get a seat in a medical college if his parents are able to pay four or five lakhs rupees as capitation fee, while a student with 95 per cent marks may fail to get a seat in a medical college merely because he belongs to a lower income group. We have to keep in mind also the fact that the economically weaker students have to overcome a number of difficulties to reach their intellectual excellence. While every circumstance may be favourable for the students from the higher income families, the students from the lower income families struggle hard to get the minimum facilities for their academic development.

Thus the economically weaker students do not aspire in high percentages for higher occupations because they think they do not have the "purchasing power" due to lack of money. If merits were the chief criteria throughout the country, the result would have been different.

In addition to the "purchasing power" the influence of the family members, especially the parents who are in the professional occupations, is motivating the students of high income families to aspire for higher professions.

This aspect we will discuss in detail in the latter part of the chapter, when we analyse the association between the fathers' occupations and the occupational aspirations of the students.

Economic Status and the Occupational Preferences of the Students

The investigator also studied the occupational preferences of the college students as related to their family income. The question asked was, "although you aspire for particular occupations, considering all the real situations in you and at home what occupations would you like to enter"? This was to know if there was any difference in the trend of occupational aspirations and preferences of the students.

Here again, the results show that the highest percentage of students preferred the professional-managerial-I occupations were from the highest annual income group. Although the trend is the same as in the case of occupational aspiration, with regard to the occupational preference there is decrease in the percentage of students who preferred the professional-managerial-I occupations. For example Table 4. shows that, while 34.4 per cent of the students from the

Table - 4.5: Crosstabulation: Annual Income of the Family Vs Occupational Preferences of Students

Count Row Pct Col Pct	Occupational Preferences of Students				Row Total
	Professional- Managerial-I occupations	Professional- Managerial-II occupations	Semi-profess- ional occupat- ions	Skilled occupat- ions	
Upto Rs.5000	56 18.4 21.2	43 14.1 23.2	93 30.5 31.6	113 37.0 31.8	305 27.8
Rs.5001-15000	52 17.8 19.7	45 15.4 24.3	101 34.6 34.4	94 32.2 26.5	292 26.6
Annual income	59 28.1 22.3	41 19.5 22.2	40 19.0 13.6	70 33.3 19.7	210 19.1
Rs.25001-35000	31 31.3 11.7	17 17.2 9.2	29 29.3 9.9	22 22.2 6.2	99 9.0
Above Rs.35000	66 34.4 25.0	39 20.3 21.1	31 16.1 10.5	56 29.2 15.8	192 17.5
Column Total	264 24.0	185 16.8	294 26.8	355 32.3	1098 (missing 100.0 observat- ions 2)

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

52.08646 12 0.0000 16.680 None

highest income group preferred the professional-managerial-I occupations, only 18.4 per cent from the lowest income preferred for the same category of occupations.

Another feature we find is that, the preference of the students from the lowest income group for the professional-managerial-I occupations is slightly higher than the preference for the same occupations by the students of the income group which is next higher than the lowest income group. This might be due to the fact the lowest income group being those having an annual family income upto Rs.5000 only, the chances are that many from the scheduled castes come in this economic group. And the scheduled caste students, on the strength of reservation, might have given preference for the professional-managerial-I occupations. With this special feature, the trend is that the higher the income, the higher is the preference for higher occupations.

This phenomenon is clearer, when we analyse the preference of the students to the third (Semiprofessional) and fourth (skilled) groups of occupations. While only 16.1 per cent from the highest income group preferred the semi-professional occupations, 30.5 per cent from the lowest

income group preferred the same occupations. Thus we see that, the lower the income level of the students, the lower is the percentage of students aspiring for higher occupations and vice versa (Table 4.5).

The result is significant at $p < 0.05$ level.

D.F.	chi-square	Significance
12	52.08646	0.0000

The chi-square test shows perfect association between the annual income of the family and the occupational preference of the students.

The present finding is in tune with the results of the study by Rajendra Pandey. Pandey (1973) found that the choice for professional occupations is the highest at the second and third highest income level and lowest at the two opposite extremes.

Another study giving similar results is by George, E.I. and George Mathew (1966). They studied 2038 students from the final year class of 14 high schools in Thiruvananthapuram

Educational District. They found that out of the vocations, pupils from the higher income groups desire to become "doctors" and "engineers", while vocations "teacher", "clerk", "nurse" are favoured by the low income groups.

However, the findings here are not in full agreement with the results of the study by Gopala Pillai (1975) who saw that children from low or middle income families seek higher status by trying to enter higher level occupations. In the present study, although more than one third from the lowest income group aspire for the professional-managerial-I occupations, the aspirations of low income groups are not so prominent when compared to the higher income group. But considering the aspirations of the lower income group alone, it is commendable that 37.9 per cent of them are aspiring for the professional-managerial-I occupations (Table 4.4).

Thus the income level of the family stands as a very prominent variable in determining the occupational aspirations as well as occupational preferences of the college students.

4.3 Parental Education and Occupational Aspirations of the College Students

High educational qualifications very often mean high

status occupations. As the educational qualifications of the parents are higher, the students get more help and inspiration from the parents for higher education and consequently for higher occupations. The occupational transmission process has direct bearing on status attainment of the individuals. Although specific occupational inheritance such as entering one's family business is less common than in earlier era, the transmission effect still operates powerfully in terms of attitude towards education, social leadership and occupational prestige. To have aspirations for higher occupations, the attitude towards education must be very positive.

Hall (1975) has noted that occupational inheritance persists in that the college students with college trained fathers equip themselves for fields of work that offer the rewards and conditions experienced by their fathers. Thus it is commonly believed that educated parents can influence their children's occupational development and occupational aspirations more than by the parents who are less educated. Hence the investigator was curious to learn how far the parental education is influencing the occupational aspirations of the college students.

The present study revealed that (Table 4.6) from the students of graduate and post-graduate fathers, 55.8 per cent aspired for the professional-managerial-I occupations. From the students of the fathers with 'High School', 'Pre-degree' and 'Technical qualifications', 51.2 per cent aspired for the same occupations. From the students of the parents with only "upto upper primary" education, 38.5 per cent aspired for these occupations. Thus when the fathers' educational standard is lower, the percentage of students aspiring for higher occupations is lower. But one significant finding is that from students of the illiterate fathers 38.5 per cent aspired for professional-managerial-I occupations. This might be because, the students from scheduled caste parents might have entered considerably into this group. And the students from the scheduled castes have great motivation for aspiration to these professional vocations due to reservation of seats in the professional colleges.

There are only 13.5 per cent students of the graduate and post-graduate fathers aspiring for the skilled work. As the educational qualifications of the fathers are lower, the percentage of students aspiring for the skilled work is higher. From the students of the fathers with High School, Pre-degree

Students

Count Row Pct Col Pct	<u>Occupational Aspirations of Students</u>					Row Total
	Professional- Managerial-I occupations	Professional- Managerial-II occupations	Semi-profess- ional occupat- ions	Skilled occupat- ions		
Illiterate	35 38.5 7.4	11 12.1 7.3	19 20.9 9.9	26 28.6 14.9	91 9.2	
Upto upper primary	104 38.5 22.1	45 16.7 30.0	70 25.9 36.6	51 18.9 29.3	270 27.4	
Fathers' Education	High School Technical(ITI) qualifications	187 51.2 39.7	51 14.0 34.0	65 17.8 34.0	62 17.0 35.6	365 37.0
Graduation and post-graduat- ions	145 55.8 30.8	43 16.5 28.7	37 14.2 19.4	35 13.5 20.1	260 26.4	
Column Total	471 47.8	150 15.2	191 19.4	174 17.6	986 (missing 100.0 observat- ions 4)	

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

31.67967 9 0.0002 13.844 None

and technical education, 17 per cent aspired for the skilled work and from the students of the fathers with upper primary education, 18.9 per cent aspired for the same occupations, and from the students with illiterate parents, 28.6 per cent aspired for these occupations. Thus we find that more students of the graduate and post-graduate fathers aspire for the professional-managerial-I occupations and more students of the father's with lower educational qualifications aspire for skilled work and from the students of the illiterate fathers there is still more percentage aspiring for the skilled work.

Thus we find good association between father's education and students' occupational aspirations. Among those aspired the professional-managerial-I occupations only 7.4 per cent are from the illiterate group, while 30.8 per cent are from the graduate and post-graduate group. This again shows the clear association between the educational standard of the fathers and the occupational aspirations of the students.

Chi square test shows that the result is significant at $p < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
31.67967	9	0.0002

Mothers' Education and Occupational Aspirations of the Students

The investigator studied the educational standard of the students' mothers. It may happen in some cases that mothers may be more educated than fathers. Fathers, because of their social status they acquired through money from business, plantations etc. and without much higher education may marry women having higher educations. This may be because first of all, parents of the educated girls wanted to give their daughters in marriage to the well-to-do families and secondly because the men wanted their next generation be educated and for this the presence of educated mothers they think, would be beneficial. Hence, an inquiry into the educational standard of the mothers become very helpful in understanding the parental influence on the occupational aspirations of college students.

As in the matter of fathers, the mothers were also studied dividing them into four groups:

(1) Illiterate, (2) Upper primary (3) High School, Pre-degree and technical qualifications (4) Graduates and post-graduates.

Table - 4.7: Crosstabulation: Mothers' Education Vs Occupational Aspirations of Students

Count Row Pct Col Pct	Occupational Aspirations of Students				Row Total
	Professional- Managerial-I occupations	Professional- Managerial-II occupations	Semi-profess- ional occu- pations	Skilled occupat- ions	
Illiterate	53 36.8 10.8	18 12.5 11.2	37 25.7 18.9	36 25.0 19.3	144 13.9
Upto upper primary	111 40.7 22.6	42 15.4 26.1	65 23.8 33.2	55 20.1 29.4	273 26.4
Mothers' Educat- ion	196 50.8 39.9	59 15.3 36.6	64 16.6 32.7	67 17.4 35.8	386 37.3
Graduation and post-graduation	131 56.5 26.7	42 18.1 26.1	30 12.9 15.3	29 12.5 15.5	232 22.4
Column Total	491 47.4	161 15.6	196 18.9	187 18.1	1035 (missing 100.0 observat- ions 65)
<u>Chi-square</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Min E.F.</u>	<u>Cells with E.F. < 5</u>	
33.84181	9	0.0001	22.400	None	138

The results show that (Table 4.7) the trend of the occupational aspirations of the students as related to mothers' education is similar to the trend of the occupational aspirations of the students as related to father's education. From the 232 students whose mothers are either graduates or post-graduates, 56.5 per cent aspired for professional-managerial-I occupations. Only 36.8 per cent from the students whose mothers are illiterate, aspired for the professional-managerial-I occupations. Thus it was found that the higher the educational qualifications of the mothers, the higher is the percentage of students aspiring for higher occupations. Table 4.7 gives clear trend. The percentages of students from different categories aspiring for professional-managerial-I occupations are given below: from the students of graduate and post-graduate mothers; 56.5 per cent; from the students whose mothers have high school, pre degree or technical education: 50.8 per cent; from the students whose mothers have upper primary education: 40.7 per cent and finally from the students whose mothers are illiterate; 36.8 per cent.

A similar trend is seen with regard to the professional-managerial-II occupations also.

But, as it is clear from Table 4.7 this trend is reversed with regard to the aspirations for semi-professional and skilled works. Here it was found that more students of illiterate mothers aspired for semi-professional and skilled works and less number of students of graduate and post-graduate mothers aspired for the semi-professional and skilled occupations. And we can note also a gradual increase in the percentage of students aspiring for the semi-professional and skilled works, when there was a decrease in the mother's educational status. Only 12.9 per cent from the students of graduate and post-graduate mothers aspired for semi-professional occupations; from the students of the mothers with High School, Pre degree and technical educations, 16.6 per cent aspired for this group of occupations; from the students whose mothers have education upto upper primary level 23.8 per cent aspired the same occupations and finally from the students whose mothers are illiterate 25.7 per cent aspired for these category of occupations.

And for the skilled work the aspirations of the students were in the following manner: From the students of graduate and post-graduate mothers: 12.5 per cent; from the students of High School, Pre degree and technically

qualified mothers: 17.4 per cent; from the students mothers having upto upper primary education: 20.1 per cent and finally from the students whose mothers are illiterate: 25.0 per cent.

Chi-square test was administered and the result is significant at $p < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
33.84181	9	0.0001

The investigator could come across only very few studies associating the parental educational status and the occupational aspirations of the students. Sheo Kumar Lal (1976) studied the occupational aspirations of scheduled caste students in relation to the educational standards of their parents. The study was conducted among the scheduled castes/tribes in Rajasthan. He studied 233 students and found that fathers' education did not make any significant difference in the occupational aspirations of the students.

In the present study we found that there is good association between the parental education and students' occupational aspirations. In the study of Sheo Kumar Lal the scheduled caste students were the respondents. And

therefore most of the fathers of these students are illiterate or low educated. And hence the influence can also be minimum or not at all. If only they aspire for higher occupations inspite of the illiterate parents, the chief motivating factor is the reservation policy of the government. Amba Rao, U. (1976) in the study "A sociological study of occupational choices of under-graduate girl students" did not find any close association between the educational level of the fathers and the occupational choices of their children. Rao found that respondents whose fathers had studied upto S.S.L.C. have preferred more professional (30%) and white collar jobs (33%). Respondents whose fathers had studied upto graduation and above have relatively preferred professional (40%) and white collar jobs (37.5%). Also respondents whose fathers were illiterate have preferred professional (33.3%) and white collar jobs (33.3%) respectively.

The results of the studies conducted using the Blau and Duncan Path Model (1967) give good association between the parental education and students occupational choice, Blau and Duncan gave two major contributions in the field of occupational aspirations. First, this model collected the primary elements of the existing theory of mobility and converted into a formal model of occupational attainment

Secondly, the model made the application of a graded scale to indicate the level of occupational prestige or, a socio-economic index (SIE) (Duncan 1961). This model found relation between fathers' education and respondents' occupation. But the relationship is connected by an intermediate variable-respondent's education. Thus this model gives the path of occupational choice as the following: Parental education → Respondent's education → Respondent's occupation.

This means, if the parents are educated, they naturally, in the normal circumstances will try to understand the abilities of their children from early years and will influence their education consequently their occupation too.

A family with educated parents is a very good environment for their children's career development. Different interests for different occupations are developed by children in the family through their experiences in the childhood. Parents will have certain plans as to what their children in future are to become. Although almost all parents may have imaginations about their children's future career, the educated parents can guide the children according to their plans and according to the abilities and interests (Davies and Kandel, 1981).

Hotchkiss and Chitaji (1981) have found that parents may also be influenced by the career expectations that their children hold for themselves. The salient feature we get from their study is that there is continual development of career expectations during the high school years. Educated parents influence the expectations of their children more, but the children, in turn, influence what is expected of them by the parents. This shows that even when parents influence the development of the career plans of the children, there are chances of change in the plans as the children grow and come into contact with various occupational situations. And as adolescents they may get opportunity to assess their abilities and interests against various occupations. But still the basic idea remains with effect that the interests for occupations are developed to a great extent during childhood, and parents play a very significant role in the development of these various occupational interests. And if the parents are having good educational background the influence they can exert on children will be great. This is the result of the present study.

4.4 Fathers' Occupation and Occupational Aspirations of College Students

Parents in high occupations generally encourage their children to take up similar or higher occupations. Occupation

is an important factor giving prestige and income to the family. Parents want to keep up the prestige they acquired through their occupation and are interested in protecting the financial soundness of their family. Very often we find parents proudly speaking of their sons and daughters in high positions, while ignoring other children if any, who are not in high positions in the occupational ladder. Parents therefore, for the welfare of their children as well as for the fame and prestige of themselves, pressurize their children to enter prestigious occupations.

The investigator studied the occupations of fathers of the students and examined whether there was any relationship between the occupations of the fathers and the occupational aspirations of college students. To study this phenomenon, the parents of the students were grouped into seven categories on the basis of their occupations. They were:

- (1) Professional-managerial-I, (2) Professional-managerial-II,
- (3) Semi-professional, (4) Skilled (5) Semiskilled works,
- (6) Unskilled works and (7) Unemployed.

As it is clear from Table 4.8 the study revealed that the higher the occupations of the fathers, the higher is the percentage of students aspiring for higher occupations. From

Table - 4.8: Fathers' Occupations Vs Occupational Aspiration of Students

Count Row Pct Col Pct	Occupational Aspirations of Students				Row Total
	Professional- Managerial-I occupations	Professional- Managerial-II occupations	Semi-profess- ional occupat- ions	Skilled occupat- ions	
Professional- Managerial-I occupations	31 66 6.5	5 10.6 3.0	6 12.8 3.1	5 10.6 2.8	47 4.7
Professional- Managerial-II occupations	63 62.4	19 18.8	5 14.9	14 13.9	101 10
Semi-profess- ional occupat- ions	85 53.4 17.9	26 16.3 16.0	25 15.8 12.8	23 14.5 12.8	159 15.7
Skilled occu- pations	74 46.6 15.5	30 18.9 18.5	34 21.3 17.5	21 13.2 11.7	159 15.7
Semi-skilled occupations	56 40.3 11.7	22 15.9 13.5	33 23.7 16.9	28 20.1 15.7	139 13.7
Unskilled occupations	146 40.8 30.7	49 13.7 30.2	87 24.3 44.6	76 21.2 42.4	358 35.4
Unemployed	21 42.9 4.4	11 22.4 6.8	5 10.2 2.6	12 24.5 6.8	49 4.8
Column Total	476 47.0	162 16.0	195 19.3	179 17.7	1012 (missin 100.0 observa ions 10

<u>Chi-square</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Min E.F.</u>	<u>Cells with E.F. < 5</u>
60.97	18	0.0000	7.521	None

the students whose parents are in professional-managerial-I occupations, 66 per cent aspired for professional-managerial-I occupations. From the students whose parents are in professional-managerial-II occupations, 62.4 per cent aspired for professional-managerial-I occupations. From the rest of the occupational groups of the fathers, the percentages of students aspired for the professional-managerial-I occupations are the following: from the students of the fathers in semi-professional occupations: 53.4 per cent; from the students of the fathers in skilled occupations: 46.6 per cent; from the students of the fathers in unskilled occupations: 40.8 per cent; from the students whose fathers are unemployed: 42.9 per cent. This clearly shows that when the fathers occupations are higher, the students aspire for higher occupations and vice versa (Table 4.8).

Analysing the data received for the aspirations for the skilled work, we find that as the occupational standards of the fathers are lower, the percentages of students aspiring for skilled work are higher. The percentages of students aspiring for skilled work are the following: From the students of parents in professional-managerial-I occupations: 10.6 per cent; from the students of the fathers in professional

managerial-II occupations: 13.9 per cent; from the students of the fathers in semi-professional occupations: 14.5 per cent; from the students of the fathers in skilled work: 13.2 per cent; from the students of the fathers in semi-skilled occupations: 20.1 per cent; from the students of the fathers in unskilled occupations: 21.2 per cent and from the students of the fathers who are unemployed: 24.5 per cent. So if the students of the fathers in higher occupations are aspiring for higher occupations, it is partly due to the fathers' influence at home and the presence of high occupational models served by the fathers.

Another important finding is that from all the "fathers occupational groups", more of the students aspired for the professional-managerial-I occupations which include doctor, engineer etc. Out of the 1012 students responded, 476 students aspired for the professional-managerial-I occupations. This comes to 47 per cent of the total respondents. The other 53 per cent of the students were spread in the other three groups of occupations. This blind attraction to the professional-managerial-I occupations is the present trend in Kerala. Majority of the students feel that if they do not get through the entrance examinations for medical or

engineering colleges or if they are unable to purchase a seat in the professional colleges, their future is not going to be prosperous. All students at least feel that they should at least appear for the entrance examination to keep their position among the other students and also in the society in general. And so we find that even from the students whose fathers are in unskilled work, 40.8 per cent aspire for the professional-managerial-I occupations.

The chi-square test shows that the result is significant at $p < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
60.97	18	0.0000

Fathers' Occupation and the Occupational Preferences of the Students

But the picture of the occupational aspirations of the college students will be incomplete, if we do not analyse the occupational preferences of the students considering their real family situations and personal abilities.

Table - 4.9: Crosstabulation: Fathers' Occupations Vs Occupational Preferences of Students

Count Row Pct Col Pct	Occupational Preferences of Students				Row Total
	Professional- Managerial-I occupations	Professional- Managerial-II occupations	Semi-profess- ional occupat- ions	Skilled occupat- ions	
Professional- Managerial-I Occupations	19 40.4 7.9	7 14.9 4.0	10 21.3 3.7	11 23.4 3.3	47 4.6
Professional- Managerial-II occupations	36 35.3 15.1	17 16.7 9.8	14 13.7 5.1	35 34.3 10.6	102 10.1
Semi-profess- ional occupat- ions	43 27.0 18.0	32 20.1 18.5	44 27.7 16.2	40 25.2 12.2	159 15.7
Skilled occu- pations	44 27.7 18.4	34 21.4 19.7	32 20.1 11.8	49 30.8 14.9	159 15.7
Semi-skilled occupations	31 22.3 13.0	23 16.5 13.3	39 28.1 14.3	46 33.1 14.0	139 13.7
Unskilled occupations	59 16.5 24.7	50 14.0 28.9	119 33.2 43.8	130 36.3 39.5	358 35.3
Unemployed	7 14.3 2.9	10 20.4 5.8	14 28.6 5.1	18 36.7 5.5	49 4.8
Column Total	239 23.6	173 17.1	272 26.9	329 32.5	1013 (missing 100.0 observat- ions 87)

<u>Chi-square</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Min E.F.</u>	<u>Cells with E.F. < 5</u>
49.50972	18	0.0001	8.027	None

Table 4.9 gives the data regarding the occupational preferences of the students, in relation to fathers' occupations. Following is the trend in the occupational preferences, for the professional-managerial-I occupation: From the students of the parents in professional-managerial-I occupations: 40.4 per cent; from the students of the fathers in professional-managerial-II occupations: 35.3 per cent; from the students of the fathers in semi-professional occupations: 27.0 per cent; from the students of the fathers in skilled work: 27.7 per cent; from the students of the fathers in semiskilled work: 22.3 per cent; from the students of the fathers in unskilled works: 16.5 per cent; from the students whose fathers are illiterate: 14.3 per cent.

This data clearly show that more students from the group of the fathers in professional-managerial-I occupations and professional-managerial-II occupations prefer the same occupations and fewer students from the unskilled and unemployed fathers' group prefer the professional-managerial-I occupations and professional-managerial-II occupations.

Also we find that more students from the unskilled and unemployed fathers' group prefer the skilled work. The percentage of students from the unskilled parents group preferred for the professional-managerial-I occupations was only 16.5; whereas from the same category of students 36.3

per cent preferred for the skilled work. In the same way, when only 14.3 per cent from the students of unemployed fathers preferred professional-managerial-I occupations from the same category of students 36.7 per cent preferred skilled works (Table 4.9).

Chi-square test shows that the result is significant at $p < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
49.50972	18	0.001

Thus a clear association between fathers' occupations and students' occupational preferences is found.

The data with regard to the occupational aspirations and preferences give similar results: the higher the fathers' occupations, higher are the occupational aspirations and preferences of the students.

Let us examine the results of few other studies in this line. George, E.I. and George Mathew (1966) found good

association between parental vocation and vocational aspirations of pupils in their study in Thiruvananthapuram, a district in Kerala (also the capital city). They found that more children of farmers and fishermen aspire to become teachers and nurses, while children of clerks and businessmen aspire to become doctors. In the present study we saw that more children of farmers and fishermen (semiskilled work) aspire for semi-professional occupations as teachers, businessmen, journalists etc.

George, E.I. and George Mathew also found that fewer children of unskilled labourers aspire to become teachers. In the present study we saw that more students of the unskilled labourers aspired to become skilled workers (Clerk, Nurse etc.).

The children of the unskilled parents wanted to improve their social status at least to a certain level and so the students aspire for a job different and better than that of their fathers.

A study by Sheo Kumar Lal (1976) came to the conclusion that among the scheduled castes 96.6 per cent does not like to take to their fathers' occupations. They prefer other

occupations which are socially more prestigious than what their parents have at present. Because they know that occupation and the related income are the key factor's in determining the social position of the individual.

Now let us examine how do the parents' occupational statuses influence the occupational aspirations of the students. Parents are in a strategic position to orient the development of the children's interests throughout childhood in a given general or specific direction by the provision of differential rewards and play materials. Mussen et.al. (1974) found that 43.6 per cent of Physicians' sons choose medicine and 27.7 per cent of Lawyers' sons choose law. Werts (1968) had similar results about sons of social and physical scientists. Children especially those who are unassertive or who have overdominating parents, may implicitly accept their parents' plans for their vocational futures without even being aware of it.

Parent attitudes are largely instrumental in determining the magnitude of the child's individual personality needs for earned status by affecting (a) the extent to which the children acquire intrinsic feelings of adequacy and (b) the

extent to which his potential accomplishments are regarded as vicarious sources of parental ego enhancement. Mussen et.al. (1974) saw that parental motivation is significantly related to the aspirational level of adolescents, even when social class and I.Q. are held constant. Mussen says: "A working class boy is likely to seek advancement in education and occupation if urged by his parents. He is unlikely to do so if his parents do not exert pressure in this direction" (Mussen et.al., 1974).

Another important factor as to why students' occupational aspirations are associated with their fathers' occupations is that the parents serve as the main agents of culture and they transmit to the child differential social class aspirations for a given level of occupational prestige. The effect of continuous influence from the parents together with pressures from the peer group during adolescence, force the students to have sufficient "socially adaptive" anxiety to ensure the maintenance of appropriate levels of striving.

Kroger and Louttit (1935) found that we are left with the impression that relatively few wish to pursue the vocations of their fathers. Anderson(1934) saw that majority do

not give attention to the advice and suggestion of their elders and set their occupational aspirations at a higher level. As we found in the present study, this observation by Anderson is true in the case of students whose fathers are in low ranked occupations. When parents compel the students to take up the traditional occupations, students may not pay attention to that and may aspire for higher occupations.

And the present study showed that students whose fathers' occupational status is low, aspire for different occupations higher than those of their fathers. This phenomenon of aspiration for social mobility through occupational mobility is a typical nature of students in Kerala. Young people wish to climb on the occupational ladder to secure high status and high income. It is this vision and desire for social mobility that urges the adolescent boys and girls from lower socio-economic groups to aspire above the vocational attainments of their parents (Smelser, 1970). Rodman et.al. say that one should start at least with a wide range of aspirations, wider than those of middle class boys, to allow themselves latitude in a world of greater social constraints for achieving their aspirations (Rodman et.al.,1974).

In the modern society studies have proved that youth from almost every country have their freedom of making free selection of the occupations they are interested in. In earlier times, some societies expected one son, often the eldest, to follow his father's profession and there was less personal choice in that society. But the occupational mobility between the generations is greater now. In Japan a study of three classes of college students showed that, whereas in the grandfathers' time 71.4 to 77.8 per cent entered hereditary occupations, in 1931 only 59.5 to 39.3 per cent did so (Koyama 1931). This mobility is still at a higher speed in the present society in Kerala.

Studies have further proved that relationships between occupations of fathers and sons are evident both in aspirations during college years and in actual selection of occupations. Nelson studied 3,211 students in 18 institutions, comparing their choice of occupation, with their fathers' occupations and found that the number who would be expected to select the fathers' occupation on the basis of chance greatly exceed the actual number for agriculture and labour, but in all other occupations and especially medicine, journalism and teaching, the number choosing was more than would be expected by chance. He concludes that there is a small but positive and significant relationship (Nelson, 1963).

Wilson (1933) who studied graduates of a university in the United States found that three-fourths of the men whose parents were also graduates of that university entered different occupations than their parents had.

Kwoh (1947) studied a sample of Chinese male college students and found that, compared with their own fathers and brothers, graduates were more often in professions, even though half were the sons of businessmen. Kwoh points out that their major business opportunities are in their own fathers' business, which are likely to be small old-fashioned places and that professions have higher prestige in Chinese communities.

The above studies are in tune with the findings of the present study where occupational mobility is found very clearly.

There are also studies differing from the results of the present study. Centers (1948) gathered the occupational data of 650 men and their fathers, classifying them on the basis of the level on an occupational scale: large business, professional, small business, white collar, skilled manual work, semiskilled work and unskilled work. Each one's occupation was recorded by the number of steps above or below his

father's occupation that his own was placed. For all strata the difference was + 0.35. He found that the overall net mobility was small both in amount and in extent. Mobility is the greatest at the extremes of the occupational scale. His results give 58 to 76 per cent of the sons' occupations at the fathers' level or one adjacent to it. Davidson and Anderson(1945) give 60 to 73 per cent for the same relationship.

Reynolds (1951) studied a sample of 450 manual workers to represent a cross section of the working population in a town. Eighty per cent of these were the children of manual workers. This is an extraordinary result. Reynolds says that his study had the following defects, as 1) some of them are young and may advance to higher jobs, 2) the sample is not a complete cross section, since it included only parents with at least one child in manual labour, 3) the occupational level of the father is taken as of the time the child entered work.

Thus we see few studies differing from the results of our study of occupational aspiration on the point of occupational mobility.

We shall conclude this part of discussion adding some comments and study reports on this issue, based upon the developmental psychological processes also.

It appears quite likely that the manner in which the developing child acquires perceptions and attitudes relating to work and specific jobs comes under the influence of the significant adults in his life, such as parents, older siblings, relatives, neighbours and teachers. While both the modelling of occupational behaviour and the children's assimilation of attitudes and information about it are often incidental and unconscious, the effects upon developing behaviour are thought to be pervasive and durable. It will be, therefore, advisable to arrange the child's environment to include the deliberate modelling of successful occupational behaviour (Krumboltz and Thoresen, 1969; Krumboltz and Krumboltz, 1972).

Slocum says the family establishes the "cultural time tables" by which he meets new social experiences, acquires new skills and becomes aware of what the world expects from him stage by stage (Slocum 1974). The implication for later vocational life of his early socialization is noted by Super (1957) when he states "Habits and expectations of success in the childhood family constitute a basis for later vocational success. The person who grows up in a home in which he is given experiences of success develops habits of success which carry over into school, social life and work"(Super, D.E., The Psychology of Careers, New York, Harper and Row, 1957).

As the child develops, early training in independence and the appropriate rewarding of independent behaviour in solving problems appear to nourish the child's need to achieve at a superior level. Parental model of successful behaviour also strengthens the child's drive to achieve. The concept of achievement motivation is, thus, used to refer to the tendency to set for oneself high standards of excellence to act in a manner conducive to attainment of these standards. Mussen, Conger and Kagan (1974) have noted the consistency of achievement oriented behaviour as a personality trait and they say "the child who enters the school with a desire to do well is likely to develop into the adult who is concerned with intellectual competence". Their conclusion is based on the findings of Fels Research Institute data, which suggested that the strength of intellectual goals in young pupils may be a useful index of later achievement in adolescence and adulthood (Moss and Kagan, 1961).

Thus the family climate and the challenge given to the child for intellectual and occupational competence will facilitate the urge for social mobility through occupational mobility. In this respect it is easier to understand how and why in the present study students from the parents of higher occupational status are aspiring for higher occupations.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA (CONTD.)

In this chapter the data regarding the occupational "Aspirations" and "Preferences" of the respondents were analysed and interpreted in relation to the following three variables:

5.1 Gender Differences

5.2 Rural-Urban Background

5.3 Academic Achievement.

5.1 Gender Differences and Occupational Aspirations of College Students

Gender differences in many aspects affect the areas of occupations. Some occupations are attractive to male and some others to female groups. Although people argue much about removing the gender preferences for occupations, in the actual occupational field, these preferences definitely occur.

The very physical sex differences affect the different occupations. The sex differences in muscular strength affect the ability to do certain types of work. Consider the number of women in the army, airforce or navy. And think also how many are on the war front from the female sex? This is mainly due to the biological differences. Figure 4 gives the strength of right hand grip for boys and girls. Although the two curves overlap markedly the means are very different.

There are other special problems associated with women's biological role. The fact that women do the child rearing and child caring sometimes limit the occupational opportunities in certain fields.

Sex differences affect more deeply in the psychological level. The differences in attitudes, interests etc. may affect the choice of occupations as well as the performance.

Considering the social aspects we do find great changes in the social roles of women. The societal taboos with regard to certain occupations are no more in practice in many societies. Women from all castes and communities come forward to take various types of occupations. The women's

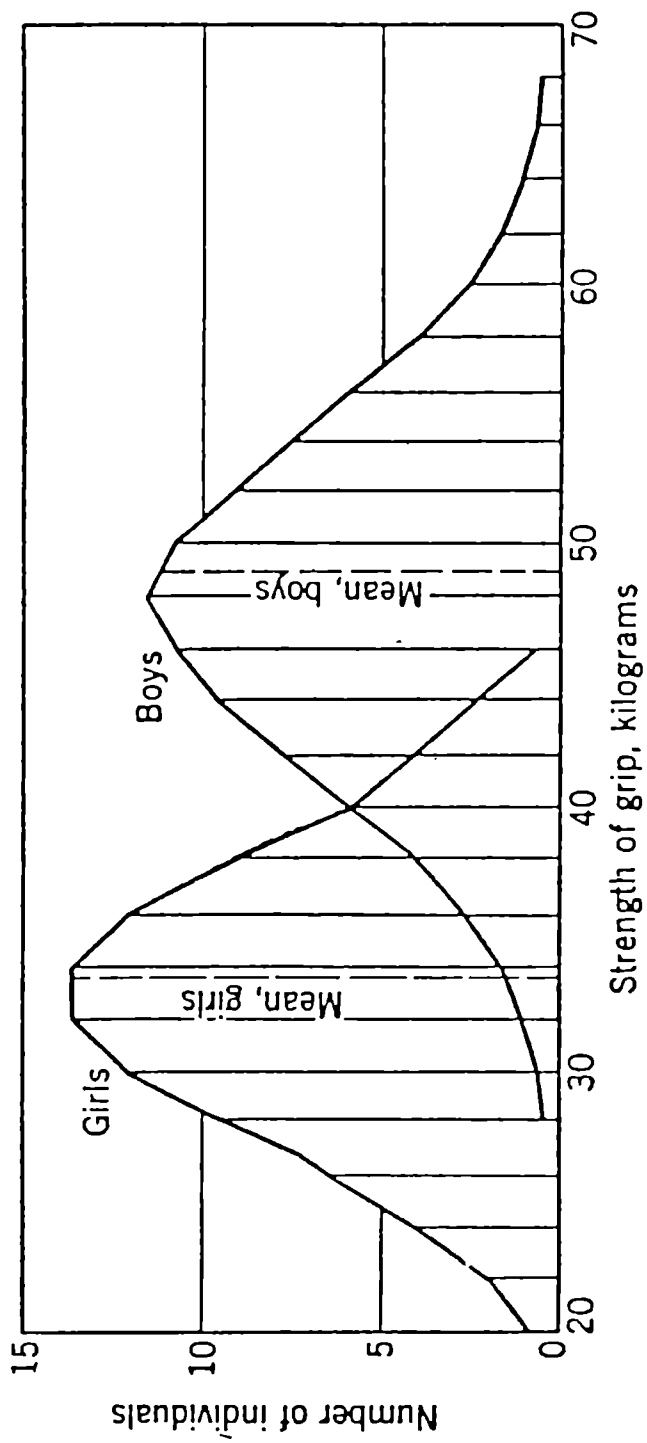


FIG: 4. Strength of right-hand grip for boys and girls.
 (Hilgard, E.H., Introduction to Psychology,
 New York Harcourt, Brace, 1953)

liberation movement is actively involved in removing social differences on the basis of gender.

We find more and more enthusiasm from the part of the females to join the work force of our country. In the decade 1971-1981 some marginal improvement has been recorded in the ratio of female to male workers. The comparative participation rate of males and females in the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors in 1971-'81 reveals that the percentage of female workers to total workers increased in each of the sectors during 1971-81. Among the females the proportion of those engaged in the primary sector decreased by 1.4 per cent, whereas it increased by 1.2 and 0.2 per cent respectively in the secondary and tertiary sectors. The percentage increase in employment in secondary and tertiary sectors in case of females nevertheless has been less than that of males.

The organized sector in India (public sector and non-agricultural private sector) absorbs less than one eighth of the actual work force of the country. Of this the share of women as of 1978 was 12.4 per cent. Women employment in organized sector grew from 19.30 lakhs (1971) to 33.41 lakhs (1986). Whereas the growth rate of women's employment in organized sector has shown steady increase, their proportion in the total public sector work force remained roughly constant.

The number of women job seekers through employment exchanges rose from 11.25 lakhs in 1975 to 50.98 lakhs in 1986. The percentage placements, on the other hand, increased from 1975-'82, but decreased in the subsequent years ie. 1983-86 (National Perspective Plan for Women 1888 - 2000 A.D., Ministry of H.R.D. Government of India, 1988).

Under such circumstances it is worthwhile to investigate and know how the college boys and girls approach different occupations by way of their aspirations and preferences to various occupations. A study of this nature is of great importance in Kerala, the state with the highest literacy rate and with high awareness of the rights of the individuals.

The sample of the study consists of 430 male students and 670 girl students. Since the sample size was large, the investigator assumed that even without an equal number of boys and girls there would be relevance for the study. We find more girl students than the boy students in the sample. This is in tune with the results of secondary school, where the girl students record higher percentage of pass and higher marks, ensuring their seats in the colleges. Therefore, girls' percentage being higher, in the recognized colleges, the chances were higher for girls than boys to be included in the sample.

Together with the search for the occupational aspirations, the investigator studied also the occupational preferences. Because by studying the preferences we get the actual occupational choice conditions of the students. Although students may aspire a particular occupation, the socio-economic background or the very sex differences may put limitations to their aspirations and so, students may prefer to enter some other occupations.

In the present study, Table 5.1 shows the occupational aspirations of college students based upon their sex groups.

Out of the 430 boys 427 marked their aspirations for occupations in four categories as seen in Table 5.1. From the 427 boys responded, 225 (52.7 per cent) aspired for professional-managerial-I occupations which included "doctor", "engineer", "lawyer" etc. From the 670 girls, who marked their occupational aspirations, only 43.9 per cent aspired for professional-managerial-I occupations. Although academically the girl students are better more boy students are aspiring for the higher level occupations.

In our country, even now the male members are considered to be those to get maximum educational advantages,

Table - 5.1: Crosstabulation: Gender Differences Vs Occupational Aspirations of Students

		<u>Occupational Aspirations of Students</u>				
		<u>Professional-Managerial-I occupations</u>	<u>Professional-Managerial-II occupations</u>	<u>Semi-professional occupations</u>	<u>Skilled occupations</u>	<u>Row Total</u>
<u>Count</u>	<u>Row Pct</u>					
<u>Col Pct</u>						
<u>Gender Differences</u>	Boys	225 52.7 43.4	59 13.8 34.7	92 21.5 43.8	51 11.9 25.8	427 38.9
	Girls	294 43.9 56.6	111 16.6 65.3	118 17.6 56.2	147 21.9 74.2	670 61.1
	Column Total	519 47.3	170 15.5	210 19.1	198 18.0	1097 (missing observations 3)
<u>Chi-square</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Min E.F.</u>	<u>Cells with E.F. < 5</u>		
22.10051	3	0.0001	66.171	None		

which naturally lead to occupational advantages. Thus although more percentage of girl students study for pre-degree with higher marks than boys, the confidence to aspire for higher occupations is lesser among girls. This is a clear indication to say that the sex difference is an important factor in determining the occupational aspirations of college students.

There is a difference in the trend with regard to the fourth category of occupations (the skilled work), which includes 'Nurses', 'Clerks', 'Typists', 'Skilled Labour' etc. From the girl students, 21.9 per cent marked their aspirations for these jobs while 11.9 per cent from the boys aspired these occupations. This again proves that girls have more attraction to certain types of occupation, which may be the result of societal expectations about girls. Of course, nursing is a special field, where more females are naturally preferred by organizations. But what about other occupations in this category? This category of occupations need less training and the involvement of money is less and hence girls expecting minimum support from the family compared to boys, are content with the occupations which involve minimum burden for the family. Moreover, boys welcome more challenging occupations while girls prefer more routine type of occupations.

These findings are in tune with the results of some other studies. Terman and Miles (1936), studying boys and girls separately on their occupational aspirations, found that men are more interested in scientific activities and mechanics than women. Strong (1943) came to the conclusion that women do show more interest in clerical work, teaching, literature and art. Other studies in close agreement with these findings are those of Carter and Strong (1933); Yum (1942); Kuder (1939) and Finch and Odoroff (1939).

Lehman and Witty (1936) studied vocational attitudes of 26878 boys and girls from 8.5 to 18.5 years old. This study also revealed that girls preferred occupations described as aesthetic, involving personal service, clerical work, whereas boys showed more preference for occupations involving movement, physical activity, giving orders etc. Another finding from their study was that vocational attitudes of boys change more with age than do those of girls.

With regard to the second and third categories of occupations, in the present study, the investigator could not find much differences between the aspirations of boys and girls. The second category of occupations (professional-

managerial-II) includes 'Professor', 'lecturer', 'managers' and 'officers' etc. The third category (semi-professional) includes 'school teachers', 'trained social workers', 'owners of small business concerns' etc. Still the percentage of boys aspired for the third category is little more than that of girls. This is because, this category includes small business which is aspired by boys only. Similarly the percentage of girls aspired for the second category of occupations is more than that of boys. So we can understand that the occupations of 'professor', 'lecturer', 'manager' etc. are attracting more girls than boys. The girls showed their confidence to perform successfully these occupations equally well or even better than boys (Table 5.1).

Chi-square test showed that the result was significant at $p < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
22.10051	3	0.0001

Thus we can conclude that there is good association between the gender differences and occupational aspirations of the students.

Gender Differences and Occupational Preferences of the Students

The investigator studied also the occupational preferences of the college students. Here the students marked the occupations in which they actually wanted to enter considering their present family environment.

Data in Table 5.2 give the occupational preferences of the students. Boys and girls prefer the professional-managerial-II occupations at a similar percentage as they had aspired for these occupations. 14.8 per cent boys preferred professional-managerial-II occupations (13.8 per cent boys had aspired for the same occupations); 17.9 per cent girls preferred the professional-managerial-II occupations (16.6 per cent had aspired for these occupations).

But compared to the occupational aspirations there is a sharp decline in the percentages of boys and girls who marked their occupational preferences for the professional-managerial-I occupations. When 52.7 per cent of boys had aspired for professional-managerial-I occupations, only 28.1 per cent of boys preferred the same occupations. In the case of girls 43.9 per cent had aspired for professional-managerial-I occupations, but only 21.5 per cent preferred these occupations.

Table - 5.2: Crosstabulation: Gender Differences Vs Occupational Preferences of Students

		Occupational Preferences of Students					
Count		Professional- occupations	Managerial-I occupations	Professional-II occupations	Semi-profess- ional occupat- ions	Skilled occupat- ions	Row Total
Gender differ- ences	Boys	120 28.1 45.5	63 14.8 34.4	132 30.9 44.9	112 26.2 31.5	427 38.9	
	Girls	144 21.5 54.5	120 17.9 65.6	162 24.2 55.1	244 36.4 68.5	670 61.1	
Column Total		264 24.1	183 16.7	294 26.8	356 32.5	1097 (missing 100.0observat- ions 3)	
<u>Chi-square</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Min E.F.</u>	<u>Cells with E.F. \leq 5</u>			
19.04789	3	0.0003	71.232	None			

It was also found that comparatively more boys than girls prefer the professional-managerial-I occupations (Boys 28.1%, girls 21.5%).

Analysing the data of the semi-professional occupations, it was found that more girls than boys marked their preferences closer to their aspirations. When 24.2 per cent of the girls preferred semi-professional occupations, 17.6 per cent had aspired for the same occupations. But in the case of boys when 30.9 per cent preferred semi-professional occupations only 21.5 per cent of boys had aspired for these occupations. But comparatively more boys (30.9 per cent) than girls (24.2 per cent) preferred the semi-professional occupations.

Another trend formed was that more girls (36.4 per cent) than boys (26.2 per cent) preferred the skilled work.

Chi-square test showed that the result was significant at $p < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
19.04789	3	0.0003

Thus it was found that there is significant association between the gender differences and the occupational preferences of the students.

From the study of the occupational aspirations and the occupational preferences it was clear that girls preferred occupations that needed lesser training and lesser involvement of money and other facilities.

Girls generally compare their possibilities of getting financial help and other facilities in the family with that of boys. Finding narrow possibilities, girls might have shifted their attention from high occupations to lower occupations which they might have thought they would get easily.

Boys, at the same time, showed more persistence for higher occupations when asked to mark their preferences. This reveals that boys have more confidence in preferring occupations that need more training and involvement of more money. This situation can be due to the gender differentiations, prevalent in the state, where boys are preferred in every aspect of day-to-day life. This can be observed in the behaviour patterns of marginal families. Boys are given more privileges in terms of food, medicine, education etc.

compared to those given to girls. In a poor family the boys are given food together with the adult male who is the earning member and the female children may share the rest, with the female adults. With regard to education also, parents feel that it is their duty to give maximum education possible to the boys, thinking that they are the heirs of the family. With regard to girls, the parents have the view that they are to be given in marriage to some other family and so higher education is a 'waste' of money. Even in affluent families this is the attitude. Then what about the middle and low class families? Under such situations boys feel the urgency for higher education and higher occupations and the parental encouragement and support help them to maintain their preferences.

The finding that more boys are aspiring for occupations of higher social status is in tune with the results of few other studies. Galler, 1951; Stephenson, 1955; and Nelson, 1963; found similar results. But Sprey (1962) found that black boys had lower vocational aspirations than white girls. Uplaonkar (1983) in Karnataka, found that occupational aspirations of women students were lower than those of men.

These results call for the need for creating in girls

better confidence to take up higher occupations. The family members' attitude, especially that of the parents is to be changed. Now the parents think that their family is not going to benefit from the income of the daughters' occupations and so daughters are trained to become wives and not to take up higher careers. Now the question is that, on the basis of gender, how can the female students be denied of their rights for higher education and higher occupation?

5.2 Rural-Urban Background and Occupational Aspirations of College Students

As we examine the occupational aspirations of college students an important area of curiosity will be to see whether there are any differences in the occupational aspirations of the students belonging to rural and urban origin. Many studies in India and abroad have shown such differences and hence it will be of great importance for us here, to examine the situations in Kerala. Unlike the rest of the country, Kerala enjoys many privileges in this respect. We rarely find very remote villages without transportation or communication facilities. Moreover, the constant visit of the village people to the urban areas give chances for transferring the knowledge of urban developments to the rural areas. Thus all the legally demarcated rural areas may not be considered as

socially backward. Many research studies showed that the level of occupational aspiration is influenced by geographical location (Anderson, 1932; Miller and Haller, 1964; Passi, 1970; Donald, 1971; Jose, 1971; Reddy, 1978; Chand et.al., 1983).

With this observation about the rural-urban situations let us examine the data of the present study and see whether in Kerala there are differences in the occupational aspirations of college students on the basis of the place of origin.

All the students in the sample were grouped into either of urban background or of rural background depending upon their place of origin and place of living during the college studies. Those students having their home in a town area and those students who stay in a town area were considered as urban and those students who have their home in a rural area and those who stay in the rural area are considered as rural.

1097 students responded to the question of rural/urban differences. Table 5.3 gives data regarding this. According to the answers received, 319 students were of

Table - 5.3: Crosstabulation: Rural-urban Background Vs Occupational Aspirations of Students

		<u>Occupational Aspirations of Students</u>					
	<u>Count</u>	<u>Professional- Managerial-I occupations</u>	<u>Professional- Managerial-II occupations</u>	<u>Semi-profess- ional occupat- ions</u>	<u>Skilled occupat- ions</u>	<u>Row Total</u>	
Rural urban back- ground	Urban	164 51.4 31.6	54 16.9 31.8	43 13.5 20.5	58 18.2 29.3	319 29.1	
	Rural	355 45.6 68.4	116 14.9 68.2	167 21.5 79.5	140 18.0 70.7	778 70.9	
Column Total		519 47.3	170 15.5	210 19.1	198 18.0	1097 (missing 100.0 observat- ions 3)	
<u>Chi-square</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Min E.F.</u>	<u>Cells with E.F. <</u>	<u>5</u>		
9.73342	3	0.0210	49.435	None			

urban background and 778 students were of rural background. From the students of urban background more students aspired for the professional-managerial-I occupations. From the rural students also more students aspired for these occupations. But comparatively higher percentage of students from the urban background aspired these occupations. (Urban students: 51.4 per cent; rural students, 45.6 per cent).

A similar trend is seen with regard to the professional-managerial-II occupations also (Urban students, 16.9 per cent; rural students, 14.9 per cent). But, for the semi-professional occupations, more percentage of students from the rural background aspired (rural students: 21.5 per cent; urban students, 13.5 per cent). With regard to the skilled work, there are rather equal percentages of students aspiring from the rural as well as from the urban background (rural, 18 per cent; urban, 18.2 per cent) (Table 5.3).

Chi-square test showed that the result was significant at $p < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
9.73342	3	0.0210

Thus it was found that there was significant association between the place of origin and occupational aspirations of college students.

Although Kerala people are said to be having rather similar facilities in the urban and rural regions, the present study has shown differences in the occupational aspirations of rural and urban students. The urban students are comparatively free from the family controls and are more open to the various fields of occupations. The individual is more important than the family in the urban area, and so the individuals look for personal advancement by aspiring for higher occupations. Any individual is treated equal in the anonymity of town, where family traditions and backgrounds are not given much importance. This social attitude may create in the urban youth more confidence and sense of adequacy to aspire for socially prestigious occupations. Moreover, the competition in the urban area for raising the life standards also is a significant factor influencing the urban students to aspire for higher occupations. Higher occupations become a means for higher income and consequently for higher standard of living.

The urban students are open to more information

about various occupations and also do have more chances for contact with various employers or their associates, to make easier the entry to a job. All these circumstances give the urban youth the needed confidence and adequacy for higher occupational aspirations.

In the rural areas still the family ties are strong and the hold of the family over individual is great. This means, the chances are that to a great extent the students with rural background are limited by the rural set up in their aspirations too. The lack of basic confidence for higher aspirations is in the very nature of the rural youth, who still consider that some of the higher occupations are not meant for them. Further, the rural students mainly coming from families where the significant people are not in higher occupations may tend to aspire a little higher than the current occupational status of their family members. These factors hinder the rural youth from reaching the higher level of occupational aspirations.

This study, therefore, revealed that more rural students aspire for semi-professional occupations which includes, school teachers, owners of small size business, social workers etc. The rural people do not expect much

risk in these occupations. The educational qualifications needed also are not so high as those for the professional-managerial-I and II occupations. And the educational facilities and job opportunities are higher for semi-professional occupations and these occupations and their duties are closer to the day-to-day experiences of the rural people. All these reasons combined might have influenced more rural youth to aspire for lower occupations.

Many have studied the rural-urban characteristics as related to the occupational aspirations of students. Studies proved that youth staying in rural areas aspire for lower prestigious and low paid occupations than those in cities (Burchinal, 1961; Middleton and Grigg, 1959; Lipset, 1955).

In the study: "Rural Urban comparison of Occupational Aspirations of College Youth", Pande (1974) had the following findings, similar to the findings of the present study. Pandey found that urban Youth mostly aspire for professional-technical occupations and rural youth mostly for white collar jobs. In the present study, both from the urban and from the rural youth, more students aspired for professional-managerial occupations; but analysing closely the percentages of youth

from the two groups, the percentage of urban youth is higher. And the second majority from the rural youth was for semi-professional occupations, which includes, school teachers, small business etc. In Pandey's study, teaching was included under the white collar jobs.

The result that the urban youth have greater urge for occupations of higher social prestige value was supported by the findings of many scholars as: Chowig and Nam(1961); Kaldor et.al. (1962); Hodkins and Parr (1965); Stevic and Uhlig, (1967).

Rural-Urban Background and Occupational Preferences

The investigator further wanted to understand the actual preference for the occupations by the college students. Analysing table 5.4 it was found that both from the urban and from the rural background more students preferred 'skilled work': Urban students: 28.2 per cent (aspiration for skilled work was: 18.2 per cent); rural students: 37.8 per cent (aspiration for skilled work was: 18.0 per cent).

Thus a direct shift from aspiration for professional-managerial-I occupations to preference for skilled work is

Table - 5.4: Crosstabulation: Rural-urban Background Vs Occupational Preferences of Students

Rural Urban back- ground	Count	Occupational Preferences of Students			Row Total
		Professional- Managerial-I occupations	Semi-profess- ional occupat- ions	Skilled occupat- ions	
Urban	87 27.5 32.8	60 19.0 39.5	80 25.3 27.8	89 28.2 23.4	316 29.1
Rural	178 23.1 67.2	92 12.0 60.5	208 27.0 72.2	291 37.8 76.6	769 70.9
Column Total	265 24.4	152 14.0	288 26.5	380 35.0	1085 (missing 100.0 observat- ions 15)

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. 5

15.89109 3 0.0012 44.269 None

evident from the results. This shows the basic anxiety of the college students about their accessibility to the socially prestigious occupations.

Although more students aspired for professional-managerial-I occupations, they were not sure of reaching those occupations and both the rural and the urban students were satisfied with the skilled works when asked to mark their preference.

Only 24.4 per cent of the total respondents preferred professional-managerial-I occupations, while 35 per cent preferred the skilled work. This 24.4 per cent may be the students who really feel confident about their personal qualities and family background as to achieve their aspirations. From the urban students more percentage preferred professional-managerial-I occupations compared to the rural students (23.1). Similarly more percentage from the urban students preferred the professional-managerial-II occupations also, compared to the rural students (urban students, 19.0; rural students 12.0). Chi-square test showed that the result was significant at $p < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
15.89109	3	0.0012

Thus there is significant association between the rural-urban background of the students and their occupational preferences.

Whether aspirations or preferences, the urban students are more associated with higher occupations and the rural students are more associated with lower occupations. The socio-cultural environment enjoyed by the urban students helps them to have higher occupational aspirations and preferences.

5.3 Academic Achievement and Occupational Aspirations of College Students

It is understood by all that the more education a person has, the more likely he is to be successful, especially in the occupational achievement. Education is linked not only to life time income, but also to many other characteristics such as high status, attractive working conditions and opportunities for personal development etc. On the whole, those with higher educational grades tend to wind up in higher occupations.

It is assumed that those who have higher scholastic achievements are having higher intelligence than those who

perform poorly in schools. And the occupational choices of adolescents are compatible with the intellectual requirements of different occupations (Byrns, 1939; Proctor, 1937; Terman and Oden, 1949; Welsh, 1971). This means the level of intelligence operates as a selective factor in propelling brighter individuals towards occupations that demand more intelligence and in directing the occupational choices of duller individuals toward less intellectually demanding occupations. Although we cannot assess the intelligence of a student merely by assessing his scholastic achievement, the scholastic achievement is an expression of the intelligence of the students.

The investigator, therefore, studied here the relationship between the scholastic achievement of the students and their occupational aspirations. To assess the scholastic achievement of the students, the S.S.L.C. (Secondary School Leaving Certificate) marks were considered. The respondents were studied in four categories based upon the marks:

- (1) Upto 40 per cent,
- (2) Above 40 per cent and upto 60 per cent,
- (3) Above 60 per cent and upto 80 per cent,
- (4) Above 80 per cent.

The data in Table 5.5 shows that more students, from

Table - 5.5: Crosstabulation: Academic Achievement Vs Occupational Aspirations of Students

Count Row Pct Col Pct	<u>Occupational Aspirations of Students</u>				Row Total
	Professional- Managerial-I occupations	Professional- Managerial-II occupations	Semi-profess- ional occupat- ions	Skilled occupat- ions	
Upto 40% marks	52 33.1 10.0	14 8.9 8.2	49 31.2 23.1	42 26.8 21.2	157 14.3
Above 40% to 60% marks	149 34.7 28.8	91 21.2 53.5	105 24.4 49.5	85 19.8 42.9	430 39.2
Above 60% to 80% marks	239 59.0 46.1	58 14.3 34.1	50 12.3 23.6	58 14.3 29.3	405 36.9
Above 80% marks	78 73.6 15.1	7 6.6 4.1	8 7.5 3.8	13 12.3 6.6	106 9.7
Column Total	518 47.2	170 15.5	212 19.3	198 18.0	1098 (missing 100.0 observat- ions 2)
<u>Chi-square</u> 115.13547	<u>D.F.</u> 9	<u>Significance</u> 0.0000	<u>Min E.F.</u> 16.412	<u>Cells with E.F. <</u> 5	

Academic
achievement
of students
(Marks in
S.S.L.C.)

those whose scholastic achievements are higher, are aspiring for higher occupations, compared to other students whose scholastic achievements were lower. From the students who had above 80 per cent marks in S.S.L.C., 73.6 per cent aspired for professional-managerial-I occupations. The aspiration for professional-managerial-I occupations by the other students are as given below: Students with above 60 and upto 80 per cent marks: 59 per cent; students with marks above 40 per cent and upto 60 per cent: 34.7 per cent; students with marks upto 40 per cent: 33.1 per cent. Thus as the academic achievements were lower, the percentages of students aspired for professional-managerial-I occupations also were lower.

Going through the data of the aspirations for the skilled works, it was found that more students aspired for these occupations were from the lowest 'scholastic achievement' group. When only 12.3 per cent students from the 'above 80 per cent' marks group aspired for skilled work, from the "upto 40 per cent marks", group, 26.8 per cent aspired for the same occupations. Thus the trend seen is that as the percentage of marks decreased, the percentage of students aspiring for skilled work increased. Thus we may infer that low scholastic achievement and low status occupational aspirations are related.

Another important association found was that comparatively more percentages of students from the groups having above 60 per cent marks (1st class) are aspiring for higher occupations (Table 5.5).

It is a good trend that students with higher academic performance are venturing to take up jobs which need high intellectual abilities.

Chi-square test showed that the result was significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
115.13547	9	0.0000

Thus it was found that there was significant association between the academic achievement of the students and the occupational aspirations.

Academic Achievement and Occupational Preferences of Students

In the case of occupational preferences also the investigator found similar association as that of occupational

aspirations. However, in the case of occupational preferences there is sharp decline in the percentages of students from all the "academic achievement" groups, aspiring for professional-managerial-I occupations (Table 5.6). From the "above 80 per cent marks" group only 38.7 per cent preferred this job, (73.6 per cent had aspired for these occupation); from above 60 - 80 per cent marks group, 25.4 per cent preferred the same occupation (59 per cent had aspired for these occupation); from the above 40 to 60 per cent marks group, 22.1 per cent preferred these occupations (34.7 per cent had aspired for these occupations); from the upto 40 per cent marks group, 15.9 per cent preferred these occupations (33.1 per cent had aspired for these occupations).

The interesting observation was that, preference for the skilled work increased considerably from three 'academic achievement' groups compared to their aspirations. The percentages of students preferring the skilled work are the following: Above 80 per cent marks group: 34 per cent (only 12.3 per cent had aspired); above 60 - 80 per cent marks group: 26.8 per cent (only 14.3 per cent had aspired); above 40 - 60 per cent marks group: 31.7 per cent (only 19.8 per cent had aspired (Table 5.6)).

Table - 5.6: Crosstabulation: Academic Achievement Vs Occupational Preferences of Students

Count	<u>Occupational Preferences of students</u>				Row Total
	Professional-occupations	Managerial-I occupations	Semi-professional occupations	Skilled occupations	
Upto 40% marks	25 15.9 9.5	13 8.3 7.0	44 28.0 15.0	75 47.8 21.1	157 14.3
Above 40% to 60% marks	95 22.1 36.0	55 12.8 29.7	143 33.3 48.8	136 31.7 38.2	429 39.1
Above 60% to 80% marks	103 25.4 39.0	98 24.1 53.0	96 23.6 32.8	109 26.8 30.6	406 37.0
Above 80% marks	41 38.7 15.5	19 17.9 10.3	10 9.4 3.4	36 34.0 10.1	106 9.7
Column Total	264 24.0	185 16.8	293 26.7	356 32.4	1098 (missing observation 2) 100.0

Academic achievement of students (Marks in S.S.L.C.)

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

74.42213 9 0.0000 17.860 None 192

When the students considered their real family situations, even those with high academic background began to set their occupational aims at lower levels. This tendency shows that the students are aware of the fact that they are not sure of entering the occupations they aspire for. In a way this ability to adjust to the situation will save them from despair. But this adjusting tendency, though apparently good, should not be encouraged. Because, even very intelligent students may fall a prey to this 'adjustment' tendency, which in the long run is a loss to the nation. Lack of proper orientation to the various careers and lack of confidence building are the chief factors behind this phenomenon.

The general trend of data gives the result that, more students from the higher 'academic achievement' group prefer occupations that need more education and more intellectual ability. The preference pattern of the students of the professional-managerial-I occupations reveals this trend.

Chi-square test showed that the result was significant at $p < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
74.42213	9	0.0000

Thus there is significant association between the academic achievement and the occupational preferences of the students.

The main finding of the present study here, that, students with high academic achievement aspire for high occupations and vice-versa, is in tune with the findings of many other studies. Gist, Pihlblad, and Gregory (1942) in a study found that there is consistent association between scholastic achievement and subsequent occupation. One major result of their study was that those in the professional occupations had higher academic records. High correlation was found by Tudhope (1943) in England. Inspectors' estimates of teaching ability of 96 experienced men and women correlated + 8.1 with college final marks. Knox (1947) with a sample of eight Harvard graduating classes, from 1880 to 1925, found graduation with honors had significant relation to the inclusion of "Who is Who"; and the possibility increased with the level of honors received: 17 per cent of the 'cum laude' (with honors), 27 per cent of 'magna cum laude' (with great honors) and 58 per cent of the 'Summa cum Laude' (with greatest honors) graduates were listed in the "Who is Who", where the names of eminent personalities were listed. Thus studies show that scholastic achievement is a predictive factor for occupational achievement and eminence.

Other studies showed that academic achievement was closely related to many job characteristics such as high status, opportunities for personal development etc. (Shaw and Alves, 1963, Trent and Medsker, 1968). Jencks (1972) found that this relationship is not a perfect one. Bachman (1970) says that those who go to college are relatively high in intelligence, past scholastic performance and family socio-economic level; those who do not reach there are below average on each of these dimensions. This is to show that the individuals who seek further education are already high in the kinds of ability and ambition that lead to later vocational success. Education and success, therefore, go hand in hand for a variety of interrelated reasons as we have seen already.

Rajkumar Yadav (1979) studied six hundred intermediate class male students from Agra district. These students were taken from arts, commerce and science groups. His study was "A Study of Motives for the Vocational Preferences for Adolescents". He found that intelligence, scholastic achievement, socio-economic status values (knowledge, health, hedonistic) and needs were significant predictors of preference in one or the other vocational areas and for one or the other group

of students. According to his study one of the most frequent predictors was scholastic achievement. A study by Perin H. Mehta, R.K. Mathur and Daya Pant (1987) revealed that for boys significant predictors of the level of occupational aspirations are scholastic achievement and number of occupations known. In the case of girls, scholastic achievement is not a significant predictor.

These are some of the studies that support the findings of the present study. The youth in Kerala share the common trend found in many studies, that, the higher the scholastic achievement of the students, the higher are the aspirations and preferences for higher occupations.

CHAPTER VI

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA (CONTD.)

This chapter gives the Occupational "Aspirations" and "Preferences" of the respondents in relation to their scores on eight interests. The eight interests measured are:

6.1 Aesthetic

6.2 Social

6.3 Science

6.4 Business

6.5 Outdoor

6.6 Political

6.7 Sports

6.8 Religious

Interests of Students and the Occupational Aspirations

It is a well-known fact that there are differences in individual interests. On a holiday the students of the same class at home will be engaged in different activities according to their interests. These activities often get expressions through various games in the world of the students. Study of life histories in the occupational context, however, offers some suggestive leads to understand the genesis and development of interests.

Roe (1957) says that the developed individual differences in capacities, interests, abilities and drives are a product of the genetic differences and of experience. The role of experience, she says, is specially important in the development of individual differences in interests and drives. Roe suggests two alternative hypotheses: 1) The forms in which drives find their first satisfactions will later be expressed as dominant interest. 2) Drives which are most effectively frustrated will be the ones which will later become dominant motivators, provided that the frustration is

not so long continued as to result in their practical expungement. This means that long or severe frustration ending in satisfaction will have more impact than immediate satisfaction and so such needs will be more effective motivators in future.

The timing of the emergence of basic needs also influences the individual differences in interests. Their variety in the individual will be related to the number and extent of unsatisfied needs existing at the same time.

Some studies show that relation between sex and interests and primary mental abilities and interests can be detected as early as the first grade (Tyler, 1951). Tyler found that boys showed significant correlation between primary mental abilities and play and work interest at this age, but girls did not.

By manipulating the environments interests may be created in the developing child to specific field. Because, in the development of interests, the experience and the environment play an important role. By studying the interests, the selection of the right person for the right job

also is possible. If interests are detected earlier, students can pursue their studies and plan their career accordingly and this will avoid many future problems as unhappiness, frustration and disappointment.

Interest may change with age but become relatively stabilized by the end of adolescence. The investigator, therefore, studied the interests of the students of the adolescent age, with a view to understand the relationship their interests have to their occupational aspirations. Thus the interests become predictors of occupational aspirations of college students.

Interest inventories are used to measure the interest in the various fields. Interest inventories are valuable, because, if a student's test score resembles that of men in a given occupation, he will be likely to choose that occupation. Strong (1951) has reported 86 per cent agreement between interest scores taken of 345 men while they were in college and the occupations they were engaged 20 years later. He noted that those who changed their occupations did not have high mean scores, either before or after the change as those who did not change.

Relation between interest patterns and occupational satisfaction also was studied. Sarbin and Anderson (1942) studied 76 men and 24 women, over 25 years old, who had been subjects at the University of Minnesota Testing Bureau. In general, those in this group who were dissatisfied with their occupations had interest patterns which were not in accordance with their occupations.

The study of interests being so important, the investigator, using Mathew Interest Inventory, measured the interests of the respondents. The interest in eight areas were measured: 1) Aesthetic, 2) Social, 3) Science, 4) Business, 5) Outdoor, 6) Political, 7) Sports and 8) Religious. After calculating the cumulative percentages of the frequency of each of the eight scales, the lowest one third was considered as "low interest", the middle one third was considered as "moderate interest" and the top one third was considered as "high interest" groups, in each scale. The investigator found out the relationship between the occupational aspirations of the college students and their measured interest levels. Chi-square test was used to assess the significance of the association between these variables.

6.1 Aesthetic Interest and the Occupational Aspirations of College Students

The description of Aesthetic interest as given in

Table - 6.1: Crosstabulation: Aesthetic Interest Vs Occupational Aspirations of Students

Aesthetic interest of students	Count	Occupational Aspirations of Students			Row Total
		Professional-Managerial-I occupations	Semi-professional occupations	Skilled occupations	
Aesthetic interest of students	LOW	156 47.4 30.8	46 14.0 27.9	61 18.5 29.9	66 20.1 33.8 329 30.7
	MODERATE	176 45.7 34.7	60 15.6 36.4	76 19.7 37.3	73 19.0 37.4 385 35.9
	HIGH	175 49.0 34.5	59 16.5 35.8	67 18.8 32.8	56 15.7 28.7 357 33.3
Column Total	507 47.3	165 15.4	204 19.0	195 18.2 1071 (missing observations 29)	1071 (missing observations 29) 100.0

Chi-square D.F. Significance Mini E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

3.30330 6 0.7699 50.686 None

Mathew Interest Inventory are: artistic, musical, literary and general aesthetic. The investigator studied the "low", "moderate" and "high" aesthetic interests groups on the aesthetic scale (Table 6.1). The results showed that there was no significant association between the aesthetic interest and occupational aspirations. The number of students who aspired for the professional-managerial-I occupations were 507. From this, 34.5 per cent was from the "high" aesthetic interest group, 34.7 per cent from the "moderate" aesthetic interest group and 30.8 per cent from the "low" aesthetic interest group. Thus the differences in the levels of aesthetic interest did not influence the occupational aspirations of the students, with regard to the professional-managerial-I occupations.

If we analyse the data through the rows also we find similar results. From the 357 students with high aesthetic interest, 49 per cent aspired for professional-managerial-I occupations; from the 385 students with "moderate" aesthetic interest, 45.7 per cent aspired for the same group of occupations; from the 329 students with "low" aesthetic interest, 47.4 per cent aspired for these occupations. This shows that without regard to the level of aesthetic interests, ("high",

"moderate" and "low"), rather equal percentages of the students are aspiring for the same occupations.

The aspirations for the professional-managerial-II occupations of the students in relation to the interests also do not show great significance. However, we have indications to say that from those who aspired for professional-managerial-II occupations, more students were with "moderate" and "high" aesthetic interests: "moderate" aesthetic interest: 36.4 per cent; "high" aesthetic interest: 35.8 per cent and "low" aesthetic interest: 27.9 per cent. Except this trend, the data did not show any other significant associations.

Chi-square test showed that the result was not significant at $p = 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
3.30330	6	0.7699

There was no significant association between the aesthetic interest and occupational aspirations of college students.

Aesthetic Interest and Occupational Preferences of College Students

The investigator wanted to know the association between the aesthetic interest and occupational preferences of the students. Here also no significant association was found. However, some trends of association were identified. Out of the 255 students who preferred the professional-managerial-I occupations 36.9 per cent was from the "high" aesthetic interest group and 35.3 per cent from the "moderate" aesthetic interest, while only 27.8 per cent was from the "low" aesthetic interest group (Table 6.2). This means, some association is found between the "moderate" and "high" aesthetic interest and the preference for professional-managerial-I occupations. It was also found that from those who preferred professional-managerial-II occupations, 42.3 per cent was with "moderate" aesthetic interest (High, 30.8 per cent and low 26.9 per cent). Thus some association can be noticed between the "moderate" aesthetic interest and preference for professional-managerial-II occupations. With regard to the skilled work, rather equal percentages of students with "low" "moderate" and "high" aesthetic interest preferred these occupations. So, on the basis of the differences in the levels of aesthetic

Table - 6.2: Crosstabulation: Aesthetic Interest Vs Occupational Preferences of Students

		Occupational Preferences of Students				Row Total
Count	Professional-Managerial-I occupations	Professional-Managerial-II occupations	Semi-professional occupations	Skilled occupations		
LOW	71 21.6 27.8	49 14.9 26.9	102 31.0 35.5	107 32.5 30.8	329 30.7	
Aesthetic interest of students	90 23.4 35.3	77 20.0 42.3	94 24.4 32.8	124 32.2 35.7	385 35.9	
HIGH	94 26.3 36.9	56 15.7 30.8	91 25.5 31.7	116 32.5 33.4	357 33.3	
Column Total	255 23.8	182 17.0	287 26.8	347 32.4	1071 (missing observations 29) 100.0	

Chi-square 8.15144 D.F. 6 Significance 0.2272 Min E.F. 55.908 Cells with E.F. < 5 None

interest, no significant variation is found in the various occupational preferences.

Chi-square test showed that the result was not significant at $p = 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
8.15144	6	0.2272

The association between the occupational preferences and aesthetic interest is not significance.

6.2 Social Interest and the Occupational Aspirations of College Students

Another interest measured using the Mathew Interest Inventory was Social Interest. Interest in social work and in social sciences etc. are measured by this scale. The investigator wanted to know whether there was any significant association between the social interest and the occupational aspirations of college students.

Table - 6.3: Crosstabulation: Social Interest Vs Occupational Aspirations of Students

		Occupational Aspirations of Students					
		Professional- Managerial-I occupations	Semi-profess- ional occupat- ions	Skilled occupat- ions	Row Total		
Count	Col Pct	Count	Col Pct	Count	Col Pct	Row Total	
Social interest of Stud- ents	LOW	160 47.2 31.6	65 19.2 39.2	59 17.3 28.6	55 16.2 28.2	339 31.6	
	MODERATE	167 46.0 32.9	43 11.8 25.9	80 22.0 38.8	73 20.1 37.4	363 33.8	
	HIGH	180 48.4 35.5	58 15.6 34.9	67 18.0 32.5	67 18.0 34.4	372 34.6	
Column Total		507 47.2	166 15.5	206 19.2	195 18.2	1074 (missing 100.0 observat- ions 26)	

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

10.15188 6 0.1184 52.397 None

As evident from Table 6.3 in general, no significant association was found between the social interest and the occupational aspirations. Rather equal percentages of students from the "low", "moderate" and "high" social interest aspired for the professional-managerial-I occupations ("low": 47.2; "moderate": 46.0 and "high": 48.4). Similarly, when the interest levels of those who aspired for the professional-managerial-I occupations were considered, no significant variations in the interests in relation to the aspirations were found. Out of the 507 students who aspired for the professional-managerial-I occupations, 35.5 per cent had "high" social interest, 32.9 per cent had "moderate" social interest and 31.6 per cent had "low" social interest.

From the students who aspired for professional-managerial-II occupations, 39.2 per cent had "low" social interest, 25.9 per cent "moderate" social interest and 34.9 per cent "high" social interest. This result also does not show any association between the social interest and aspiration for occupations of this group. But there is a slight indication to say that there is some association between "low" social interest and aspirations for professional-managerial-II occupations. Similarly some association may be claimed between

the "moderate" social interest and semi-professional occupations. From the students who aspired for semi-professional occupations, 38.8 per cent were with "moderate" social interest, while only 28.6 per cent was with "low" and 32.5 per cent was with "high" social interest. From those aspired for skilled work also more students were with "moderate" social interest (37.4 per cent). These are only slight indications of association and not significant associations.

Chi-square test showed that the result was not significant at $p = 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
10.15188	6	0.1184

There was no significant association between the social interest of the students and their occupational aspirations.

Social Interest and Occupational Preferences of College Students

The occupational preferences of the students also were studied, in relation to their social interest. The

Table - 6.4: Crosstabulation: Social Interest Vs Occupational Preferences of Students

		Occupational Preferences of Students					Row Total
Count	Professional- Managerial-I occupations	Professional- Managerial-II occupations	Semi-professional occupations	Skilled occupations	Row Total	Row Total	
Row Pct	Col Pct	Col Pct	Col Pct	Col Pct	Row Total	Row Total	
LOW	87 25.7 34.0	55 16.3 30.2	90 26.6 31.4	106 31.4 30.4	338 31.5	338 31.5	
MODERATE	81 22.3 31.6	66 18.2 36.3	87 24.0 30.3	129 35.5 37.0	363 33.8	363 33.8	
HIGH	88 23.6 34.4	61 16.4 33.5	110 29.5 38.3	114 30.6 32.7	373 34.7	373 34.7	
Column Total	256 23.8	182 16.9	287 26.7	349 32.5	1074 100.0	1074 (missing observations 26)	

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min EF. Cells with E.F. < 5

5.06900 6 0.5350 57.277 None

students may not prefer the same occupations that they aspire for. The preference is given considering the particular situations of the students. But Table 6.4 shows that there is no significant association between the social interest and the preferences for various occupations. From the students who preferred professional-managerial-I occupations, 34 per cent was with "low" social interest, 31.6 per cent with "moderate" social interest and 34.4 per cent with "high" social interest. Thus rather equal percentages of students from "low", "moderate" and "high" social interest categories preferred these occupations, not making any significant association. From the students who preferred professional-managerial-II occupations, 30.2 per cent was with "low" social interest, 36.3 per cent with "moderate" social interest and 33.5 per cent with "high" social interest, again not claiming any association. With regard to the semi-professional and skilled occupations also, there was no association with the social interest.

Chi-square test showed that the result was not significant at $p = 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
5.06900	6	0.5350

The association between social interest and occupational preferences was not significant.

6.3 Science Interest and Occupational Aspirations of College Students

The science interest measured by Mathew Interest Inventory included interest in various branches of science, such as biology, physical science, psychology, general science and technology. The investigator wanted to know whether there was any association between the scientific interest of the students and their occupational aspirations.

As evident from Table 6.5 the investigator could find considerable association between the scientific interest of the students and their occupational aspirations. With regard to the professional-managerial-I occupations, from the 507 students, who aspired these occupations, more students (41.2 per cent) were with "high" science interest. And it was further found that, as the level of interest increased, the percentage of students aspired for professional-managerial-I occupations also increased. From the "low" science interest group 39.2 per cent aspired; from the "moderate" interest group, 43.6 per cent aspired and from the "high" interest

Table - 6.5: Crosstabulation: Science Interest and Occupational Aspiration of Students

		Occupational Aspirations of Students				Row Total
Count	Row Pct	Professional-Managerial-I occupations	Semi-professional-II occupations	Skilled occupations	Row Total	Row Total
Col Pct						
LOW		131 39.2 25.8	66 19.8 39.5	76 22.8 36.9	61 18.3 31.3	334 31.1
MODERATE		167 43.6 32.9	58 15.1 34.7	76 19.8 36.9	82 21.4 42.1	383 35.6
HIGH		209 58.4 41.2	43 12.0 25.7	54 15.1 26.2	52 14.5 26.7	358 33.3
Column Total		507 47.2	167 15.5	206 19.2	195 18.1	1075 (missing observations 25)

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

32.07278 6 0.0000 51.887 None

group, 58.4 per cent aspired. This is a clear evidence to claim significant association between the science interest and aspirations for professional-managerial-I occupations. The occupations under this group include, "doctor", "engineer" etc., which professions need advanced study in science and technology. For the successful completion of these courses of study, "high" scientific interest will be of great help. Even if students without proper interest are managing to get through these courses their future career will be disappointing and their performance will be disastrous to the society.

This finding is specially relevant in the present society where students and their parents are desparately hunting after seats in medical and engineering colleges. Results of studies like this will give clues to the basic interests of the students which, in turn, will help the students and their parents for proper career planning. In the present study, for example, only 41.2 per cent of the students who aspired for professional-managerial-I occupations had "high" scientific interest, while majority (58.8 per cent) was with either "moderate" or "low" science interest. However, the data give clear trend that as the level of scientific interest increased, the percentage of students aspiring for professional-managerial-I occupations also increased.

Analysing the data through the rows also, we find similar results. The highest percentage of students aspired for the professional-managerial-I occupations is from the "high" scientific interest group. 58.4 per cent from the high science interest group aspired for these occupations, while only 43.6 per cent from the "moderate" scientific interest group and 39.2 per cent from the "low" scientific interest group marked their aspirations for the same occupations. Thus it is found that majority of the students from the "high" scientific interest group have the occupational aspirations for the professional-managerial-I occupations.

With regard to the aspirations for the professional-managerial-II occupations, the trend seen was different. From the 167 students who aspired for these occupations, more students (39.5 per cent) belonged to the "low" science interest group and a percentage very close to that belonged to the "moderate" science interest group, while only 25.7 per cent belonged to the "high" science interest group. Thus the trend seen is that, as the level of science interest increases, the percentage of students aspiring for professional-managerial-II occupations decreases.

From the students aspiring for the semi-professional

occupations, more students belong to the "moderate" and "low" science interest groups. While 36.9 per cent belonged to the "moderate" interest group and the same percentage belonged to the "low" interest groups; only 26.2 per cent belonged to the "high" interest group. Thus aspirations to semi-professional occupations have more association to the "moderate" and "low" science interest.

With regard to the skilled occupations the data show that more association is to the "moderate" science interest. From the 195 students aspired for skilled work, 42.1 per cent belonged to the "moderate" science interest group, while only 26.7 per cent belonged to the "high" science interest group and 31.3 per cent to the "low" science interest group.

Chi-square test shows that the result is significant of $p < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
32.07278	6	0.0000

There is significant association between the science interest and the occupational aspirations of college students.

It was found that the occupations that needed high scientific orientation were aspired by the students with "high" science interest. With regard to other categories of occupations, more students with either "moderate" or "low" science interest marked the aspirations.

Science Interest and Occupational Preference of College Students

The investigator, studying the occupational preferences of the college students, found that the association between science interest and occupational preferences was not so significant. Since the students prefer occupations not merely based upon their interests and abilities, but also based upon many other concrete situations in the family there came many variations in the pattern of preferences. Although, strictly speaking, the association between the science interest and occupational preferences was not significant, some hints of associations can be noted. Table 6.6 shows that from the 257 students who preferred professional-managerial-I occupations, 36.2 per cent belonged to the "high" science and only 31.9 per cent each from the "moderate" science interest and the "low" science interest groups. The preference for

Table - 6.6: Crosstabulation: Science Interest and Occupational Preferences of Students

Science Interest of students	Count Row Pct Col Pct	Occupational Preferences of Students				Row Total
		Professional-Managerial-I occupations	Professional-Managerial-II occupations	Semi-professional occupations	Skilled occupations	
LOW	82	44	103	104	333	
	24.6	13.2	30.9	31.2	31.0	
	31.9	24.2	35.9	29.8		
MODERATE	82	73	104	124	383	
	21.4	19.1	27.2	32.4	35.6	
	31.9	40.1	36.2	35.5		
HIGH	93	65	80	121	359	
	25.9	18.1	22.3	33.7	33.4	
	36.2	35.7	27.9	34.7		
Column Total	257	182	287	349	1075 (missing observations 25)	
	23.9	16.9	26.7	32.5	100.0	

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

10.91855 6 0.0909 56.378 None

other occupations also are not significantly associated with science interest as shown below. Preference for professional-managerial-II occupations: with the "moderate" interest group 40.1 per cent, with the "high" interest group, 35.7 per cent and with the "low" interest group: 24.2 per cent. Preference for semi-professional occupations: with the "moderate" interest group 36.2 per cent, with the "low" interest group 35.9 per cent and with the "high" interest group 27.9 per cent. Preference for skilled occupations: with the "moderate" interest group 35.5 per cent, with the "high" interest group 34.7 per cent and with the "low" interest group 29.8 per cent. Thus for three groups of occupations "moderate" science interest students have some relation with occupational preference. But this trend cannot be considered as a valid finding due to the fact that only slight variations were found here.

Chi-square test showed that the result was not significant at $p = 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
10.91855	6	0.0909

There is no significant association between the

science interest of the students and their occupational preferences. When the investigator studied the occupational aspiration and science interest significant association between the two variables was found. But when occupational preferences were asked, students shifted their field of occupation due to the special situations in the family.

6.4 Business interest and Occupational Aspirations of College Students

Mathew Interest Inventory measured the business interest in the aspects of clerical, persuasive, commerce, computational, mechanical and agriculture. The investigator wanted to see whether there was any relation between the business interest of the respondents and their occupational aspirations.

In general, no significant relationship was found, between the business interest and the occupational aspirations (Table 6.7). Out of the 503 students who aspired for the professional-managerial-I occupations, 33.4 per cent had "low" business interest, 35.2 per cent had "moderate" business interest and 31.4 per cent had "high" business

Table - 6.7: Crosstabulation: Business Interest Vs Occupational Aspirations of Students

		Occupational Aspirations of Students				Row Total
Business interest of students	Count	Professional-Managerial-I Occupations	Professional-II Managerial-II occupations	Semi-professional occupations	Skilled occupations	
Business interest of students	LOW	168 51.7 33.4	44 13.5 26.5	57 17.5 27.7	56 17.2 29.0	325 30.4
	MODERATE	177 48.0 35.2	56 15.2 33.7	71 19.2 34.5	65 17.6 33.7	369 34.6
	HIGH	158 42.2 31.4	66 17.6 39.8	78 20.9 37.9	72 19.3 37.3	374 35.0
Column Total		503 47.1	166 15.5	206 19.3	193 18.1	1068 (missing observations 32) 100.0

Chi-square 6.77302 D.F. 6 Significance 0.3423 Min E.F. 50.515 Cells with E.F. < 5 None

interest. Apparently we cannot find any influence of business interest. But analysing the data through the rows it can be noticed that from the 325 students with "low" business interest, 51.7 per cent aspired for the professional-managerial-I occupations and 48 per cent of the students from the "moderate" business interest aspired for the same group of occupations. From the "high" business interest group, only 42.2 per cent aspired for this category of occupations. Thus it can be said that there is slight association between the occupational aspirations and the "low" and "moderate" business interests.

In the other three occupational groups, it can be noticed that, as the level of the business interest of the students increased, the percentage of the students aspiring for these groups of occupations also increased. The following data substantiate this statement. The percentage of students in relation to their aspirations for the three groups of occupations are as given below. The professional-managerial-II occupations: "low": 26.5 per cent; "moderate": 33.7 per cent and "high" 39.8 per cent. Semi-professional occupations: "low" 27.7 per cent, "moderate" 34.5 per cent and "high": 37.3 per cent. Skilled occupations: "low": 29 per cent, "moderate" 33.7 per cent and "high": 37.3 per cent. A slight association, therefore, can be found between the "high"

business interest and aspirations for professional-managerial-II, semi-professional and skilled occupations.

Similar results were seen when the data through the rows were analysed. When only 13.5 per cent of the students from the "low" business interest group aspired for professional-managerial-II occupations, 15.2 per cent from the "moderate" interest and 17.6 per cent from the "high" interest groups aspired for the same occupations. Similarly when only 17.5 per cent from the "low" business interest group aspired for semi-professional occupations, 19.2 per cent from the "moderate" interest group and 20.9 per cent from the "high" interest groups aspired for the same occupations. With regard to the skilled work, when only 17.2 per cent aspired from the "low" business interest group, 17.6 per cent from the "moderate" interest group and 19.3 per cent from the "high" interest groups aspired for these occupations.

Although an indication of slight relationship between the "high" business interest and occupational aspirations was found, no significant association was to be attributed here, because variations in percentages of students aspiring for different occupations from different levels of business

interest are not significant.

Chi-square test showed that the result was not significant at $p = 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
6.77302	6	0.3423

There is no significant association between the business interest of the students and their occupational aspirations.

Business Interest and Occupational Preferences of College Students

The investigator wanted to assess the relationship between the business interest and the preferences of the students for various occupations. Here also no significant association was found between the two variables (Table 6.8). Students took into consideration their real family situations, in preferring the occupations. Therefore, it was found that only 256 students preferred professional-managerial-I occupations, while 503 students had aspired for these

Table - 6.8: Crosstabulation: Business Interest Vs Occupational Preferences of Students

		Occupational Preferences of Students				Row Total
Count	Professional- Managerial-I occupations	Professional-II occupations	Semi-professional occupations	Skilled occupations		
Row Pct						
Col Pct						
LOW	81 24.8 31.6	57 17.5 31.5	72 22.1 25.4	116 35.6 33.4	326 30.5	
Moderate Business interest of students	92 25.0 35.9	61 16.6 33.7	102 27.7 35.9	113 30.7 32.6	368 34.5	
HIGH	83 22.2 32.4	63 16.8 34.8	110 29.4 38.7	118 31.6 34.0	374 35.0	
Column Total	256 24.0	181 16.9	284 26.6	347 32.5	1068 (missing observations 32)	

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

6.05254 6 0.4173 55.249 None

occupations. And from the 256 students preferred, rather equal percentages were found with the three levels of business interest: "low": 31.6 per cent, "moderate": 35.9 per cent and "high": 32.4 per cent; not giving any significant association. In the semi-professional group it was found that more students who preferred these occupations were with "high" business interest (38.7 per cent). Except this, no other association can be inferred from the data.

Chi-square test showed that the result was not significant at $p = 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
6.05254	6	0.4173

The association between the business interest and occupational preferences is not significant.

6.5 Outdoor Interest and Occupational Aspirations of College Students

The outdoor interest scale of Mathew Interest inventory measured interests in travel, adventure, tourism,

Table - 6.9: Crosstabulation: Outdoor Interest Vs Occupational Aspirations of Students

		Occupational Aspirations of Students					
Count	Row Pct	Professional-Managerial-I occupations	Semi-professional-II occupations	Skilled occupations	Row Total		
Col Pct							
Outdoor interest							
LOW		145 41.5 28.6	59 16.9 35.3	77 22.1 37.6	68 19.5 34.9	349 32.5	
MODERATE		190 49.6 37.5	58 15.1 34.7	61 15.9 29.8	74 19.3 37.9	383 35.7	
HIGH		172 50.3 33.9	50 14.6 29.9	67 19.6 32.7	53 15.5 27.2	342 31.8	
Column Total		507 47.2	167 15.5	205 19.1	195 18.2	1074 (missing observations 26) 100.0	

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

9.79484 6 0.1336 53.179 None

general outdoor etc. Relating the data to the occupational aspirations of the students no significant association (Table 6.9) was found. However, from those who aspired professional-managerial-I occupations more students were with "moderate" outdoor interest (37.5 per cent). From the students who aspired for skilled work also more belonged to the "moderate" outdoor interest group (37.9 per cent). But from those who aspired for semi-professional occupations, more students (37.6 per cent) were with "low", outdoor interest.

Analysing the data through the rows, it was found that, from those who had "high" outdoor interest, 50.3 per cent aspired for the professional-managerial-I occupations and from those who had "moderate" outdoor interest, 49.6 per cent aspired for the same occupations. Thus we can find that more students with "moderate" and "high" outdoor interests aspired for professional-managerial-I occupations. Excepting these minor trends of relationships, no significant association was found between the outdoor interest and the occupational aspirations.

Chi-square test showed that the result was not significant at $p = 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
9.79484	6	0.1336

The association between the outdoor interest and the occupational aspirations is not significant.

Outdoor Interest and Occupational Preferences of the Students

In addition to the study of the occupational aspirations, the investigator studied the occupational preferences of the students also. Relating the data of the occupational preferences to the levels of outdoor interest, close association between the outdoor interest of the students and their occupational preferences (Table 6.10) was found.

The data showed that there is association between the "high" outdoor interest and the preference for professional-managerial-I occupations. Out of the 257 students who preferred this group of occupations, 42.8 per cent was with "high" outdoor interest, while only 31.9 per cent was with

Table - 6.10: Crosstabulation: Outdoor Interest Vs Occupational Preferences of Students

		<u>Occupational Preferences of Students</u>				
<u>Count</u>	<u>Row Pct</u>	<u>Professional- Managerial-I occupations</u>	<u>Professional- Managerial-II occupations</u>	<u>Semi-profess- ional occupat- ions</u>	<u>Skilled occupat- ions</u>	<u>Row Total</u>
LOW		65 18.7 25.3	50 14.4 27.5	101 29.0 35.2	132 37.9 37.9	348 32.4
MODERATE		82 21.4 31.9	71 18.5 39.0	107 27.9 37.3	123 32.1 35.3	383 35.7
Outdoor interest of stud- ents		110 32.1 42.8	61 17.8 33.5	79 23.0 27.5	93 27.1 26.7	343 31.9
Column Total		257 23.9	182 16.9	287 26.7	348 32.4	1074 (missing 100.0 observat- ions 26)

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

25.50740 6 0.0003 58.125 None

"moderate" outdoor interest, and 25.3 per cent with "low" outdoor interest.

Similar trend was found by analysing the data through the rows also. Comparatively more students with "high" outdoor interest preferred the professional-managerial-I occupations (32.1 per cent) while only lesser percentages from the "moderate" (21.4 per cent) and "low" (18.7 per cent) interest groups preferred these occupations. Thus it was found that as the level of outdoor interest increased, the percentage of students which preferred the professional-managerial-I occupations also increased.

The data of the preference for the professional-managerial-II occupations show that more students with "moderate" outdoor interest prefer these occupations: students with "moderate" outdoor interest 39 per cent, students with "low" outdoor interest 27.5 per cent and students with "high" outdoor interest; 33.5 per cent.

Analysing the data of the preference for the skilled work, the trend seen is that, as the level of outdoor interest decreased, the percentage of students which preferred the

skilled work increased. Out of the 348 students who preferred skilled work, the percentage of students with "high" outdoor interest was only 26.7, the percentage with "moderate" outdoor interest 35.3 and the percentage with "low" outdoor interest 37.9.

Analysing the data of the preference for the skilled work through the rows also similar results were found. From those who had "high" outdoor interest only 27.1 per cent preferred the skilled work; while 32.1 per cent from the "moderate" and 37.9 per cent from the "low" interest groups preferred these occupations.

Thus in many aspects, the investigator could find association between the outdoor interest of the students and their occupational preferences.

Chi-square test showed that the result was significant at $p < 0.05$.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
25.50740	6	0.0003

The association between the occupational preferences and outdoor interest of the students was significant.

6.6 Political Interest and the Occupational Aspirations of College Students

The political interest scale of Mathew Interest Inventory measured the interest in organizational, party politics and political science. At a time when everything is seen with political colours, and in a state (Kerala) where everybody is aware of the political movements, it will be interesting to see how our college students view politics. The investigator measured the political interest of the students and tried to understand its relation to their occupational aspirations.

As evident from Table 6.11, association was found between the political interest and the occupational aspirations. From the 195 students who had aspired for skilled work, more students (43.6 per cent) were with the "low" political interest group; only 28.7 per cent were with the "moderate" interest group and 27.7 per cent with the "high" interest group. Thus "low" political interest and skilled occupations are related.

Analysing the data of skilled work, through the rows, it was found that, from the "low" political interest group

Table - 6.11: Crosstabulation: Political Interest Vs Occupational Aspirations of Students

Political interest of students	Count Row Pct Col Pct	Occupational Aspirations of Students			Row Total
		Professional-Managerial-I occupations	Semi-professional occupations	Skilled occupations	
LOW	155 42.8 30.7	60 16.6 39.9	62 17.1 30.1	85 23.5 43.6	362 33.7
MODERATE	172 49.0 34.1	51 14.5 30.5	72 20.5 35.0	56 16.0 28.7	351 32.7
HIGH	178 49.4 35.2	56 15.6 33.5	72 20.0 35.0	54 15.0 27.7	360 33.6
Column Total	505 47.1	167 15.6	206 19.2	195 18.2	1073 (missing observations 27)

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

12.38129 6 0.0540 54.629 None

more students (23.5 per cent) aspired for the skilled work. From the "moderate" political interest group only 16.0 per cent aspired for skilled work and from the "high" political interest group only 15 per cent aspired.

Chi-square test showed that the result was significant at $p = 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
12.38129	6	0.0540

Significant association between the political interest of the students and the occupational aspirations was found.

Political Interest and the Occupational Preferences of College Students

The investigator studied the occupational preferences of college students in relation to the political interest. The data (Table 6.12) showed no significant association between these variables. But, here again, in the skilled occupations group some association can be claimed. Out of the 347 students who preferred skilled work, more students (38.6 per cent) were with "low" political interest. Only 31.7 per cent was with "moderate" interest and only 29.7 per

Table - 6.12: Crosstabulation: Political Interest Vs Occupational Preferences of Students

Political interest of students	Occupational Preferences of Students				Row Total
	Professional-Managerial occupations	Professional-Managerial-II occupations	Semi-professional occupations	Skilled occupations	
LOW	73 20.2 28.4	65 18.0 35.7	90 24.9 31.4	134 37.0 38.6	362 33.7
MODERATE	88 25.1 34.2	58 16.6 31.9	94 26.9 32.8	110 31.4 31.7	350 32.6
HIGH	96 26.6 37.4	59 16.3 32.4	103 28.5 35.9	103 28.5 29.7	361 33.6
Column Total	257 24.0	182 17.0	287 26.7	347 32.3	1073 (missing observations) 100.0

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

8.81807 6 0.1841 59.366 None

cent was with "high" interest in politics. Thus "low" political interest and skilled work are associated, though not significantly.

Another trend was that more students (37.4 per cent) from those who preferred professional-managerial-I occupations were with "high" political interest; only 28.4 per cent had "low" political interest and 34.2 per cent "moderate" political interest. Excepting this trend of association, no significant association between the political interest and occupational preferences was found.

Chi-square test showed that the result was not significant at $p = 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
8.81807	6	0.1841

There was no significant association between the political interest and occupational preference of the college students.

6.7 Sports Interest and the Occupational aspirations of College Students

Sports interest scale of the Mathew Interest

Table - 6.13: Crosstabulation: Sports interest Vs Occupational Aspirations of Students

Sports interest of students	Count	Occupational Aspirations of Students				Row Total
		Professional-Managerial-I occupations	Professional-Managerial-II occupations	Semi-professional occupations	Skilled occupations	
LOW	162	57	70	346	32.3	
	46.8	16.5	20.2			
	32.0	34.3	35.9			
MODERATE	167	51	68	362	33.8	
	46.1	14.1	18.8			
	32.9	30.7	34.9			
HIGH	178	58	57	364	34.0	
	48.9	15.9	15.7			
	35.1	34.9	29.2			
Column Total	507	166	195	1072 (missing observations 28)		
	47.3	15.5	18.2	100.0		

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

5.14996 6 0.5247 53.578 None

Inventory measured sports appreciation and sports participation. At a time when sports is given great importance in the local, national and international levels, the investigator wanted to know whether the interest in sports had any relation to the occupational aspirations of college students.

Strictly speaking no such relationship (Table 6.13) was found between these variables. But by scrutinizing the data, some trends of association was found. Out of the 204 students who aspired semi-professional occupations, more students (37.3 per cent) were with "moderate" sports interest; students with "low" sports interest: 27.9 per cent and students with "high" sports interest: 34.8 per cent. Thus slight association between "moderate" sports interest and aspiration for semi-professional occupations can be claimed.

Another finding was that as the level of sports interest decreased, the percentage of students aspired for skilled work increased. Out of the 195 students who aspired for skilled work, more students (35.9 per cent) were with "low" sports interest, (those with "moderate" sports interest: 34.9 per cent and with "high" sports interest 29.2 per cent).

Although such trends of association were found, no

good association between these variables can be claimed.

Chi-square test showed that the result was not significant at $p = 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
5.14996	6	0.5247

There is no significant association between the sports interest and occupational aspirations of college students.

Sports Interest and Occupational Preferences of College Students

The investigator studied the occupational preferences of the college students, in relation to their sports interest. The data (Table 6.14) showed that there was significant association between the sports interest and the occupational preferences. Out of the 256 students who preferred professional-managerial-I occupations, more students (43 per cent) were with "high" sports interest, 25.4 per cent with "moderate" sports interest and 31.6 per cent was with

Table - 6.14: Crosstabulation: Sports Interest Vs Occupational Preferences of Students

Sports interest	Count	Occupational Preferences of Students				Row Total
		Professional-Managerial-I occupations	Professional-Managerial-II occupations	Semi-professional occupations	Skilled occupations	
LOW	81	53	91	121	346	
	23.4	15.3	26.3	35.0	32.3	
	31.6	29.1	31.8	34.8		
MODERATE	65	60	114	122	361	
	18.0	16.6	31.6	33.8	33.7	
	25.4	33.0	39.9	35.1		
HIGH	110	69	81	105	365	
	30.1	18.9	22.2	28.8	34.0	
	43.0	37.9	28.3	30.2		
Column Total	256	182	286	348	1072 (missing observations 28)	
	23.9	17.0	26.7	32.5	100.0	

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

21. 04455 6 0.0018 58.743 None 242

"low" sports interest. Association between "high" sports interest and professional-managerial-I occupations was also found.

Analysing the data through the rows also similar result was found. From the students with "high" sports interest, 30.1 per cent preferred professional-managerial-I occupations, from the "moderate" sports interest group only 18 per cent and from the "low" sports interest group only 23.4 per cent preferred. Thus more association is found between "high" sports interest and preference for professional-managerial-I occupations.

Similarly association was found between "high" sports interest and professional-managerial-II occupations. From the 182 students who preferred professional-managerial-II occupations more students (37.9 per cent) were with "high" sports interest, 33 per cent with "moderate" sports interest and 29.1 per cent with "low" sports interest. Similar was the conclusion when the data was analysed through the rows. From those who had "high" sports interest, 18.9 per cent preferred professional-managerial-II occupations, only 16.6 per cent from the "moderate" sports interest group and 15.3 per

cent from the "low" sports interest group preferred these occupations.

With regard to the semi-professional occupations, more students (39.9 per cent) with "moderate" sports interest preferred these occupations (with "high" sports interest: 28.3 per cent and with "low" sports interest: 31.8 per cent). Thus there was association between "moderate" sports interest and semi-professional occupations.

Analysing the data of the preference for the skilled work through the rows, it was found that more students (35 per cent) with "low" sports interest preferred these occupations. From the "moderate" sports interest group, only 33.8 per cent and from the "high" sports interest group only 28.8 per cent preferred these occupations. Thus association can be claimed between "low" sports interest and preference for skilled work.

Chi-square test showed that the result was significant at $p < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
21.04455	6	0.0018

There is significant association between sports interest and occupational preferences of students.

6.8 Religious Interest and the Occupational Aspirations of College Students

The elements studied by the religious interest scale of Mathew Interest Inventory were: general interest in religion, participation in and practice of religion. Religion is seen as a very significant aspect in the life of many people. Sometimes the depth of religious faith may touch even the very day-to-day affairs of persons. The investigator, therefore, wanted to know whether the levels of religious interests are influencing the occupational aspirations of college students.

Analysing the data (Table 6.15) it was found that there was no meaningful association at all, between the religious interest and the occupational aspirations of the students.

Chi-square test showed that the result was not significant at $p = 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
1.61037	6	0.9518

Table - 6.15: Crosstabulation: Religious Interest Vs Occupational Aspirations of Students

Religious interest	Count	Occupational Aspirations of Students				Row Total
		Professional-Managerial-I occupations	Professional-Managerial-II occupations	Semi-professional occupations	Skilled occupations	
LOW	159	52	68	64	343	
	46.4	15.2	19.8	18.7	32.2	
	31.7	31.1	33.3	33.0		
MODERATE	169	58	71	59	357	
	47.3	16.2	19.9	16.5	33.5	
	33.7	34.7	34.8	30.4		
HIGH	173	57	65	71	366	
	47.3	15.6	17.8	19.4	34.3	
	34.5	34.1	31.9	36.6		
Column Total	501	167	204	194	1066 (missing observations 34)	
	47.0	15.7	19.1	18.2	100.0	

Chi-square D.F. Significance Min E.F. Cells with E.F. < 5

1.61037 6 0.9518 53.735 None

The association between the religious interest and occupational aspirations is not significant.

Religious Interest and Occupational Preference of College Students

The investigator, studying the occupational preferences in relation to the religious interest, found that, there was no significant association between religious interest and occupational preferences. However, it was found that from those who preferred skilled work, more students (37.8 per cent) were with "high" religious interest, only 28.5 per cent with "low" religious interest and 33.7 per cent with "moderate" religious interest. Thus an indication of association was found between the skilled work and "high" religious interest (Table 6.16). Except this trend, there was no association between the religious interest and the occupational preferences of college students.

Chi-square test showed that the result was not significant at $p = 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F	Significance
9.98759	6	0.1252

Table - 6.16: Crosstabulation: Religious Interest Vs Occupational Preferences of Students

		<u>Occupational Preferences of Students</u>						
		Professional- Managerial-I occupations	Professional- Managerial-II occupations	Semi-profess- ional occupat- ions	Skilled occupat- ions	Row Total	Col Pct	
Religi- ous inter- est	LOW	88 25.7 34.5	50 14.6 27.5	105 30.7 37.2	99 28.9 28.5	342 32.1		
	MODERATE	90 25.2 35.3	66 18.5 36.3	84 23.5 29.8	117 32.8 33.7	357 33.5		
	HIGH	77 21.0 30.2	66 18.0 36.3	93 25.3 33.0	131 35.7 37.8	367 34.4		
	Column Total	255 23.9	182 17.1	282 26.5	347 32.6	1066 100.0	(mission observat- ions_34)	
	<u>Chi-square</u>	9.98759						
	<u>D.F.</u>	6						
<u>Significance</u>	0.1252							
<u>Min E.F.</u>	58.390							
<u>Cells with E.F. < 5</u>	None							

There is no significant association between the religious interest and occupational preferences of college students.

To sum up, the present study on the interests and their relation to the occupational aspirations and occupational preferences of the students revealed that there was significant association in areas: 1) between the science interest and occupational aspirations 2) between the outdoor interest and occupational preferences 3) between the political interest and occupational aspirations and 4) between the sports interest and occupational preferences.

But no significant association was found in the following areas:

- 1) aesthetic interest and occupational aspirations and preferences,
- 2) social interest and occupational aspirations and preferences,
- 3) science interest and occupational preferences,
- 4) business interest and occupational preferences and aspirations,
- 5) outdoor interest and occupational aspirations,
- 6) political interest and occupational preferences,
- 7) sports interest and occupational aspirations,
- 8) religious interest and occupational aspirations and preferences.

Many studies have revealed that there are relations between the occupational preferences and interests of students. Carter, Taylor and Canning (1941) found relations between interests measured by Strong Interest Inventory and the expressed vocational preferences of high school boys and girls in grades 10, 11 and 12. In all of them the students received a significantly higher percentage of ratings on scales which are appropriate to their vocational choice. And they further found that the relation was higher for girls.

Kopp and Tussing (1947) studied 280 high school boys and 326 girls. The Kuder inventory was used for one class and the Cleeton Vocational Interest Inventory was used for two others. On the Kuder it was found that the relationship between preference and test was + 0.50 for girls and + 0.59 for boys; on the Cleeton, for girls in two classes it was +0.36 and + 0.53 and for boys + 0.44 and + 0.50. This is really a high relationship that can be expected in such tests.

In the present study, the Mathew Interest Inventory did not measure individual occupations, but it measured general interests in eight areas. These eight areas can be related to different occupations. For example, in the present

study, the investigator found significant association between the science interest and aspiration for professional-managerial-I occupations, which included "doctor", "engineer" etc. A scientific interest is a must for the students aspiring for these occupations. Association was found between "high" scientific interest and aspiration for "doctor", "engineer" and "lawyer" occupations. Thus relation between the measured interest and the expressed occupational aspirations with regard to professional-managerial-I occupations was ascertained.

Roe (1956) says that such development of interests is related to early experimental backgrounds, particularly in the family setting. She divided the occupations into eight groups and then explains how these interests are developed in the individual, based upon the family experiences. The eight groups given by Roe are the following:
Group I: service, where personal interactions are predominant interests. Persons in this group tend to be "high" in religious and social values.

Group II: Business contact: This group has dominant interest in personal relations, but the nature of the relationship is exploitative and not nurturant. They are "high" in dominance scores on tests. They lack intellectual and artistic interest.

Group III: Organization: This group is nonartistic and nonintellectual. Personal relationships are important. People in this group give more importance for economic values. Clerical interest is high in this group.

Group IV: Technology: Interest in personal interaction is very low for this group. Significant intellectual interest in the upper levels of this group was found. Mechanical aptitudes and interests are found in this group. Artistic interest and values are low, and masculinity ratings are high.

Group V: Outdoor: Intellectual and artistic interests are lacking, mechanical abilities and interests may be common, but less than in Group IV.

Group VI: Science: Intellectual abilities and interests are strongest in this group. Artistic interests are not important here. For many the orientation is away from persons. A few in this group are, at the same time, very directly interpersonally oriented, as the psychologists, anthropologists etc., but the nature of this orientation may be different from Group I.

Group VII: General Cultural: This is seen as the most verbally oriented group. Interest in persons is there, but

not as in Group I. Artistic interest may be of some importance to a few here and intellectual interests are generally strong.

Group VIII: Arts and Entertainment: There are special artistic interests. Intellectual interests are not strong. Members are more of female group. A striking general pattern of this group given by Roe is that the members are strongly narcissistic-oriented.

After giving these eight groups, Roe further explains how these interests are developed in the individual in the various family backgrounds. She says, the child is getting orientation to "persons" and "non-persons" as a result of the early experiences. Depending upon this orientation, the individual develops interests to various occupations. According to Roe "a family situation in which the child is loved adequately and approved of and not made the focus of any intense personal relationship seems to be conducive to permitting his attention to focus upon other objects in the environment. From this may develop such object orientation of interests as will eventually manifest itself in mechanical and scientific interests and in selection of occupations appropriate to these" (Anne Roe: The psychology of Occupations, 1956, p. 319-20).

She further says, if the child had chances to have high personal relationships (positive or negative), his attention may be centered upon them and very often this will become the source of later conflicts. When these conflicts are centered around dominance, which is unacceptable to him, he may find occupations in Group I, or some of those in Group VI, most satisfactory to him. If the dominance attitude can be incorporated, but personal relations are still important, occupations in Group II and some of those in Group III may be most suitable. If a child becomes concentrated, not upon relations with others, but upon himself, whether through over concern of his parents for his body, or because of the possessions of special abilities, which catch his and his companions' attention, he may develop the narcissistic attitudes of Group VIII.

The above discussions highlight the importance of the environments in which various interests may develop. And, therefore, if proper attention is given to the children, in the early days, the desired values and interests can be developed in them to a considerable extent.

In the present study therefore, the investigator wanted to know the influence of fathers' occupation on the students' interests.

6.9 Fathers' Occupations and the Interests of Students

Based upon the theory of Roe given above, the investigator, using Mathew Interest Inventory, measured the interests of the students and then tried to see the relationships these interests have to the occupations of their fathers.

According to the fathers' occupational status seven categories were given: (1) Professional-managerial-I, (2) Professional-managerial-II, (3) Semi-professional, (4) Skilled, (5) Semi-skilled, (6) Unskilled and (7) Unemployed. The eight interests studied are (1) aesthetic, (2) social, (3) science (4) business, (5) Outdoor, (6) political, (7) sports and (8) religious. The associations between the interests and the father's occupations were assessed by chi-square test.

Fathers' Occupation and the Level of Aesthetic Interest of Students

Table 6.17 gives the data regarding the influence of the fathers' occupation on the aesthetic interest of students. From those whose fathers were in professional-

Table - 6.17: Crosstabulation: Fathers' Occupation Vs Aesthetic Interest of Students

		Aesthetic Interest of Students			Row Total
		Low	Moderate	High	
Fathers' occupations	Professional	16	20	7	43
	Managerial-I occupations	37.2 5.2	46.5 5.7	16.3 2.1	4.4
	Professional-Managerial-II occupations	43 43.4 13.9	28 28.3 8.0	28 28.3 8.5	99 10.0
	Semi-professional occupations	41 26.5 13.2	69 44.5 19.7	45 29.0 13.7	155 15.7
	Skilled occupations	57 36.5 18.4	48 30.8 13.7	51 32.7 15.5	156 15.8
	Semi-skilled occupations	39 29.3 12.6	49 36.8 14.0	45 33.8 13.7	133 13.5
	Unskilled occupations	102 28.8 32.9	119 33.6 34.0	133 37.6 40.5	354 35.8
	Unemployed	12 25.0 3.9	17 35.4 4.9	19 39.6 5.8	48 4.9
	Column Total	310 31.4	350 35.4	328 33.2	988 (missing obs 100.0 ions 112)

<u>Chi-Square</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Min E.F.</u>	<u>Cells with E.F.</u> ←
24.90406	12	0.0153	13.492	None

managerial-I occupations, more students (46.5 per cent) had "moderate" aesthetic interest. From those whose fathers were in the professional-managerial-II occupations more students (43.4 per cent) had "low" aesthetic interest. From those whose fathers were in semi-professional occupations, more students (44.5 per cent) had "moderate" aesthetic interest. From those whose fathers were in skilled work, more students (36.5 per cent) had "low" aesthetic interest. From the students whose fathers were in unskilled work and unemployed group, more percentages of students had high aesthetic interest (unskilled: 37.6 per cent, unemployed: 39.6 per cent). It was thus evident that the higher the occupational status of the fathers, the higher were the percentages of students having "low" or "moderate" aesthetic interest and vice versa.

Chi-square test showed that the result was significant at $p < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
24.90406	12	0.0153

It was found that the association between the fathers' occupations and the aesthetic interest of the students was significant.

The fathers in higher occupations may have more occupational responsibilities and thus may have only lesser time for artistic, musical, or literary activities. This situation may create in the family an atmosphere of seriousness. Students may get equipments for entertainment, but the aesthetic interest is often the result of guided environments also. If the parents find some time to be with the children, enjoying aesthetic beauty, the children may get trained in appreciating the nature's wonderful beauty and thus developing in them a sense of aesthetic interest. May be this lack of interaction due to lack of time is the cause of "low" aesthetic interest among more students whose fathers are in higher occupations.

Fathers' Occupational and Social Interest of Students

Analysing the data (Table 6.18) it was found that more students whose fathers were in professional-managerial-I, professional-managerial-II, semi-professional and skilled occupations were with "low" social interest. The percentages are as the following. From the students whose fathers are in professional-managerial-I occupations, "low" interest: 41.9 per cent; from the students whose fathers are in professional-managerial-II occupations, "low" interest: 49 per cent; from the students whose fathers are in semi-professional occupations,

Table - 6.18: Crosstabulation: Fathers' Occupations Vs Social Interest of Students

Count Row Pct Col Pct	Social Interest of Students			Row Total
	Low	Moderate	High	
Professional- Managerial-I occupations	18 41.9 5.7	13 30.2 3.8	12 27.9 3.6	43 4.3
Professional- Managerial-II occupations	49 49.0 15.5	32 32.0 9.4	19 19.0 5.7	100 10.1
Semi-profess- ional occu- pations	59 38.1 18.7	51 32.9 15.0	45 29.0 13.4	155 15.6
Skilled occu- pations	62 39.7 19.6	53 34.0 15.6	41 26.3 12.2	156 15.7
Semi-skilled occupations	32 23.9 10.1	45 33.6 13.3	57 42.5 17.0	134 13.5
Unskilled occupations	86 24.2 27.2	124 34.9 36.6	145 40.8 43.2	355 35.8
Unemployed	10 20.8 3.2	21 43.8 6.2	17 35.4 5.1	48 4.8
Column Total	316 31.9	339 34.2	336 33.9	991 (missing 100.0 observat- ions 109)

<u>Chi-square</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Min E.P.</u>	<u>Cells with E.F. < 5</u>
47.02455	12	< 0.0000	13.711	None

"low" interest: 38.1 per cent; from the students whose fathers are in skilled occupations: "low" interest: 39.7 per cent. Thus "low" social interest of the students and the above mentioned four occupations of the fathers are found to be significantly related.

From the students whose fathers are in semi-skilled unskilled occupations, more percentages are having "high" social interest. The following data shows it clearly (from the semi-skilled group, "high" interest: 42.5 per cent and from the unskilled group, "high" interest: 40.8 per cent). Thus "high" social interest of the students and the semi-skilled and unskilled occupations of the fathers are found to be significantly related. With regard to the students of the unemployed fathers, the "moderate" social interest was prominent.

When the fathers are in higher occupations, the relationship in the family may become more formal and so involvement in social activities may be limited to formal occasions. This may restrict the development of social interest among the children from such families. But in the families, where the fathers are in semi-skilled and unskilled occupations, children are found to be more free for social involvement, with minimum restrictions from the parents.

This might have caused the occurrence of the high percentage of students from this group with "high" social interest. Moreover, in the families, where fathers are having higher occupations, the children also may be thinking in those lines of occupations and so such students may not give importance to the social work or related fields and hence they remain "low" on the social interest scale.

Chi-square test showed that the result was significant at $p < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
47.02455	12	0.0000

There is significant association between the social interest of the students and the occupations of their fathers.

Fathers' Occupation and Science Interest of the Student

Table 6.19 shows how the science interest of the students are related to the occupations of their fathers. Strictly speaking no significant association was found between these variables. And the trend of association was

Table - 6.19: Crosstabulation: Fathers' Occupations Vs Science Interest of Students

	Count Row Pct Col Pct	Science Interest of Students			Row Total
		Low	Moderate	High	
Professional- Managerial-I occupations	15 34.1 4.9	16 36.4 4.5	13 29.5 3.9	44 4.4	
Professional- Managerial-II occupations	33 33.0 10.7	34 34.0 9.6	33 33.0 10.0	100 10.1	
Fathers' occupat- ions	Semi-profess- ional occupat- ions	50 32.3 16.3	52 33.5 14.7	53 34.2 16.0	155 15.6
	Skilled occu- pations	59 37.8 19.2	48 30.8 13.6	49 31.4 14.8	156 15.7
	Semi-skilled occupations	28 20.9 9.1	53 39.6 15.0	53 39.6 16.0	134 13.5
	Unskilled occupations	109 30.7 35.5	131 36.9 37.0	115 32.4 34.7	355 35.8
	Unemployed	13 27.1 4.2	20 41.7 5.6	15 31.3 4.5	48 4.8
Column Total	307 30.9	354 35.7	331 33.4	992 (missing 100.0 observat- ions 108)	

<u>Chi-square</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Min E.F.</u>	<u>Cells with E.F.</u> 5
11.99605	12	0.4460	13.617	None

between the science interest of the students and the unemployed group of fathers. From the students whose fathers are unemployed, 41.7 per cent was with "moderate" science interest. The unemployed fathers may include few who are educated and this might have influenced the development of such interest in them. Except this, no other significant relationship was found.

Chi-square test showed that the result was not significant at $p = 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
11.99605	12	0.4460

The association between the science interest of the students and their fathers' occupations is not significant.

Fathers' Occupations and Business Interest of the Students

Table 6.20 gives the data showing the relation between the business interest of the students and the occupations of their fathers. In general, it was found that the relationship between these two variables was significant.

Table - 6.20: Crosstabulation: Fathers' Occupations Vs Business Interest of Students

		<u>Business Interest of Students</u>			
		Low	Moderate	High	Row Total
Fathers' occupations	Professional-Managerial-I occupations	21 47.7 7.0	15 34.1 4.4	8 18.2 2.3	44 4.5
	Professional-Managerial-II occupations	39 40.6 12.9	33 34.4 9.7	24 25.0 7.0	96 9.7
	Semi-professional occupations	45 29.0 14.9	60 38.7 17.7	50 32.3 14.5	155 15.7
	Skilled occupations	69 44.8 22.8	52 33.8 15.3	33 21.4 9.6	154 15.6
	Semi-skilled occupations	28 20.9 9.3	48 35.8 14.2	58 43.3 16.9	134 13.6
	Unskilled occupations	82 23.2 27.2	116 32.8 34.2	156 44.1 45.3	354 35.9
	Unemployed	18 37.5 6.0	15 31.3 4.4	15 31.3 4.4	48 4.9
	Column Total	302 30.7	339 34.4	344 34.9	985 (missing observations 115) 100.0

<u>Chi-square</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Min E.F.</u>	<u>Cells with E.F. \geq 5</u>
56.13445	12	0.0000	13.490	None

More students whose fathers are in professional-managerial-I and professional-managerial-II and skilled occupations were with "low" business interest. Professional-managerial-I occupations: 47.7 per cent, professional-managerial-II occupations: 40.6 per cent and skilled work, 44.8 per cent. Thus it was found that there was good association between above mentioned occupations of the fathers and "low" business interest of the students. "High" business interest of the students were found to be related to the semi-skilled and unskilled occupations of the fathers. From the students of the semi-skilled occupation fathers: 43.3 per cent was with "high" business interest; from the students of the unskilled occupation fathers: 44.1 per cent was with high business interest.

Chi-square test showed that the result was significant at $p < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
56.13445	12	0.0000

There is significant association between the fathers' occupations and the business interest of the students.

Fathers' Occupations and Outdoor Interest of the Students

Table 6.21 gives data regarding the relationship between the outdoor interest of the students and the occupations of the fathers. In General, it was found that there was significant association between these variables. More students (56.8 per cent) with fathers in professional-managerial-I occupations had "moderate" outdoor interest ("low": 15.9 per cent and "high": 27.3 per cent). More students (42.6 per cent) with fathers in semi-professional occupations had "high" outdoor interest. More students (38.5 per cent) with fathers in skilled work had "low" outdoor interest. Another association found was that more students (45.8 per cent) with unemployed fathers had "low" outdoor interest.

Chi-square test showed that the result was significant at $p < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
28.14148	12	0.0053

There is significant association between the fathers' occupations and the students' outdoor interest.

Table - 6.21: Crosstabulation: Fathers' Occupations Vs Outdoor Interest of Students

	Count Row Pct Col Pct	Outdoor Interest of Students			Row Total
		Low	Moderate	High	
Fathers' occupat- ions	Professional- Managerial-I occupations	7 15.9 2.2	25 56.8 7.1	12 27.3 3.8	44 4.4
	Professional- Managerial-II occupations	31 31.0 9.6	37 37.0 10.5	32 32.0 10.2	100 10.1
	Semi-profess- ional occu- pations	43 27.7 13.3	46 29.7 13.0	66 42.6 21.0	155 15.6
	Skilled occu- pations	60 38.5 18.6	49 31.4 13.8	47 30.1 15.0	156 15.7
	Semi-skilled occupations	40 29.9 12.4	52 38.8 14.7	42 31.3 13.4	134 13.5
	Unskilled occupations	120 33.9 37.2	134 37.9 37.9	100 28.2 31.8	354 35.7
	Unemployed	22 45.8 6.8	11 22.9 3.1	15 31.3 4.8	48 4.8
Column Total	323 32.6	354 35.7	314 31.7	991 (missing 100.0 observat- ions 109)	

<u>Chi-square</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Min E.F.</u>	<u>Cells with E.F. < 5</u>
28.14148	12	0.0053	13.941	None

The unemployed fathers usually have minimum travel and generally less chances for moving around. This model of the fathers may influence the children at home and the interest of the children for travel and tour may be restricted. This is a possible reason for the "low" outdoor interest of the students, whose fathers are unemployed.

Fathers' Occupations and Political Interest of the Students

Table 6.22 depicts the association of political interest of the students to the occupations of the fathers. As evident from the data no significant relations were found between these variables.

The data however give some trends of association in few areas. More students with fathers in professional-managerial-I occupations (47.7 per cent) and in professional-managerial-II occupations (42.4 per cent) had "low" political interest. The fathers in these two groups of occupations usually have responsible and time-consuming activities associated with their occupations. And hence, little time may be left for any political involvements. This attitude of the parents might have influenced the students keeping them "low" on the political interest scale. Except this trend, the

Table - 6.22: Crosstabulation: Fathers' Occupations Vs Political Interest of Students

	Count Row Pct Col Pct	Political Interest of Students			Row Total
		Low	Moderate	High	
Fathers' occupat- ions	Professional- Managerial-I occupations	21 47.7 6.3	13 29.5 4.0	10 22.7 3.0	44 4.4
	Professional- Managerial-II occupations	42 42.4 12.6	25 25.3 7.7	32 32.3 9.7	99 10.0
	Semi-profess- ional occu- pations	50 32.3 15.0	51 32.9 15.7	54 34.8 16.3	155 15.7
	Skilled occu- pations	62 39.7 18.6	50 32.1 15.4	44 28.2 13.3	156 15.8
	Semi-skilled occupations	45 33.6 13.5	42 31.3 12.9	47 35.1 14.2	134 13.5
	Unskilled occupations	100 28.2 29.9	127 35.9 39.1	127 35.9 38.4	354 35.8
	Unemployed	14 29.2 4.2	17 35.4 5.2	17 35.4 5.1	48 4.8
Column Total	334 33.7	325 32.8	331 33.4	990 (missing observations 110)	
<u>Chi-square</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Min E.F.</u>	<u>Cells with E.F. < 5</u>	
16.79629	12	0.1574	14.444	None	

investigator could not find any relevant association between the variables studied here.

Chi-square test showed that the result was not significant at $p = 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
16.79629	12	0.1574

There is no significant association between the fathers' occupations and the political interest of the students.

Fathers' Occupations and Sports Interest of the Students

Table 6.23 shows the relation between fathers' occupations and sports interest of the students. As seen from the data, no clear relationship was found between these variables. Still some stray associations can be claimed. More students (40.9 per cent) with fathers in professional-managerial-I occupations were with "high" sports interest.

Sports interest scale included sports appreciation also. The spread of sports events through the television has influenced significantly the sports appreciation interest of the students. Many people had to move out to witness

Table - 6.23: Crosstabulation: Fathers' Occupations Vs Sports Interest of Students

	Count Row Pct Col Pct	Sports Interest of Students			Row Total
		Low	Moderate	High	
Fathers' occupations	Professional-Managerial-I occupations	12 27.3 3.7	14 31.8 4.2	18 40.9 5.4	44 4.4
	Professional-Managerial-II occupations	40 40.0 12.5	28 28.0 8.3	32 32.0 9.7	100 10.1
	Semi-professional occupations	46 29.7 14.3	55 35.5 16.3	54 34.8 16.3	155 15.7
	Skilled occupations	63 40.6 19.6	48 31.0 14.2	44 28.4 13.3	155 15.7
	Semi-skilled occupations	34 25.6 10.6	53 39.8 15.7	46 34.6 13.9	133 13.4
	Unskilled occupations	111 31.4 34.6	124 35.0 36.8	119 33.6 36.0	354 35.8
	Unemployed	15 31.3 4.7	15 31.3 4.5	18 37.5 5.4	48 4.9
Column Total	321 32.5	337 34.1	331 33.5	989 (missing observations 111) 100.0	

<u>Chi-square</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Min E.F.</u>	<u>Cells with E.F. < 5</u>
13.33573	12	0.3451	14.281	None

any games or sports. T.V. has now brought such events to the rooms of the people. Thus the openings to the world of sports through T.V., especially in families who can afford T.V. (higher occupational groups), create a good climate for the development of sports interest.

Chi-square test showed that the result was not significant at $p = 0.05$ level

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
13.33573	12	0.3451

There was no significant association between the fathers' occupations and the sports interest of the students.

Fathers' Occupations and Religious interest of the Students

Table 6.24 depicts the relation between the religious interest of the students and the fathers' occupations. The data show significant relation between the studied variables. More students with fathers in semi-professional and semi-skilled occupations and more students with unemployed fathers are having "high" religious interest: semi-professional: 41.2 per cent, semi-skilled: 43.3 per cent and unemployed:

Table - 6.24: Crosstabulation: Fathers' Occupations Vs Religious Interest of Students

Count Row Pct Col Pct		Religious Interest of Students			Row Total
		Low	Moderate	High	
Fathers' occupations	Professional- Managerial-I occupations	16 37.2 5.1	15 34.9 4.6	12 27.9 3.5	43 4.4
	Professional- Managerial-II occupations	45 45.9 14.2	30 30.6 9.1	23 23.5 6.8	98 10.0
	Semi-profess- ional occupat- ions	39 25.5 12.3	51 33.3 15.5	63 41.2 18.6	153 15.6
	Skilled occu- pations	56 36.4 17.7	46 29.9 14.0	52 33.8 15.3	154 15.7
	Semi-skilled	29 21.6 9.2	47 35.1 14.3	58 43.3 17.1	134 13.6 13.6
	Unskilled	122 34.6 38.6	122 34.6 37.2	109 30.9 32.2	353 35.9
	Unemployed	9 18.8 2.8	17 35.4 5.2	22 45.8 6.5	48 4.9
Column Total	316 32.1	328 33.4	339 34.5	983 (missing 100.0 observat- ions 117)	

<u>Chi-square</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Min E.F.</u>	<u>Cells with E.F.</u>
30.27998	12	0.0025	13.823	5 None

45.8 per cent. Among those who had "high" religious interest, students of the unemployed fathers were more (45.8 per cent).

People who are in need easily develop more religious interest. They visit pilgrim centres and offer prayers and gifts for the improvement of their conditions. This attitude of the family members might have influenced the students to have "high" religious interest.

More students whose fathers are in professional-managerial-I and professional-managerial-II occupations had "low" religious interest. This result ascertains our early finding that those in immediate needs will easily develop more religious interest. The families of the students whose fathers are in higher occupations may not be in need of material benefits. This attitude at home might have influenced these students to mark "low" on the religious interest scale. As adolescents, mainly the material need situation is compelling them to seek supernatural help. Later, as they grow up, the individuals internalize the value of the spiritual aspect of religion and the purely spiritual needs. At this stage, even when material comforts have been attained, individuals develop religious interest and attitudes as an integral part of their being.

Chi-square test showed that the result was significant at $p < 0.05$ level.

χ^2	D.F.	Significance
30.27998	12	0.0025

Significant association was found between the fathers' occupations and religious interest of the students.

To sum up, the investigator found significant association between the fathers' occupations and the aesthetic, social, business, outdoor and religious interests of the students. There was, however, no significant association between the fathers' occupations and science, political and sports interest. Thus in five interest areas the family environment (occupations of fathers) had significant influence according to the present study.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Brief Summary of the Research

In this chapter the investigator would like to summarise the work and present the major findings of the research, "A study of the occupational aspirations of college students in Ernakulam District as related to their socio-economic background", and also to make certain valuable recommendations on the basis of the findings.

1100 senior Pre-degree students were the respondents of this study. These students were randomly selected from 21 colleges of Ernakulam District (Kerala).

There were 340 boys and 670 girls in the sample selected. The sample size being large (1100), the investigator did not try to have an equal number of boys and girls. Majority of the students (70.72 per cent) was with rural background.

Out of the 1100 students studied, 74.5 per cent did not have any confusion as to which occupation they were to select; but a good number of the students (74.3 per cent), said that they wanted better information about different careers.

The two hypotheses tested in this research work were (I) The occupational aspirations of college students are influenced by their (a) caste groups, (b) economic status, (c) parental education, (d) parental occupation, (e) Rural-urban background, (f) gender differences and (g) academic achievement; (II) The occupational aspirations of college students are related to their interest.

An elaborate questionnaire was used to collect the data related to the first hypothesis. And "Mathew Interest Inventory" was used to measure the interests of the students on eight Interest Scales (Aesthetic, Social, Science, Business, Outdoor, Political, Sports and Religious).

The questionnaire gathered information regarding the occupational aspirations as well as the occupational preferences of the students. The students were asked to mark their aspirations with the feeling that all the

facilities were available to them to enter in any occupations. But while preferring their occupations, the students had to take into consideration their particular socio-economic situations.

The students were given a list of occupations for the convenience of marking their options. They were to show their aspirations and preferences from the list given; also chances were given to write any other occupations not included in the list. The occupations were grouped into four categories, on the basis of the classifications given by Anne Roe, and the judgment made by 100 individuals from various occupational fields. The four categories on the basis of the social prestige value, as judged by the 100 individuals, are given below:

- (1) Professional-managerial-I
- (2) Professional-managerial-II
- (3) Semi-professional occupations and
- (4) Skilled occupations.

After measuring the interests of the students on eight interest scales, the cumulative percentages of the scores of each scale were calculated. These cumulative percentages were divided into three groups: "Low", "Moderate" and "High".

Chi-square test was used to find out the significance of association between the independent and dependent variables. The two dependent variables were: 1) Occupational aspirations and 2) Occupational preferences. The independent variables were: 1. Caste affiliation 2. Religious affiliation 3. Economic status of the family 4. Parental education 5. Parental occupation 6. Gender differences 7. Rural Urban background and 8. Academic achievement. Other independent variables were: the "low", "moderate", and "high" interest scores on the eight Interest Scales of "Mathew Interest Inventory". The associations between the independent and dependent variables were considered as significant at the level of $p = 0.05$, in the chi-square test.

7.2 Findings

The present research study has the following salient findings:

7.2.1 Caste and Communities and the Occupational Aspirations of the College Students

The investigator studied the caste and communities of the students based upon the divisions followed by the Government of Kerala for the purpose of reservations in occupations and education. Accordingly, there were three

categories: (1) Forward Communities (not enjoying any reservation) (2) Backward communities (enjoying reservation) (3) Scheduled castes (enjoying reservation). Analysing the data related to caste affiliations the following were the findings:

- 7.2.1.1 From all the three groups (Forward communities, Backward communities and Scheduled Castes), more students aspired for the Professional-Managerial-I occupations; Forward Communities: 50 per cent Backward communities: 54.7 per cent; and scheduled castes: 37.8 per cent.
- 7.2.1.2 Comparatively more students from the backward communities than from the forward communities aspired for the Professional-Managerial-I occupations, which were the highest ranked occupations.
- 7.2.1.3 Except for the Professional-Managerial-I occupations, the students of forward communities do not show polarization of aspirations for any other occupations: aspiration for Professional-Managerial-I occupations: 50 per cent, aspiration for Professional-Managerial-II occupations: 17.4 per

cent aspiration for semi-professional occupations: per cent, and aspiration for skilled occupations: 1 cent. Among the scheduled caste students the least occupations were of the Professional-Managerial-II (only 9.5 per cent).

7.2.2 Caste and Communities and Occupational Preferences Students

7.2.2.1 Comparatively more students from the forward (26.9 and backward communities (26.2 per cent) than from scheduled caste (17.2 per cent) preferred Professional-Managerial-I occupations.

7.2.2.2 The highest percentage of students from the forward communities preferred skilled occupations.

7.2.2.3 The highest percentage of students among the backward communities preferred semi-professional occupations

7.2.2.4 More students from the backward than from the forward communities preferred higher occupations.

7.2.2.5 More students from the scheduled caste group preferred skilled occupations.

7.2.2.6 The occupations least preferred by the scheduled caste students are professional-managerial-II occupations.

7.2.3 Religion and Occupational Aspirations

7.2.3.1 There were no significant associations between the religious affiliations and the occupational aspirations.

7.2.4 Economic Status and Occupational Aspirations

7.2.4.1 As the family income of the students increased, the aspirations for higher occupations also increased.

7.2.4.2 More than 50 per cent of the students from families with an annual income of above Rs.15,000/- aspired for professional-managerial-I occupations.

7.2.5 Economic Status and Occupational Preferences

7.2.5.1 More students from the families with the highest annual income preferred professional-managerial-I occupations.

7.2.5.2 Comparatively more students from the lower income families, than from the higher income families preferred the semi-professional and skilled occupations.

7.2.5.3 The economic status of the family is seen as a very prominently determining factor in the occupational preferences of the students.

7.2.6 Fathers' Education and Occupational Aspirations of Students

7.2.6.1 When the educational qualifications of the fathers are higher, the students aspired for higher occupations.

7.2.6.2 Majority of the students (55.8 per cent), whose fathers are either graduates or post-graduates aspired for the highest ranked occupations (Professional-Managerial-I Occupations).

7.2.6.3 From the students of the illiterate fathers also a considerable percentage (38.5) aspired for Professional-Managerial-I occupations. This finding is to be viewed against the reservation policy of the government, which guarantees reservation of seats for the scheduled castes students in the educational institutions as well as in different occupations. Because, in the illiterate group of fathers, chances are there that more members from the scheduled castes are included. Therefore, even if the

fathers are illiterate, their children on the strength of reservation might have aspired for higher occupations.

7.2.6.4 Comparatively lesser percentage of students of the fathers with graduation and post-graduation aspired for skilled occupations, than the students of the fathers with lower educational qualifications. And as the educational qualifications of the fathers were lower, more students aspired for skilled occupations.

7.2.6.5 More students from all the educational qualification groups of the fathers aspired for the Professional-Managerial-I occupations, though in varying percentages from each group.

7.2.7 Mothers' Education and Occupational Aspirations of Students

7.2.7.1 As the educational qualifications of the mothers are higher, higher percentages of students aspire for the highest-ranked occupations.

7.2.7.2 Majority of the students (56.5 per cent), whose mothers are either graduates or post-graduates, aspired for Professional-Managerial-I occupations.

7.2.7.3 Lesser percentages of students, whose mothers are either graduates or post-graduates, aspired for semi-professional and skilled occupations.

7.2.7.4 As the educational qualifications of mothers were lower, more students aspired for semi-professional and skilled occupations.

7.2.8 Fathers' Occupations and Occupational Aspirations of Students

7.2.8.1 More students from all the "fathers' occupation" groups aspired for the highest-ranked occupations (Professional-Managerial- I).

7.2.8.2 Comparatively more students of the fathers in the highest ranked occupations aspired for the highest-ranked occupations, than the students of the fathers in the lower ranked occupations.

7.2.8.3 Fewer students with fathers in the unskilled occupations aspired for the highest ranked occupations.

7.2.8.4 Fewer students with fathers in the Professional-Managerial-occupations aspired for the skilled occupations.

7.2.9 Fathers' Occupations and Occupational Preferences of Students

7.2.9.1 From the students of the unemployed fathers, only lesser number preferred Professional-Managerial-I occupations.

7.2.9.2 More students with unemployed fathers preferred skilled occupations.

7.2.10 Gender Differences and Occupational Aspirations

7.2.10.1 Comparatively more boys than girls had their occupational aspiration for Professional-Managerial-I occupations.

7.2.10.2 More girls than the boys had their aspiration for the skilled occupations, which include, Nurse, Clerk, Typist etc.

7.2.10.3 Gender differences did not affect the students' aspiration for Professional-Managerial-II occupations, which included Professor/Lecturer, Officer, Manager, etc.

7.2.11 Gender Differences and Occupational Preferences of Students

7.2.11.1 Compared to the occupational aspirations, only lesser percentages of boys and girls preferred the occupations of the highest category.

7.2.11.2 More girls than boys preferred the skilled occupations, which included Nurse, Typist, Clerk etc.

7.2.11.3 More boys than girls preferred the semi-professional occupations (Manager, Lecturer etc.).

7.2.11.4 Comparatively more boys than girls preferred Professional-managerial-I occupations

7.2.12 Rural-Urban Background and the Occupational Aspirations of Students

7.2.12.1 Both from the rural and from the urban students more percentages aspired for the Professional-Managerial-I occupations.

7.2.12.2 Comparatively more students with the urban than with the rural background aspired for the Professional-Managerial-I occupations.

7.2.12.3 More urban students than the rural aspired for the Professional-Managerial-II occupations.

7.2.12.4 More students with rural background aspired for the semi-Professional occupations.

7.2.12.5 Rural-urban differences did not influence the students' aspiration for the skilled occupations.

7.2.13 Rural-Urban Background and the Occupational Preferences of Students

7.2.13.1 Both from the rural and from the urban background more students preferred the skilled work. (The aspiration of more students were for the Professional-Managerial- I Occupations).

7.2.13.2 Comparatively more rural students than the urban preferred the skilled occupations.

7.2.14 Academic Achievement and the Occupational Aspirations of College Students

7.2.14.1 More students with higher academic achievements aspire for higher occupations, and fewer students with lower academic achievements aspire for higher occupations.

7.2.14.2 From the students who secured above 80 per cent marks in S.S.L.C. (Secondary School Leaving Certificate), 73.6 per cent aspired for the Professional-Managerial-I occupations.

- 7.2.14.3 More students with lower grades in S.S.L.C. aspired for less prestigious occupations.
- 7.2.14.4 Comparing the 'academic achievement' groups, more students having marks upto 40 per cent (SSLC), aspired for skilled work.
- 7.2.14.5 From all the "academic achievement" groups more students aspired for Professional-Managerial-I occupations.
- 7.2.15 Academic Achievement and Occupational Preferences of Students
- 7.2.15.1 Compared to the percentage of students who aspired for Professional-Managerial-I occupations, only lesser percentages from all the "academic achievement" groups preferred the same occupations.
- 7.2.15.2 The higher the academic achievements of the students, the higher was the percentage of students who preferred for higher occupations.
- 7.2.15.3 From the students with above 80 per cent marks (SSLC), who aspired for Professional-Managerial-I occupations, only just above half preferred the same occupations.

7.2.15.4 While only 26.8 per cent of the students with "upto 40 per cent marks" aspired for the skilled work, 47.8 per cent from the same group of students preferred the skilled work.

7.2.15.5 Students with lesser marks in S.S.L.C. preferred the occupations that need only lesser academic training.

7.2.16 Aesthetic Interest and Occupational Aspirations of Students

7.2.16.1 There is no significant association between the aesthetic interest of the students and the aspiration for Professional-Managerial-I occupations.

7.2.16.2 A slight association is found between the "moderate" and "high" aesthetic interests of the students and the Professional-Managerial-II occupations.

7.2.16.3 More students with "moderate" aesthetic interest aspired for semi-professional occupations.

7.2.17 Aesthetic Interest and the Occupational Preferences of Students

7.2.17.1 "Moderate" aesthetic interest and preference for Professional-Managerial-II occupations are associated positively.

7.2.17.2 No association was found between the aesthetic interest and the students' preference for skilled occupations.

7.2.18 Social Interest and Occupational Aspirations of Students

7.2.18.1 No significant association was found between the social interest of the students and their aspirations for Professional-Managerial-I and Professional-Managerial-II occupations.

7.2.18.2 Slight association is found between the "moderate" social interest and aspiration for semi-professional occupations.

7.2.19 Social Interest and Occupational Preferences of Students

7.2.19.1 No significant association was found between the social interest and the occupational preferences of students.

7.2.20 Science Interest and the Occupational Aspirations of Students

7.2.20.1 Significant association was found between the Science interest and the aspiration for Professional-Managerial-I occupations. More students with Science interest aspired for "doctor", "engineer", "Lawyer" etc.

7.2.20.2 "Low" Science interest and Professional-Managerial-II occupations were positively associated in this study.

7.2.20.3 "Low" and "Moderate" Science interest and aspiration for semi-professional occupations were slightly associated in the positive direction.

7.2.21 Science Interest and the Occupational Preferences of Students

7.2.21.1 Science interest and preference for Professional-Managerial-I occupations were positively related.

7.2.21.2 There was no association between the science interest and the preference for the skilled work.

7.2.22 Business Interest and the Occupational Aspirations of Students

7.2.22.1 Very slight positive association was found between the Business interest and Professional-Managerial-I, Professional-Managerial-II, Semi-professional and skilled occupations.

7.2.23 Business Interest and the Occupational Preferences of Students

7.2.23.1 No significant association was found between the Business interest and the preference for Professional-Managerial-I,

Professional-Managerial-II and skilled occupations.

7.2.23.2 Slight association was found between "high" business interest and the preference for semi-professional occupations.

7.2.24 Outdoor Interest and the Occupational Aspirations of Students

7.2.24.1 No significant association was found between the outdoor interest of the students and their occupational aspirations.

7.2.25 Outdoor Interest and Occupational Preferences of Students

7.2.25.1 As the level of "outdoor" interest increased, the preference for Professional-Managerial-I occupations also increased. From the students who preferred Professional-Managerial-I occupations, 42.8 per cent was with "high" outdoor interest.

7.2.25.2 More students with "moderate" outdoor interest preferred Professional-Managerial-II occupations.

7.2.25.3 "Low" outdoor interest and skilled occupations are positively associated.

7.2.26 Political Interest and the Occupational Aspirations of Students

- 7.2.26.1 Skilled occupations and "low" political interests are positively related.
- 7.2.26.2 Political interest was not significantly associated with the students' aspirations for Professional-Managerial-I, Professional-Managerial-II occupations.

7.2.27 Political Interest and the Occupational Preferences of Students

- 7.2.27.1 "Low" political interest and preference for skilled occupations are positively associated.
- 7.2.27.2 Political interest is not associated with the preferences for other occupations.

7.2.28 Sports Interest and the occupational Aspirations of Students

- 7.2.28.1 "Low" Sports interest and aspiration for semi-professional occupations were slightly associated positively.

7.2.29 Sports Interest and Occupational Preferences of Students

7.2.29.1 More students from those preferred Professional-Managerial-I and Professional-Managerial-II occupations were with "high" sports interest. Thus "high" sports interest and preference for Professional-Managerial-I and Professional-Managerial-II occupations are positively associated.

7.2.29.2 Semi-professional occupations and "moderate" sports interests are positively correlated.

8.2.29.3 "Low" sports interest and skilled occupations are positively related.

7.2.30 Religious Interest and the Occupational Aspirations of Students

7.2.30.1 No association was found between the religious interest and the occupational aspirations of students.

7.2.31 Religious Interest and the Occupational Preferences of Students

7.2.31.1 From those who preferred skilled work, more students had "high" religious interest. Mainly girls might have come in this group. Because, the skilled occupations include, "nurse", "clerk", "typist" etc.

7.2.31.2 Religious interest did not influence the occupational preferences of students with regard to the Professional-Managerial-I, Professional-Managerial-II or the semi-professional occupations.

7.2.32 Other Findings

7.2.32.1 The common trend applicable to all the categories of students was that, from all the categories, more students aspired for Professional-Managerial-I occupations, which included "doctor", "engineer", "lawyer", etc.

7.2.32.2 Comparatively more girl students than boy students get admission in the regular colleges affiliated to a University. In the randomly selected sample of the present study there were 670 girls and 430 boys (total 1100).

7.2.32.3 More than half of the total strength of students (54.4 per cent) belonged to families with 2-3 children.

7.2.32.4 The large majority (86.5 per cent) of students belonged to the age group of 15-17 years.

7.2.32.5 More students gather information about various occupations from newspapers and magazines.

- 7.2.32.6 Only very few students (9.5 per cent) claimed that their source of information about various occupations was their teachers.
- 7.2.32.7 Only five per cent of the students benefitted through radio and television in getting information about various occupations.
- 7.2.32.8 Seminars and discussion groups helped only 1.8 per cent of the students to know about different careers.
- 7.2.32.9 A good majority of students (74.5 per cent) did not have any confusion about the occupational aspirations or preferences.
- 7.2.32.10 At the same time, a good majority of the students thought that it would be more helpful to have more information regarding various careers.
- 7.2.32.11 92.4 per cent of girl students feel that there will not be any problem in future, to combine well the family responsibilities and the occupational responsibilities. This shows the desire of girl students to enter into various occupations.
- 7.2.32.12 61.4 per cent of the boys feel that there will be no problem in the family adjustment even if their wives would be employed.

- 7.2.32.13 35 per cent of students complained that their main problem was economic difficulties at home; and 16.5 per cent found their main problem in the area of health; travel difficulties were mentioned by 8.6 per cent of the students.
- 7.2.32.14 68.1 per cent of students said that they aspired for particular occupations because of "personal liking for that occupation" (the first reason).
- 7.2.32.15 When the second reason for aspiring for the particular occupations was asked, 30.6 per cent of the students replied "to improve the economic status of the family", 25.7 per cent said, "want a job different from that of the parents"; 20 per cent gave the reason "to improve the social status of the family", 15 per cent said "will be happy" in this occupation and 8.7 per cent gave one or other of 3 other reasons as "to be independent from the family", "teachers encouragement" and "know more about this job".

7.3 Recommendations

The investigator, on the basis of the findings of the research would like to make some recommendations to help the students in their effort to climb up the heights of the occupational ladder.

7.3.1 Vocational Guidance Service is to be made available in all the colleges, so that the students may be kept informed of the various occupations. This service will be of help to the students in finding out their own abilities and interests to various occupations. The experience of the investigator while visiting the colleges for the data collection was very encouraging to proceed in this line. The students were happy to learn that there were standardised tests to measure their occupational interests.

This starting of the vocational guidance service is a pressing need of the time because, the present study showed that, students from whatever socio-economic background or with whatever academic achievement, always had great attraction towards the occupations like 'doctor', 'engineer' etc. This blind attraction is due to the lack of enlightenment in the occupational fields.

The University Employment Informations and Guidance Bureau attached to a University cannot reach out the distant colleges to give any vocational guidance. Therefore if one centre for five colleges is immediately started, it will be of great help to the students. Gradually we should start Vocational Service Centres in all the colleges.

This centre should function under the guidance of a qualified and experienced director which will help the students to identify their interests, disseminate information regarding various occupations and respective educational qualifications etc.

In addition to career counselling the centre can be of additional help to the students in helping them to solve their psychological problems

7.3.2 The scheduled caste students must be given special academic care and vocational guidance. This must be in such a way as to develop in them a sense of adequacy to serve the nation as any other citizen. In this study it was found that even with all the favourable reservation policies the aspirations and preferences of these students are at lower percentages compared to other communities.

Together with reservations special educational training programmes also should be introduced into the college system, so that these students may improve their academic performance also. Reservation policy should not tranquilize the vigour in the students for healthy academic competitions and successful achievements.

7.3.3 Together with the social status the economic status of the individuals also must be an important factor in granting reservations to various backward communities. The mere fact that one is a member of a particular community does not justify the enjoyment of reservation which originally was granted on the basis of the socio-economic backwardness.

The present study revealed that more students from the backward communities than from the forward showed the sense of adequacy to aspire for higher occupations. Many members who get the advantages of reservation are in a very good economic position and, consequently, they enjoy higher social status also. At the same time many members of the forward communities are in the grip of extreme poverty and without much sympathetic policies from the governments.

The investigator, therefore, recommends a more detailed comparative study on the socio-economic statuses of the forward and backward communities.

7.3.4 To stop the capitation fee system in the medical and engineering colleges would be another recommendation on the

basis of the present study. Academic merit is to be the sole criterion for entrance to medical and engineering colleges. Many intelligent students are kept away from the portals of professional colleges, while many 'average' students, because of their parents' "purchasing power", get easy entrance there.

- 7.3.5 The present study shows that the gender differences are reflecting in the occupational aspirations of students. Women, compared to men, are still reluctant to aspire for higher occupations. Two suggestions are given here: Parents and guardians should develop a positive attitude towards women's higher education and occupational entry. Women themselves must develop confidence in themselves to aspire for higher occupations. Although the present study revealed that 92.4 per cent of the girls showed their desire to enter some occupation in future, the specific aspiration patterns showed, that they aspired for lower level occupations compared to the boys. Conscientization programmes will help to develop positive attitudes towards this issue, both in the parents and in the girls.
- 7.3.6 More students who aspired for professional-managerial-I occupations had "high" science interest. Many other interests

were also related to various occupations. Interests are developed, according to the psychologists, through the early experience in the family by the various other environments to which the child is exposed. A conscious effort, therefore, to develop specific interests in the child will be helpful for future career choice. Although this is not a concrete suggestion, the investigator hopes that more information from the psychological studies will complement this effort.

7.4 Contribution of the Researcher

This research exploring the impact of socio-economic variables and interests on the occupational aspirations and on the occupational preferences of college students is a new attempt in Kerala. This study, therefore, is unique on the ground that predictions on career aspirations and preferences can be made by assessing the socio-economic conditions and measuring the interest of college students. No study is known to have been conducted in Kerala exploring both the occupational aspirations of students (where the ideal aspirations are reflected) as well as their occupational preferences (where the real aspirations are shown) in relation to the socio-economic status and interests.

7.5 Recommendations for Further Research

- 7.5.1 A comparative study on the socio-economic statuses of the backward and forward communities.
- 7.5.2 To study the academic history of those performing well and other wise in the professional-managerial-I occupations.
- 7.5.3 To investigate how far the political affiliations are helpful for entering into a job and for promotions, especially in higher occupations.

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APPENDIX IA STUDY OF OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS OF COLLEGE STUDENTS
IN ERNAKULAM DISTRICT AS RELATED TO THEIR SOCIO-ECONOMIC
BACKGROUNDQUESTIONNAIRE

N.B.: All your answers will be strictly confidential and will not be used for any purpose other than study.

Part - I: General Information

- Qn: 1. Name of the College:
2. Your Name: Male/Female.
3. Age:
4. Religion with subgroup:Caste
5. PDC group you are studying:
6. Name of place where your house is:
Town/Village.....
7. Where do you stay during college study? Home/
Hostel/any other.....
8. Do you belong to SC() ST() please check(✓)

Part - IIA: Details of the Family Members

Family Members Name Age Your relation to Education completed or studying Occupation-should be written specifically whatever be the occupation including the retired posts Income of each member from the occupation at present

- 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.
 - 4.
 - 5.
 - 6.
 - 7.
 - 8.
 - 9.
 - 10.
-

B: Other Sources of Annual Income

1. From Agriculture Rs. (per year)
2. From other land cultivations Rs.(per year)
3. Mention any other source
and the income(per year)
4. How much land is possessed by your family?

Part - III: Academic Achievement

1. Marks obtained in S.S.L.C. Examination
Total Marks
Percentage
2. After completing Pre-Degree, what line of study you
plan to continue?

Please show your first three choices

- 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.
3. Upto what degree you intend to study?

4. What do you think are the obstacles for the continuation of your study?
 - a. Financial difficulties
 - b. Lack of intelligence
 - c. Lack of encouragement from the parents
 - d. To enter a job immediately and to look after the family
 - e. No interest in study

Part - IV: Your Occupational Aspirations

1. Imagine that you have all the abilities and facilities to enter into any occupation and then mark your occupational aspirations. Mark three occupations from the list given below writing 1,2,3 respectively for your first, second and third aspirations in the respective columns.

Doctor/Journalist/Typist/Clerk/Nurse/Professor/Lecturer/
 Lawyer/ School teacher/ Engineer/Manager/Officer/Proprietor of Large business concern/Proprietor of medium business concern/Proprietor of small business concern/Skilled works with I.T.I. or similar qualifications/Social work/
 any other

2. Please mark three reasons from the list below why you

wanted to aspire the occupation of your first choice.
Give Nos.: 1,2,3 against statements respectively for
your first, second and third reason.

1. I have special interest for that occupation
2. I like the high salary from that occupation
3. I like the high prestige of that occupation
4. I want to improve the financial condition of my family
5. I want to increase the status of my family
6. I want a different job than my parents
7. I want to be independent from family as early as possible
8. I can help others better through this occupation
9. I will be happy in that occupation
10. I want to get a job with financial security
11. My parents encouraged me to select this occupation
12. My teachers encouraged me
13. My friends encouraged me
14. I select this occupation because I can utilise my full
abilities in this occupation.
15. At present I know more about this occupation
16. Because some of my relatives are in this occupation
17. Any other reasons than above (please specify)

Part - V: Your Occupational Preferences

1. Although you aspire for particular occupations (From the list Part IV, Qu.1), considering all the real situations in you and at home, what occupations would you like to enter? Please write three occupations you prefer in the order of priority.

- 1.

- 2.

- 3.

2. Please give three reasons for the first preference you have given above.

- 1.

- 2.

- 3.

Part - VI: Other Details

1. Have you got information about different occupations from: Magazines/Books/Seminars/Parents/Teacher Films/T.V./Radio/Newspaper/Friends/Other sources

2. Do you think the increased number of occupations lead to confusion as to which to select?

Yes/No

3. Do you think that students must be given more information about various occupations?

Yes/No

4. To Female Students Only

If you enter any occupation after your studies, do you have any fear of success to combine the family duties and the occupation you enter?

Yes/No

Explain your answer

5. To Male Students Only

Do you think that if your future wife will be an employed girl, it will hinder the peaceful family life? Yes/No

Explain your answer

6. Please write the problem that has troubled you within the last 12 months.

APPENDIX IITranslated Version of Mathew Interest Inventory

(Do not write or mark anything in this paper)

Write your answers in the answer sheets given separately.

This questionnaire is intended to make an understanding of your interests and likes in various fields. This test is not meant to measure your intelligence or abilities.

Many activities are given in this questionnaire. After reading each one of them indicate how much interested you are in doing them. Do not consider the money and position you can get through these activities. In the same way imagine that you possess the ability and training required for doing each activity.

For each question choose one among the five answers given below. Write the point for that answer against the column for that question number given in the answer paper.

0. Not interested at all
1. A little interested

2. General interest as everybody has
3. Interested more than usual
4. Very much interested

Example: To see a cinema

See how it is indicated in the answer paper that there is general interest as everybody has (2) for this activity.

Write the answers in this way. Please see that no question is missed out.

1. To fight in order to win rights
2. Participate in religious ceremonies
3. Distribute food in places affected by famine
4. Do propaganda for a political party
5. Perform prayers or rites.
6. Conscientize people about citizen responsibility
7. Distribute food in a home for beggars
8. Draw pictures for greeting cards
9. Work for the uplift of the poor
10. Give sports commentary
11. Find out the origin of rivers

12. Prepare budget for a company
13. See germs through microscope
14. Give vocational training for the handicapped people
15. Teach mentally retarded children
16. Give free education for the poor
17. Do flood relief activities
18. Live in an island for a long time
19. Make members join in an association
20. Drive deep into the ocean to collect pearls
21. Write articles about sports
22. Protest against injustices
23. Do scientific discoveries
24. Live in a forest for a long time
25. Do election campaign
26. Help in cleaning the city (village)
27. Dissect creatures
28. Swim in the ocean
29. See tournaments
30. Go for world tour
31. Build walls with stones
32. Participate in agitation
33. Visit a desert
34. Sort letters

35. Contest in elections
36. Travel by ship
37. Do domestic wiring
38. Weighing bundles
39. Uplift the beggars
40. Frame pictures
41. Do charity
42. Participate in processions
43. Teach blind people
44. Wrap the things
45. Listen to religious talks
46. Draw cartoons
47. Go on pilgrimage
48. Do auctioneering
49. Draw pictures
50. Canvassing votes
51. Lead a procession
52. To be the team captain

How much interested are you in doing the activities given below? Indicate the answers in the same way as done above.

53. Calculate the employees' salary, pension etc.

54. Draw pictures for the cover page of books
55. Prepare statistics
56. Give tickets in a counter
57. Do religious ceremonies
58. Look after the patients
59. Do composing in the press
60. To run a cycle workshop
61. Calculate tax
62. To run a mill
63. Do wholesale business
64. Coconut cultivation

How much interested are you in reading those given below?

65. New scientific discoveries
66. Comparative study of religions
67. Comparative study of languages
68. Bad effects of alcoholism
69. Methods of seed germination
70. Political whereabouts
71. Injustices in society
72. Monks and Saints
73. Origin of the Solar System

74. Social reforms
75. Priesthood
76. Origin of customs
77. Mental illness
78. Theory of evolution
79. Folk songs
80. Space travel
81. Rocket making
82. Travelogue
83. Plywood making
84. Eclipses
85. Socialism
86. Germs
87. Sports
88. Religion

How much interested are you to become persons engaged
in the occupations given below?
(Ignore salary and status attached therewith)

89. Labour Welfare Officer
90. Coach
91. Insurance agent
92. Meteorologist
93. Music Director

94. Police Officer
95. Scientist/Researcher
96. Company agent
97. Religious preacher
98. Playback singer
99. Sportstar
100. Political leader
101. Tourist guide
102. Artist
103. Captain of the ship
104. Typist
105. Pilot
106. Actor
107. Sculptor

How much interested are you in the subjects given below?

108. Physics
109. Botany
110. Zoology
111. Medicine
112. Economics

How much interested are you in studying the following?

- 113. Predict eclipses
- 114. Instrumental music
- 115. Classical music
- 116. Drawing
- 117. First aid
- 118. Flower arrangement
- 119. Sculpture

Indicate your interest in doing the activities given below during leisure time.

- 120. Religious rites
- 121. To participate in games like football
- 122. Make paper flowers
- 123. Participate in prayer session
- 124. Play in Gymnasium
- 125. Visit patients
- 126. Religious discussion
- 127. See sports competition
- 128. Go for picnic

- 129. See dance
- 130. Watch wrestling
- 131. Drawing

How much interested are you in working in the institutions given below.

- 132. Wild life sanctuary
- 133. Fertilizer manufacturing factory
- 134. Mother and child welfare centre
- 135. Scientific Research Centre
- 136. Watch manufacturing company
- 137. Cinema studio
- 138. Post office
- 139. Workshop

Indicate your interest in knowing more about the persons given below.

- 140. Thyagaraja Bhagavathar
- 141. C.V. Raman
- 142. Socrates
- 143. Tenzing
- 144. Lenin

How much interested are you in doing the activities given below during holidays?

- 145. Visit various parts of India
- 146. Visit hospitals and do service
- 147. Learn new games
- 148. Visit to far off places
- 149. Increase scientific knowledge
- 150. Sport pastimes
- 151. Learn music
- 152. Do social service
- 153. Go for swimming

How interested are you in visiting the following?

- 154. Painting exhibition
- 155. Cinema studio
- 156. Holiday resort
- 157. Laboratory
- 158. Religious place

How much interested are you to get acquainted with those given below?

- 159. Tennis champion

- 160. Film actor
- 161. Political leader
- 162. Scientist
- 163. Religious scholar
- 164. Traveller
- 165. Poet.

APPENDIX IIINATIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF OCCUPATIONSMajor Divisions in National Classification of OccupationsDivisions

- 0-1 Professional, Technical and Related Workers
- 2 Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers
- 3 Clerical and Related Workers
- 4. Sales Workers
- 5. Farmers, Fishermen, Hunters, Loggers and Related
Workers
- 6. Service Workers
- 7-8-9 Production and Related Workers, Transport Equipment
Operators and Labourers

X Workers not Classified by Occupations

Divisions and Groups

DIVISION 0-1 PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL AND RELATED WORKERS

GROUPS 00 Physical Scientists

01 Physical Science Technicians

02 Architects, Engineers, Technologists and
Surveyors

03 Engineering Technicians

04 Aircraft and Ships Officers

05 Life Scientists

06 Life Science Technicians

07 Physicians and Surgeons (including Dental and
Veterinary Surgeons)

08 Nursing and Other Medical and Health Technicians

09 Scientific, Medical and Technical Persons, Others

- 10 Mathematicians, Statisticians and Related Workers
 - 11 Economists and Related Workers
 - 12 Accountants, Auditors and Related Workers
 - 13 Social Scientists and Related Workers
 - 14 Jurists
 - 15 Teachers
 - 16 Poets, Authors, Journalists and Related Workers
 - 17 Sculptors, Painters, Photographers and Related
Creative Artists
 - 18 Composers and Performing Artists
 - 19 Professional Workers, n.e.c.
- DIVISION 2 ADMINISTRATIVE, EXECUTIVE AND MANAGERIAL WORKERS
- GROUPS 20 Elected and Legislative Officials
 - 21 Administrative and Executive Officials Government
and Local Bodies
 - 22 Working Proprietors, Directors and Managers, Whole-
sale and Retail Trade
 - 23 Directors and Managers, Financial Institutions
 - 24 Working Proprietors, Directors and Managers Mining,
Construction, Manufacturing and Related Concerns

	25	Working Proprietors, Directors, Managers and Related Executives, Transport, Storage and Communication
	26	Working Proprietors, Directors and Managers, Other Services
	29	Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers, n.e.c.
DIVISION	3	CLERICAL AND RELATED WORKERS
GROUPS	30	Clerical and other Supervisors
	31	Village Officials
	32	Stenographers, Typists and Card and Tape Punching Operators
	33	Book Keepers, Cashiers and Related Workers
	34	Computing Machine Operators
	35	Clerical and Related workers
	36	Transport and Communication Supervisors
	37	Transport conductors and guards
	38	Mail Distributors and related workers
	39	Telephone and Telegraph Operators
DIVISION	4	SALES WORKERS
GROUPS	40	Merchants and Shopkeepers, Wholesale and Retail Trade

41 Manufacturers, Agents
 42 Technical Salesmen and Commercial Travellers
 43 Salesmen, Shop Assistants and Related Workers
 44 Insurance, Real Estate, Securities and Business
 Service Salesmen and Auctioneers
 45 Money Lenders and Pawn Brokers
 49 Sales Workers, n.e.c.

DIVISION 5 SERVICE WORKERS
 GROUPS 50 Hotel and Resturant Keepers
 51 House Keepers, Matron and Stewards (Domestic and
 Institutional)
 52 Cooks, waiters, bartenders and related workers
 (Demestic and Institutional)
 53 Maids and other house keeping service workers,
 n.e.c.
 54 Building Caretakers, Sweepers, Cleaners and
 Related Workers
 55 Launderers, Dry-cleaners and Pressers
 56 Hair Dressers, Barbers, Beauticians and Related
 workers
 57 Protective service workers
 59 Service workers n.e.c.

DIVISION	6	FARMERS, FISHERMEN, HUNTERS, LOGGERS AND RELATED WORKERS
GROUPS	60	Farm Plantation, Dairy and other Managers and Supervisors
	61	Cultivators
	62	Farmers Other than Cultivators
	63	Agricultural Labourers
	64	Plantation Labourers and Related Workers
	65	Other Farm Workers
	66	Forestry workers
	67	Hunters and related workers
	68	Fishermen and related workers
DIVISION	7-8-9	PRODUCTION AND RELATED WORKERS, TRANSPORT EQUIPMENT OPERATORS AND LABOURERS
GROUPS	71	Miners, Quarrymen, Well Drillers and Related Workers
	72	Metal Processors
	73	Wood Preparation Workers
	74	Chemical Processors and Related workers
	75	Spinners, weavers, knitters, Dyers and Related workers
	76	Tanners, Fellmongers and Pelt Dressers
	77	Food and Beverage Processors

- 78 Tobacco preparers and tobacco product makers
- 79 Tailors, Dress makers, Sewers, Upholsterers and
Related workers
- 80 Shoemakers and Leather good makers
- 81 Carpenters, Cabinet and Related wood workers
- 82 Stone cutter and Carvers
- 83 Blacksmiths, Tool makers and Machine Tool
Operators
- 84 Machinery Fitters, Machine Assemblers and Precision
Instrument makers (Except Electrical)
- 85 Electrical fitters and Related Electrical and
Electronic workers
- 86 Broadcasting station and sound equipment operators
and cinema projectronists
- 87 Plumbers, Welders, sheet metal and structural metal
preparer and Erectors
- 88 Jewellery and Precious metal workers and metal
engravers (Except printing)
- 89 Glass Formers, Potters and related workers
- 90 Rubber and Plasters Product Makers
- 91 Paper and paper board product makers

92	Printing and Related workers
93	Painters
94	Production and Related workers, n.e.c.
95	Bricklayers and other constructions workers
96	Stationary engines and related equipment operators, oilers and greasers
97	Material handling and related equipment operators, Loaders and Unloaders
98	Transport Equipment Operators
99	Labourers, n.e.c.
DIVISION X	WORKERS NOT CLASSIFIED BY OCCUPATIONS
GROUPS X0	New Workers Seeking Employment
XI	Workers reporting occupations unidentifiable or inadequately described
X9	Workers not reporting any occupations

Divisions, Groups and Families

DIVISION 0-1	PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL AND RELATED WORKERS
GROUP 00	Physical Scientists
Families 000	Physicist
001	Chemists (Excluding Pharmaceutical Chemists)

002 Geologists and Geophysicists
003 Metereologists
009 Physical Scientists, n.e.c.

GROUP 01 PHYSICAL SCIENCE TECHNICIANS

Family 010 Physical Science Technicians

GROUP 02 ARCHITECTS, ENGINEERS, TECHNOLOGISTS and SURVEYORS

Families 020 Architects and Town Planners

021 Civil Engineers
022 Electrical and Electronic Engineers
023 Mechanical Engineers
024 Chemical Engineers
025 Metallurgists
026 Mining Engineers
027 Industrial Engineers
028 Surveyors
029 Architects, Engineers, Technologists and Surveyors,
n.e.c.

GROUP 03 ENGINEERING TECHNICIANS

Families 030 Draughtsmen

031 Civil Engineering Overseers and Technicians
032 Electrical and Electronic Engineering Overseers
and Technicians

033 Mechanical Engineering Overseers and Technicians
 034 Chemical Engineering Technicians
 035 Metallurgical Technicians
 036 Mining Technicians
 037 Survey Technicians
 039 Engineering Technicians, n.e.c.

GROUP 04 AIRCRAFT AND SHIPS OFFICERS

Families 040 Aircraft Pilots
 041 Flight Engineers
 042 Flight Navigators
 043 Ships, Deck Officers, and Pilots
 044 Ships, Engineers
 049 Aircraft Engineers

GROUP 05 LIFE SCIENTISTS

Families 050 Biologists, Zoologists, Botanists and Related
 Scientists
 051 Bacteriologists, Pharmacologists and Related
 Scientists
 052 Silviculturists
 053 Agronomists and Agricultural Scientists
 059 Life Scientists, n.e.c.

GROUP	06	LIFE SCIENCE TECHNICIANS
Family	060	Life Science Technicians
GROUP	07	PHYSICIANS AND SURGEONS (ALLOPATHIC, DENTAL AND VETERINARY SURGEONS)
Families	070	Physicians and Surgeons, Allopathic
	071	Physicians and Surgeons, Ayurvedic
	072	Physicians and Surgeons, Homeopathic
	073	Physicians and Surgeons, Unani
	074	Dental Surgeons
	075	Veterinarians
	076	Pharmacists
	077	Dieticians and Nutritionists
	078	Public Health Physicians
	079	Physicians and Surgeons, n.e.c.
GROUP	08	NURSING AND OTHER MEDICAL AND HEALTH TECHNICIANS
Families	080	Vaccinators, inoculators, Medical Assistants
	081	Dental Assistants
	082	Veterinary Assistants
	083	Pharmaceutical Assistants
	084	Nurses
	085	Midwives and Health Visitors

	086	X-Ray Technicians
	087	Opthemetrists and Occupational Therapists
	089	Nursing, Sanitary and Other Medical and Health Technicians, n.e.c.
GROUP	09	SCIENTIFIC, MEDICAL AND TECHNICAL PERSONS, OTHER
Family	099	Scientific, Medical and Technical Persons, other
GROUP	10	MATHEMATICIANS, STATISTICIANS AND RELATED WORKERS
Families	100	Mathematicians
	101	Statisticians
	102	Actuaries
	103	System Analysts and Programmers
	104	Statistical Investigators and Related Workers
	109	Mathematicians, Statisticians and Related Workers, n.e.c.
GROUP	11	ECONOMISTS AND RELATED WORKERS
Families	110	Economists
	111	Economic Investigators and Related Workers
	119	Economics and Related Workers, n.e.c.
GROUP	12	ACCOUNTANTS, AUDITORS AND RELATED WORKERS
Families	120	Accountants and Auditors
	121	Cost and Works Accountants
	129	Accountants, Auditors and Related Workers, n.e.c.

GROUP	13	SOCIAL SCIENTISTS AND RELATED WORKERS
Families	130	Sociologists and Anthropologists
	131	Historians, Archaeologists and Political Scientists and Related Workers
	132	Geographers
	133	Psychologists
	134	Librarians, Archivists and Curators
	135	Philologists, Translators and Interpreters
	136	Personnel and Occupational Specialists
	137	Labour, Social Welfare and Political Workers
	139	Social Scientists and Related Workers, n.e.c.
GROUP	14	JURISTS
Families	140	Lawyers
	141	Judges and Magistrates
	142	Law Assistant
	149	Jurists (including petition writers), n.e.c.
GROUP	15	TEACHERS
Families	150	Teachers, University and Colleges
	151	Teachers, Higher Secondary and High School
	152	Teachers, Middle School
	153	Teachers, Primary
	154	Teachers, Pre-Primary

	155	Teachers, Special Education
	156	Teachers, Craft
	159	Teachers, n.e.c.
GROUP	16	POETS, AUTHORS, JOURNALISTS AND RELATED WORKERS
Families	160	Poets, Authors and Critics
	161	Editors and Journalists
	169	Poets, Authors, Journalists and Related Workers, n.e.c.
GROUP	17	SCULPTORS, PAINTERS, PHOTOGRAPHERS AND RELATED CREATIVE ARTISTS
Families	170	Sculptors, Painters and Related Artists
	171	Commercial Artists, Interior Decorators and Designers
	172	Movie Camera Operators
	173	Photographers, other
	179	Sculptors, Painters, Photographers and Related Creative Artists, n.e.c
GROUP	18	COMPOSERS AND PERFORMING ARTISTS
Families	180	Composers, Musicians and Singers
	181	Choreographers and Dancers and Singers
	182	Actors
	183	Stage and Film Directors and Producers (Performing Arts)

	184	Circus Performers
	189	Composers and Performing Artists, n.e.c.
GROUP	19	PROFESSIONAL WORKERS, n.e.c.
Families	190	Ordained Religious Workers
	191	Non-Ordained Religious Workers
	192	Astrologers, Palmists and Related Workers
	193	Athletes, Sportsmen and Related Workers
	199	Professional Workers, n.e.c.
DIVISION	2	ADMINISTRATIVE, EXECUTIVE AND MANAGERIALS WORKERS
GROUP	20	ELECTED AND LEGISLATIVE OFFICIALS
Families	200	Elected Officials, Union Government
	201	Elected Officials, State Government
	202	Elected Officials, Local Bodies
	209	Elected Officials, n.e.c.
GROUP	21	ADMINISTRATIVE AND EXECUTIVE OFFICIALS, GOVERNMENT AND LOCAL BODIES
Families	210	Administrative and Executive Officials, Union Government
	211	Administrative and Executive Officials, State Government
	212	Administrative and Executive Officials, Quasi- Government

- 213 Administrative and Executive Officials, Local Bodies.
- 219 Administrative and Executive Officials, Government and Local Bodies, n.e.c.
- GROUP 22 WORKING PROPRIETORS, DIRECTORS AND MANAGERS, WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE
- GROUP 23 DIRECTORS AND MANAGERS, FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS
- Families 230 Directors & Managers, Bank
- 231 Directors & Managers Insurance
- 239 Directors & Managers, Financial Institutions, n.e.c.
- GROUP 24 WORKING PROPRIETORS, DIRECTORS & MANAGERS, MINING, CONSTRUCTION, MANUFACTURING & RELATED CONCERNS
- Families 240 Working Proprietors, Directors & Managers, Mining, Quarrying and Well Drilling
- 241 Working proprietors, Directors & Managers, Construction
- 242 Working Proprietors, Directors & Managers, Electricity, Gas and Water
- 243 Working Proprietors, Directors and Managers, Manufacturing

- 249 Working Proprietors, Directors & Managers,
Mining, Construction, Manufacturing & Related
Concerns, n.e.c.
- GROUP 25 WORKING PROPRIETORS, DIRECTORS, MANAGERS &
RELATED EXECUTIVES, TRANSPORT, STORAGE & COMMU-
NICATION
- Families 250 Working Proprietors, Directors & Managers & Related
Executives, Transport
- 251 Directors, Managers & Related Executive, Communi-
cation
- 252 Working Proprietors, Directors, Managers & Related
Executives Storage and Warehouses
- 259 Working Proprietors, Directors, Managers & Related
Executives, Transport, Storage & Communication,
n.e.c.
- GROUP 26 WORKING PROPRIETORS; DIRECTORS & MANAGERS, OTHER
SERVICES
- Families 260 Working Proprietors, Directors & Managers, Lodging
and Catering Services
- 261 Working Proprietors, Directors & Managers, Recre-
ation and Entertainment

269 Working Proprietors, Directors, Managers &
Related Executives, Other Services

GROUP 29 ADMINISTRATIVE, EXECUTIVE & MANAGERIAL WORKERS, n.e.c.

Family 299 Administrative, Executive & Managerial Workers, n.e.c.

DIVISION 3 CLERICAL AND RELATED WORKERS

GROUP 30 CLERICAL AND OTHER SUPERVISORS

Families 300 Clerical Supervisors (Office), Superintendents,
Head Clerks & Section Heads

301 Other Supervisors (Inspectors, etc.)

302 Ministerial and Office Assistants

309 Clerical and other supervision, n.e.c.

GROUP 31 VILLAGE OFFICIALS

Family 310 Village Officials

GROUP 32 STENOGRAPHERS, TYPISTS AND CARD AND TAPE PUNCHING
OPERATORS

Families 320 Stenographers & Steno Typists

321 Typists

322 Teletypists (Teleprinter Operators)

323 Card and Tape Punching Machine Operators

329 Stenographers, Typists and Card and Tape
Punching Operators, n.e.c.

GROUP 33 BOOK-KEEPERS, CASHIERS AND RELATED WORKERS

Families 330 Book-Keepers & Accounts Clerks

331 Cashiers

339 Book-Keepers, Cashiers & Related Workers, n.e.c.

GROUP 34 COMPUTING MACHINE OPERATORS

Families 340 Book-Keeping & Calculating Machine Operators

341 Automatic Data Processing Machine Operators

349 Computing Machine Operators, n.e.c.

GROUP 35 CLERICAL AND RELATED WORKERS, n.e.c.

Families 350 Clerks, General

351 Store-Keepers & Related Workers

352 Receptionists

353 Library Clerks

354 Time Keepers

355 Coders

356 Ticket Sellers

357 Ticket Collectors, Checkers & Examiners

358 Office Attendants, (Peons Daftries etc.).

359 Clerical and Related Workers (including Proof Readers & Copy Holders), n.e.c.

GROUP	36	TRANSPORT & COMMUNICATION SUPERVISORS
Families	360	Station Masters & Station Superintendent, Transport
	361	Post Masters, Telegraph Masters & Other Super- visors
	369	Transport & Communication Supervisors, n.e.c.
GROUP	37	TRANSPORT CONDUCTORS AND GUARDS
Families	370	Guards and Brakesmen, Railway
	371	Conductors, Transport
	379	Transport Conductors & Guards, n.e.c.
GROUP	38	MAIL DISTRIBUTORS AND RELATED WORKERS
Families	380	Postmen
	381	Messengers & Despatch Riders
	389	Mail Distributors & Related Workers, n.e.c.
GROUP	39	TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAM OPERATORS
Families	390	Telephone Operators
	391	Telegraphists & Signallers
	392	Radio Communication & Wireless Operators
	399	Telephone & Telegraph Operators, n.e.c.

DIVISION 4 SALES WORKERS

GROUP	40	MERCHANTS AND SHOP KEEPERS, WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE
Families	400	Merchants and Shop Keepers, Wholesale Trade
	401	Merchants and Shop Keepers, Retail Trade
	409	Merchants and Shop Keepers, Wholesale and Retail Trade, n.e.c.
GROUP	41	MANUFACTURERS & AGENTS
Families	410	Sales Supervisors
	411	Purchasing Agents
	412	Selling Agents
	419	Manufacturers Agents, n.e.c.
GROUP	42	TECHNICAL SALESMEN AND COMMERCIAL TRAVELLERS
Families	420	Technical Salesmen and Service Advisors
	421	Commercial Travellers
	429	Technical Salesmen and Commercial Travellers, n.e.c.
GROUP	43	SALESMEN, SHOP ASSISTANTS AND RELATED WORKERS
Families	430	Salesmen, Shop Assistants and Demonstrators
	431	Street Vendors, Canvassers and News Vendors
	439	Salesmen, Shop Assistants & Related Workers, n.e.c.

GROUP	44	INSURANCE, REAL ESTATE, SECURITIES AND BUSINESS SERVICE SALESMEN & AUCTIONEERS
Families	440	Agents & Salesmen, Insurance
	441	Agents, Brokers, Securities and Shares
	442	Agents, Brokers & Salesmen, Real Estate
	443	Agents, Brokers and Salesmen, Advertising & Other Business Services
	444	Auctioneers
	445	Valuers and Appraisers
	449	Insurance, Real Estate, Securities & Business Service/Salesmen and Auctioneers, n.e.c.
GROUP	45	MONEY LENDERS & PAWN BROKERS
Families	450	Money Lenders (Including indigenous Bankers)
	451	Pawn Brokers
	459	Money Lender & Pawn Brokers, n.e.c.
GROUP	49	SALES WORKERS, n.e.c
Families	499	Sales Workers, n.e.c.

DIVISION 5 SERVICE WORKERS

GROUP	50	HOTEL AND RESTAURANT KEEPERS
Family	500	Hotel and Restaurant Keepers
GROUP	51	HOUSE KEEPERS, MATRONS AND STEWARDS (DOMESTIC & INSTITUTIONAL)

Family	510	House Keepers, Matrons and Stewards
GROUP	52	COOKS, WAITERS, BARTENDERS AND RELATED WORKERS (DOMESTIC & INSTITUTIONAL)
Families	520	Cooks and Cook-Bearers
	521	Butlers, Bearers & Waiters
	522	Bartenders & Related Workers
	529	Cooks, Waiter, Bartenders and Related Workers (Domestic and Institutional) n.e.c.
GROUP	53	MAIDS AND RELATED HOUSE KEEPING SERVICE WORKERS, n.e.c.
Families	530	Ayaha, Nurse, Maids
	531	Domestic Servants
	539	Maids and Related House Keeping Service Workers, n.e.c.
GROUP	54	BUILDING CARETAKERS, SWEEPERS, CLEANERS & RELATED WORKERS
Families	540	Building Caretakers
	541	Sweepers, Cleaners & Related Workers
	542	Watermen
	549	Building Caretakers, Sweepers, Cleaners and Related Workers, n.e.c.
GROUP	55	LAUNDERERS, DRY-CLEANERS AND PRESSERS, n.e.c.
Families	550	Laundrymen, Washermen & Dhobis

	551	Dry-Cleaners and Pressers
	559	Launders, Dry-Cleaners and Pressers, n.e.c.
GROUP	56	HAIR DRESSERS, BARBERS, BEAUTICIANS AND RELATED WORKERS
Family	560	Hair Dressers, Barbers, Beauticians & Related Workers
GROUP	57	PROTECTIVE SERVICE WORKERS
Families	570	Fire Fighters
	571	Policemen and Detectives
	572	Customs Examiners, Patrollers and Related Workers
	573	Protection Force, Home Guards and Security Workers
	574	Watchmen, Chowkidars & Gate Keepers
	579	Protective Service Workers, n.e.c.
GROUP	59	SERVICE WORKERS, n.e.c.
Families	590	Guides
	591	Undertakers & Embalmers
	599	Service Workers, n.e.c.
DIVISION 6 FARMERS, FISHERMEN, HUNTERS, LOGGERS AND RELATED WORKERS		
GROUP	60	FARM PLANTATION, DAIRY AND OTHER MANAGERS AND SUPERVISORS
Families	600	Farm Managers and Supervisors, Crop Production

	601	Managers, Plantation
	602	Farm Managers, Horticulture
	603	Farm Managers, Livestock Farm
	604	Farm Managers, Dairy Farm
	605	Farm Managers, Poultry Farm
	609	Farm Managers and Supervisors, n.e.c.
GROUP	61	CULTIVATORS
Families	610	Cultivators (Owners)
	611	Cultivators (Tenants)
	619	Cultivators, n.e.c.
GROUP	62	FARMERS, OTHER THAN CULTIVATORS
Families	620	Planters
	621	Livestock Farmers
	622	Dairy Farmers
	623	Poultry Farmers
	624	Insect Rearers
	625	Orchard, Vineyard and Related Workers
	629	Farmers, Other than Cultivators, n.e.c.
GROUP	63	AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS
Family	630	Agricultural Labourers
GROUP	64	PLANTATION LABOURERS AND RELATED WORKERS
Families	640	Plantation Labourers

	641	Tappers (Palm, Rubber Trees etc.)
	649	Plantation Labourers and Related Workers, n.e.c.
GROUP	65	OTHER FARM WORKERS
Families	650	Farm Machinery Operators
	651	Farm workers, Animal, Birds and Insect Rearing
	652	Gardeners and Nursery Workers
	659	Other farm workers, n.e.c.
GROUP	66	FORESTRY WORKERS
Families	660	Foresters and Related workers
	661	Harvesters and Gatherers of Forest Products (including Lac except Logs)
	662	Log Fellers and Wood cutters
	663	Charcoal Burners and Forest Product Processors
	669	Loggers and Other Forestry Workers, n.e.c
GROUP	67	HUNTERS AND RELATED WORKERS
Families	670	Hunters
	671	Trappers
	679	Hunters and Related workers, n.e.c.
GROUP	68	FISHERMEN AND RELATED WORKERS
Families	680	Fishermen, Deep Sea
	681	Fishermen, Inland and Coastal Waters

682 Conch and Shell Gatherers, Sponge and Pearl
Divers

689 Fishermen and Related Workers, n.e.c.

DIVISION 7-8-9 PRODUCTION AND RELATED WORKERS: TRANSPORT
EQUIPMENT OPERATORS AND LABOURERS

GROUP 71 MINERS, QUARRYMEN, WELL DRILLERS AND RELATED
WORKERS

710 Supervisors and Foremen, Mining, Quarrying,
Well Drilling and Related Activities

711 Miners

712 Quarrymen

713 Driller, Mines and Quarries

714 Shot Firers

715 Miners and Quarrymen, Other

716 Well Drillers, Petroleum and Gas

717 Well Drillers, Other than Petroleum and Gas

718 Mineral Treaters

719 Miners, Quarrymen and related workers, n.e.c.

GROUP 72 METAL PROCESSORS

Families 720 Supervisors and Foremen, Metal Smelting, Converting
and Refining

721 Metal Smelting, Converting and Refining Furnacemen

- 722 Metal Rolling Mill Workers
- 723 Metal Melters and Reheaters
- 724 Metal Casters
- 725 Metal Moulders and Core-Makers
- 726 Metal Annealers, Temperers and Case Hardeners
- 727 Metal Drawers and Extruders
- 728 Metal Platers and Coaters
- 729 Metal Processors, n.e.c.

- GROUP 73 WOOD PREPARATION WORKERS AND PAPER MAKERS

- Families 730 Supervisors and Foremen, Wood Preparation and
Paper Making

- 731 Wood Treaters
- 732 Sawyers, Plywood Makers and Related wood processing
workers
- 733 Paper Pulp Preparers
- 734 Paper Makers
- 739 Wood Preparation and Paper making Workers, n.e.c.

* A new family Supervisors and Foremen has been introduced at the beginning of each group under Division 7-8-9. There were no such families in N.C.O., 1958 and such persons were generally classified along with workers they supervised in their appropriate places.

GROUP	74	CHEMICAL PROCESSORS AND RELATED WORKERS
Families	740	Supervisors and Foremen Chemical, Processing and Related Activities
	741	Crushers, Grinders and Mixers
	742	Cookers, Roasters and Related Heat Treaters
	743	Filter and Separator Operator
	744	Still and Reactor Operators
	745	Petroleum Refining Workers
	749	Chemical Processors and Related Workers, n.e.c.
GROUP	75	SPINNERS, WEAVERS, KNITTERS, DYERS AND RELATED WORKERS
Families	750	Supervisors and Foremen, Spinning, Weaving, Knitting, Dyeing and Related Processes
	751	Fibre preparers
	752	Spinners and Winders
	753	Warpers and Sizers
	754	Weaving and Knitting Machine Setters and Pattern card Preparers
	755	Weavers and Related workers
	756	Carpet Makers and Finishers
	757	Bleachers, Dyers and Textile Printers and Finishers
	758	Knitters
	759	Spinners, Weavers, Knitters, Dyers and Related Workers, n.e.c.

GROUP	76	TANNERS, FELLMONGERS AND PELT DRESSERS
Families	760	Supervisors and Foremen Tanning and Pelt Dressing
	761	Tanners and Fellmongers
	762	Pelt Dressers
	769	Tanners, Fellmongers and Pelt Dressers, n.e.c.
GROUP	77	FOOD AND BEVERAGE PROCESSORS
Families	77	Supervisors and Foremen, Food and Beverage Processing
	771	Grain Millers, Parchers and Related workers
	772	Crushers and Pressers, Oil seeds
	773	Khandsari, Sugar and Gur Makers
	774	Butchers and Meat Preparers
	775	Food Preservers and Canners
	776	Dairy Product Processors
	777	Bakers, Confectioners, Candy and Sweet Meat Makers and other Food Processors
	778	Tea, Coffee and Cocoa Preparers
	779	Brewers and Aerated Water and Beverage Makers
GROUP	78	TOBACCO PREPARERS AND TOBACCO PRODUCT MAKERS
Families	780	Supervisors and Foremen Tobacco and Tobacco Product Making
	781	Tobacco Preparers
	782	Cigar Makers
	783	Cigarette Makers

- 784 Bidi Makers
- 789 Tobacco Preparers and Tobacco Product makers,
n.e.c.
- GROUP 79 TAILORS, DRESS MAKERS, SEWERS, UPHOLSTERERS AND
RELATED WORKERS
- Families 790 Supervisors and Foremen, Tailoring, Dress Making,
Sewing and Upholstery work
- 791 Tailors and Dress Makers
- 792 Fur Tailors and Related Workers
- 793 Milliners, Hat and Cap makers
- 794 Pattern makers and cutters
- 795 Sewers and Embroiderers
- 796 Upholsters and Related workers
- 799 Tailors, Dress Makers, Sewers, Upholsters and
Related workers, n.e.c.
- GROUP 80 SHOEMAKERS AND LEATHER GOODS MAKERS
- Families 800 Supervisors and Foremen, Shoe and Leather Goods
Making
- 801 Shoemakers and Shoe Repairers
- 802 Shoecutters, Lasters, Sewers and Related Workers
- 803 Harness and Saddle Makers
- 809 Leather Cutters, Lasters and Sewers and Related
Workers, n.e.c.

GROUP	81	CARPENTERS, CABINET AND RELATED WOOD WORKERS
Families	810	Supervisors and Foremen, Carpentry, Cabinet Making and Related Wood Working Processes
	811	Carpenters
	812	Cabinet Makers
	813	Wood Working Machine Operators
	814	Cart Builders and Wheel Wright
	815	Coach and Body Builders
	816	Shipwrights and Boat Builders
	819	Carpenters, Cabinet Makers and Related workers, n.e.c.
GROUP	82	STONE CUTTERS AND CARVERS
Families	820	Supervisors and Foremen Stone Cutting and Carving
	821	Stone Cutters and Carvers
	829	Stone Cutters and Carvers n.e.c.
GROUP	83	BLACKSMITHS, TOOL MAKERS AND MACHINE TOOL OPERATORS
Families	830	Supervisors and Foremen, Blacksmithy, Tool Making and Machine Tool Operation
	831	Blacksmiths, Hammersmiths and Forging Press Operators
	832	Metal Markers
	833	Tool Makers and Metal Pattern Makers

- 834 Machine Tool Setters
 - 835 Machine Tool Operators
 - 836 Metal Grinders, Polishers and Tool Sharpeners
 - 839 Blacksmiths, Tool Makers and Machine Tool Operations, n.e.c.
- GROUP 84 MACHINERY FITTERS, MACHINE ASSEMBLERS AND PRECISION INSTRUMENT MAKERS (EXCEPT ELECTRICAL)
- 840 Supervisors and Foremen, Machinery Fitting, Assembling, Repairing and Precision Instrument Making (Except Electrical)
 - 841 Watch, Clock and Precision Instrument Makers (Except Electrical)
 - 842 Machinery Fitters and Machine Assemblers
 - 843 Motor Vehicle Mechanics
 - 844 Aircraft Engine Mechanics
 - 845 Mechanics, Repairmen, Other
 - 849 Machinery Fitters, Machine Assemblers and Precision Instrument Makers (Except Electrical), n.e.c.
- GROUP 85 ELECTRICAL FITTERS AND RELATED ELECTRICAL AND ELECTRONIC WORKERS
- Families 850 Supervisors and Foremen Electrical and Electronic Equipment Fitting, Assembling, Installing and Repairing
- 851 Electricians, Electrical Fitters and Related Workers

- 852 Electronic Fitters
- 853 Electrical and Electronic Equipment Assemblers
- 854 Radio and Television Mechanics and Repairmen
- 855 Electrical Wiremen
- 856 Telephone and Telegraph Installers and Repairmen
- 857 Electric Linemen and Cable Jointers
- 859 Electrical Fitters and Related Electrical and Electronic Workers, n.e.c.

- GROUP 86 BROADCASTING STATION AND SOUND EQUIPMENT OPERATORS AND CINEMA PROJECTIONISTS

- Families 860 Supervisors, Broadcasting, Audio-Visual Projection and Sound Equipment Operations
- 861 Radio Broadcasting Television Operators
- 862 Sound Equipment Operators and Cinema Projectionists
- 869 Broadcasting Station and Sound Equipment Operators and Cinema Projectionists, n.e.c.

- GROUP 87 PLUMBERS, WELDERS, SHEET METAL AND STRUCTURAL METAL PREPARATORS AND ERECTORS

- Families 870 Supervisors and Foremen, Plumbing, Welding, Structural and Sheet Metal Working
- 871 Plumbers and Pipe fitters
- 872 Welders and Flame cutters
- 873 Sheet Metal workers

- 874 Metal Plate and Structural Metal Workers
- 879 Plumbers, Welders, Sheet Metal and Structural Metal Preparers and Erectors, n.e.c.
- GROUP 88 JEWELLERY AND PRECIOUS METAL WORKERS AND METAL ENGRAVERS (EXCEPT PRINTING)
- Families 880 Supervisors, Jewellery and Precious Metal Working
- 881 Jewellers, Goldsmiths and Silversmiths
- 882 Jewellery Engravers
- 883 Other Metal Engravers (Except Printing)
- 889 Jewellery and Precious Metal Workers and Metal Engravers, n.e.c. (Except Printing)
- GROUP 89 GLASS FORMERS, POTTERS AND RELATED WORKERS
- Families 890 Supervisors and Foremen Glass Forming, Pottery and Related activities
- 891 Glass Formers, Cutters, Grinders and Finishers
- 892 Potters and Related Clay and Abrasive Formers
- 893 Glass and Ceramics Kilnmen
- 894 Glass Engravers and Etchers
- 895 Glass and Ceramics Painters and Decorators
- 899 Glass Formers, Potters and Related Workers, n.e.c
- GROUP 90 RUBBER AND PLASTIC PRODUCT MAKERS
- Families 900 Supervisors and Foremen, Rubber and Plastics Product Making

	901	Plastics Product Makers
	902	Rubber Product Makers (Except Tyre Makers and Vulcanisers)
	903	Tyre Makers and Vulcanisers
	909	Rubber and Plastics Product Makers, n.e.c.
GROUP	91	PAPER AND PAPER BOARD PRODUCTS MAKERS
Families	910	Supervisors and Foremen, Paper and Paper Board Product making
	911	Paper and Paper Board Product Makers
	919	Paper and Paper Board Products Makers, n.e.c.
GROUP	92	PRINTING AND RELATED WORKERS
Families	920	Supervisors and Foremen, Printing and Related work
	921	Compositors
	922	Type setters and Photo Type setters
	923	Printing Pressmen
	924	Stereo-typers and Electro Typers
	925	Engravers, Printing (Except Photo-engravers)
	926	Photo Engravers
	927	Book Binders and Related Workers
	928	Photographic Darkroom workers
	929	Printers and Related workers, n.e.c.

GROUP	93	PAINTERS
Families	930	Supervisors and Foremen, Painting
	931	Painters, Construction
	932	Painters, Spray and Sign Writing
	939	Painters, n.e.c.
GROUP	94	PRODUCTION AND RELATED WORKERS, n.e.c.
Families	940	Supervisors and Foremen, Production and Related Activities, n.e.c.
	941	Musical Instrument Makers and Tuners
	942	Basketry Weavers and Brush Makers
	943	Non-Metallic Mineral Product Makers
	949	Production and Related workers, n.e.c.
GROUP	95	BRICKLAYERS AND OTHER CONSTRUCTION WORKERS
Families	950	Supervisors and Foremen, Bricklaying and Other Construction Work
	951	Bricklayers, stone masons and tile setters
	952	Reinforced Concreters, Cement Finishers and Terrazzo Workers
	953	Roofers
	954	Parquetry Workers
	955	Plasterers
	956	Insulators

- 957 Glaziers
- 958 Hut Builders and Thatchers
- 959 Well Diggers and Construction Workers, n.e.c.

- GROUP 96 STATIONARY ENGINES AND RELATED EQUIPMENT OPERATORS
OILER AND GREASER

- Families 960 Supervisors and Foremen Stationary and Related
Equipment Operation
- 961 Stationary Engine and Related Equipment Operation
- 962 Boilermen and Firemen
- 963 Oilers and Greasers (Including Cleaners, Motor
Vehicles)
- 969 Stationary Engine and Related Equipment Operators,
n.e.c.

- GROUP 97 MATERIAL HANDLING AND RELATED EQUIPMENT (OPERATORS
LOADERS AND UNLOADER)

- Families 970 Supervisors and Foremen, Material and Freight
Handling and Related Equipment Operations (Loaders
and Unloaders)
- 971 Dockers and Freight Handlers
- 972 Riggers and Cable Splicers
- 973 Crane and Hoist Operators
- 974 Earth moving and related machinery operators

- 975 Checkers, Testers, Sorters, Weighers and Counters
- 976 Packers, Labellers and related workers
- 979 Material Handling Equipment Operators, n.e.c.

GROUP 98 TRANSPORT EQUIPMENT OPERATORS

- Families 980 Supervisors and Foremen, Transport Equipment Operation
- 981 Ship's Deck Ratings, Barge crews and Boatmen
- 982 Ship's Engine room ratings
- 983 Drivers, Railways
- 984 Fire Men Railways
- 985 Pointsmen, Signalmen and Shunters, Railways
- 986 Tram Car and Motor Vehicle Drivers
- 987 Drivers, Animal and Animal Drawn Vehicle
- 988 Cycle Rickshaw Drivers and Rickshaw Pullers
- 989 Transport Equipment Operators and Drivers, n.e.c.

GROUP 99 LABOURERS, n.e.c.

- Family 999 Labourers, n.e.c.

DIVISION X WORKERS NOT CLASSIFIED BY OCCUPATIONS

GROUP X0 NEW WORKERS SEEKING EMPLOYMENT

- Families X01 Workers without occupations matriculates and above

X02 Workers without occupations, Literates
X09 Workers without occupations, Others

GROUP XI WORKERS REPORTING OCCUPATIONS UNIDENTIFIABLE OR
INADEQUATELY DESCRIBED

Family X10 Workers Reporting occupations unidentifiable or
unclassifiable

GROUP X9 WORKERS NOT REPORTING ANY OCCUPATIONS

Family X99 Workers not reporting any Occupations

MATHEW INTEREST INVENTORY

V. George Mathew

B. Sc., M. A., Ph. D.

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ഈ ക്ഷേത്രത്തിൽ എഴുതുകയോ അടയാളം ഇടുകയോ ചെയ്യരുത്

നിങ്ങളുടെ ഉത്തരങ്ങൾ പ്രത്യേകം തന്നിരിക്കുന്ന ഉത്തരക്കുടലാസിൽ എഴുതുക.

വിവിധ മേഖലകളിലുള്ള നിങ്ങളുടെ താല്പര്യത്തെയും അഭിരുചിയെയും പറ്റി മനസ്സിലാക്കുകയാണ ഈ ചോദ്യാവലിയുടെ ഉദ്ദേശം. ഇത് ബുദ്ധിശക്തിയോ കഴിവുകളോ അളക്കുന്ന ടെസ്റ്റ് അല്ല.

ഈ ചോദ്യാവലിയിൽ കുറെ പ്രവർത്തികൾ കൊടുത്തിരിക്കുന്നു. ഓരോന്നും വായിച്ച് അതു ചെയ്യാ നിങ്ങൾക്ക് എത്രമാത്രം താല്പര്യമുണ്ടെന്ന് അടയാളപ്പെടുത്തുക. പ്രവർത്തിയിൽ നിന്നും കിട്ടിയേക്കാവുന്ന പണ പദവി ഇവ കണക്കിലെടുക്കരുത്. അതുപോലെ ഓരോ പ്രവർത്തിയും ചെയ്യാനാവശ്യമായ കഴിവു പരിശി നവും പ്രിങ്ങിൾക്കുണ്ടെന്ന് സങ്കല്പിക്കുക.

ഓരോ ചോദ്യത്തിനും താഴെക്കൊടുത്തിരിക്കുന്ന അഞ്ച് ഉത്തരങ്ങളിൽ ഒരേണ്ണം തിരഞ്ഞെടുക്കു. ആ ഉത്തരത്തിന്റെ പേര് ചിഹ്നം ഉത്തരക്കുടലാസിൽ ചോദ്യത്തിന്റെ നമ്പറിനു മേന്മയുള്ള കളത്തിൽ എഴുതുക.

- 0 : താല്പര്യം തീരെ ഇല്ല
- 1 : സ്വല്പം താല്പര്യമുണ്ട്
- 2 : സാധാരണ എല്ലാക്കും ഉള്ളത്ര താല്പര്യം
- 3 : സാധാരണയിൽ കവിഞ്ഞ താല്പര്യം
- 4 : വളരെ അധികം താല്പര്യം

ഉദാഹരണം : Ex. സിനിമ കാണുക

ഉത്തരക്കുടലാസിൽ ഈ പ്രവർത്തിയിൽ സാധാരണ എല്ലാക്കും ഉള്ളത്ര താല്പര്യം ഉണ്ട് (2) എന്ന് രേഖപ്പെടുത്തിയിരിക്കുന്നതു നോക്കുക.

ഈ രീതിയിൽ ഉത്തരങ്ങൾ എഴുതുക. ഒരു ചോദ്യവും വിട്ടുപോകാതെ ശ്രദ്ധിക്കുക.

The author is Reader in Psychology, University of Kerala

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| 1 അവകാശങ്ങൾ നേടിയെടുക്കാൻ സമരം ചെയ്യുക | 23 ശാസ്ത്രീയ കണ്ടുപിടുത്തങ്ങൾ നടത്തുക |
| 2 മതപരമായ ചടങ്ങുകളിൽ പങ്കെടുക്കുക | 24 വനത്തിൽ കുറെനാൾ താമസിക്കുക |
| 3 ക്ഷാമം ബാധിച്ച സ്ഥലത്തു് ഭക്ഷണം വിതരണം ചെയ്യുക | 25 തിരഞ്ഞെടുപ്പു പ്രചരണം നടത്തുക |
| 4 ഒരു രാഷ്ട്രീയ പാർട്ടിക്കുവേണ്ടി പ്രചരണം നടത്തുക | 26 നഗരം (ഗ്രാമം) വൃത്തിയാക്കാൻ സഹായിക്കുക |
| 5 പ്രാഥമിക, ജപം തുടങ്ങിയ സാധനങ്ങൾ അനുഷ്ഠിക്കുക | 27 ജന്തുക്കളെ കീറി പരിശോധിക്കുക |
| 6 പൗരധർമ്മത്തെപ്പറ്റി ആളുകളെ ബോധവാന്മാരാക്കുക | 28 സമുദ്രത്തിൽ നീന്താൻ പോവുക |
| 7 യാചകകേന്ദ്രത്തിൽ ആഹാരം വിതരണം ചെയ്യുക | 29 ടൂർണമെന്റുകൾ കാണാൻ പോവുക |
| 8 ഗ്രിനിംഗ് കാർഡുകൾക്കുവേണ്ടി പടങ്ങൾ വരയ്ക്കുക | 30 ആഗോള പര്യടനം നടത്തുക |
| 9 സാധുക്കളുടെ ഉന്നമനത്തിനുവേണ്ടി പ്രവർത്തിക്കുക | 31 കരിമ്പല്ല കൊണ്ടു് ഭിരത്തി കെട്ടുക |
| 10 കളികളുടെ ദുക്സാക്ഷിവിവരണം നൽകുക | 32 പ്രക്ഷോഭണത്തിൽ പങ്കെടുക്കുക |
| 11 നദികളുടെ ഉത്ഭവസ്ഥാനം കണ്ടുപിടിക്കുക | 33 ഒരു മതഭ്രമി സന്ദർശിക്കുക |
| 12 ഒരു കമ്പനിയുടെ ബഡ്ജറ്റു തയ്യാറാക്കുക | 34 ഏഴുതുളകൾ തരം തിരിക്കുക |
| 13 സൂക്ഷ്മദർശിനിയിൽ കൂടെ അണുക്കളെ കാണുക | 35 തിരഞ്ഞെടുപ്പിൽ മത്സരിക്കുക |
| 14 അംഗഹിനരെ തൊഴിലുകൾ അഭ്യസിപ്പിക്കുക | 36 കപ്പൽ മാർഗ്ഗം സഞ്ചരിക്കുക |
| 15 മനുഷ്യമൃഗങ്ങളായ കട്ടികളെ പഠിപ്പിക്കുക | 37 വീടുകൾ വയർ ചെയ്യുക |
| 16 പാവങ്ങൾക്കു് സൗജന്യവിദ്യാഭ്യാസം നൽകുക | 38 കെട്ടുകൾ തുണിനോക്കുക |
| 17 വെള്ളപ്പൊക്ക ദുരിത നിവാരണ പ്രവർത്തനം | 39 യാചകരെ ഉദ്ധരിക്കുക |
| 18 ഒരു ദ്വീപിൽ കർക്കാലാ കഴിച്ചുകൂട്ടുക | 40 പടങ്ങൾ ഹൈയിം ചെയ്യുക |
| 19 ഒരു സംഘടനയിൽ അംഗങ്ങളെ ചേർക്കുക | 41 ദാനധർമ്മങ്ങൾ ചെയ്യുക |
| 20 സമുദ്രത്തിൽ മുങ്ങി മുത്തുച്ചീപ്പി എടുക്കുക | 42 ജാഥയിൽ പങ്കെടുക്കുക |
| 21 കളികളെപ്പറ്റി ലേഖനങ്ങൾ എഴുതുക | 43 അന്ധന്മാരെ പഠിപ്പിക്കുക |
| 22 അന്യായങ്ങൾക്കെതിരെ പ്രതിഷേധിക്കുക | 44 സാധനങ്ങൾ പൊതിയുക |
| | 45 മതപ്രസംഗം കേൾക്കുക |
| | 46 കാർട്ടൂണുകൾ വരയ്ക്കുക |
| | 47 തീർത്ഥയാത്ര പോവുക |
| | 48 ലേലം വിളിക്കുക |
| | 49 പടങ്ങൾ വരയ്ക്കുക |
| | 50 വോട്ടു പിടിക്കുക |
| | 51 ലാഥ നയിക്കുക |
| | 52 ടീം ക്യാപ്റ്റൻ ആവുക |

രാഷ്ട്രീയപ്രവർത്തനങ്ങളിലെങ്കിലും ചെറുതാണെങ്കിൽ നീങ്ങുക എത്രമാത്രം താല്പര്യമുണ്ടു് ? മുകളിൽ ചെയ്ത രീതിയിൽതന്നെ തുടർന്നു് അടയാളപ്പെടുത്തുക.

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| 53 ജോലിക്കാരുടെ ശമ്പളം, പെൻഷൻ മുതലായവ കണക്കുകൂട്ടുക | 58 രോഗികളെ ശുശ്രൂഷിക്കുക |
| 54 പുസ്തകങ്ങളുടെ പുറം ചട്ടമ്പുവേണ്ടി പടങ്ങൾ വരയ്ക്കുക | 59 പ്രസ്സിൽ അച്ചു നിരത്തുക |
| 55 സ്ഥിതി വിവരക്കണക്കുകൾ തയ്യാറാക്കുക | 60 സൈക്കിൾ ഷാപ്പു നടത്തുക |
| 56 കൗണ്ടറിൽ ടിക്കറ്റു കൊടുക്കുക | 61 നിമിഷം കണക്കാക്കുക |
| 57 മത പരമായ കർമ്മങ്ങൾ | 62 മിൽ നടത്തുക |
| | 63 മൊത്ത വ്യാപാരം |
| | 64 തെങ്ങു മുഷി |

താഴെപ്പറയുന്നവരെപ്പറ്റി വായിക്കാൻ നിങ്ങൾക്ക് എത്രമാത്രം താല്പര്യമുണ്ട് ?

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| 65 | പുതിയ ശാസ്ത്രീയ കണ്ടുപിടുത്തങ്ങൾ | 77 | മാനസിക രോഗങ്ങൾ |
| 66 | മതങ്ങളുടെ താരതമ്യപഠനം | 78 | പരിണാമസിദ്ധാന്തം |
| 67 | ഭാഷകളുടെ താരതമ്യപഠനം | 79 | നാടോടിപ്പാട്ടുകൾ |
| 68 | മദ്യപാനത്തിന്റെ ദുഷ്യങ്ങൾ | 80 | ബഹിരകാശ യാത്ര |
| 69 | വിത്തുകൾ മുളയ്ക്കുന്ന രീതി | 81 | റോക്കറ്റു നിർമ്മാണം |
| 70 | രാഷ്ട്രീയ സംഭവഗതികൾ | 82 | സഞ്ചാര കഥകൾ |
| 71 | സമൂഹത്തിലെ അനീതികൾ | 83 | ഡൈവ്സിംഗ് നിർമ്മാണം |
| 72 | സിദ്ധാന്തം വിശദീകരണം | 84 | ഗ്രഹണങ്ങൾ |
| 73 | സാമൂഹ്യമതിന്റെ ഉല്പത്തി | 85 | സോഷ്യലിസം |
| 74 | സാമൂഹ്യ പരിഷ്കാരങ്ങൾ | 86 | അണുക്കൾ |
| 75 | പ്രരോഗിത്യം | 87 | സ്റ്റേർട്ടിംഗ് |
| 76 | ആചാരങ്ങളുടെ ഉത്ഭവം | 88 | മതം |

താഴെപ്പറയുന്ന ക്ഷേപികൾ ഓരോന്നും ചെയ്യുന്ന ആളാകാൻ നിങ്ങൾക്ക് എത്രമാത്രം താല്പര്യമുണ്ട് ?

(ശമ്പളം, പദവി ഇവ കണക്കിലെടുക്കാതിരിക്കാൻ ശ്രദ്ധിക്കുക)

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| 89 | തൊഴിലാളികളുടെ ക്ഷേമാന്വേഷകൻ | 99 | സ്റ്റേർട്ടിംഗ് താരം |
| 90 | കളി പരിശീലകൻ (Coach) | 100 | രാഷ്ട്രീയ നേതാവ് |
| 91 | ഇൻഷുറൻസ് ഏജന്റ് | 101 | ടൂറിസ്റ്റിക് ഗൈഡ് |
| 92 | കാലാവസ്ഥ നിരീക്ഷകൻ | 102 | കലാകാരൻ |
| 93 | സംഗീത സംവിധായകൻ | 103 | കമ്പ്യൂട്ടർ |
| 94 | പോലീസ് ഉദ്യോഗസ്ഥൻ | 104 | ഡൈവ്സിംഗ് |
| 95 | ശാസ്ത്ര ഗവേഷകൻ | 105 | പൈലറ്റ് |
| 96 | കമ്പനി ഏജന്റ് | 106 | നടൻ |
| 97 | മതപ്രസംഗികൻ | 107 | ശില്പി |
| 98 | പിന്നണിഗായകൻ | | |

താഴെപ്പറയുന്ന വിഷയങ്ങളിൽ നിങ്ങൾക്ക് എത്രമാത്രം താല്പര്യമുണ്ട് ?

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| 108 | ഊർജ്ജതന്ത്രം (Physics) | 111 | മെഡിസിൻ |
| 109 | സസ്യശാസ്ത്രം (Botany) | 112 | ധനതത്വശാസ്ത്രം (Economics) |
| 110 | ജന്തുശാസ്ത്രം (Zoology) | | |

താഴെപ്പറയുന്ന കാര്യങ്ങൾ പഠിക്കാൻ നിങ്ങൾക്ക് എത്രമാത്രം താല്പര്യമുണ്ട് ?

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| 113 | ഗ്രഹണങ്ങൾ പ്രവചിക്കുക | 117 | പ്രഥമ ശൂന്യാകാശ |
| 114 | ഉപകരണ സംഗീതം | 118 | പുഷ്പാലങ്കാരം |
| 115 | ശാസ്ത്രീയ സംഗീതം | 119 | കൊത്തുപണി |
| 116 | ചിത്രമെഴുത്തു | | |

വിശ്രമ സമയങ്ങളിൽ താഴെപ്പറയുന്ന പ്രവർത്തികൾ ചെയ്യാൻ നിങ്ങൾക്കുള്ള താല്പര്യം അടയാളപ്പെടുത്തുക.

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| 120 മതപരമായ അനുഭവാനുഭവങ്ങൾ | 126 മതപരമായ ചർച്ച |
| 121 ഫുട്ട്ബോൾ തുടങ്ങിയ കളികളിൽ പങ്കെടുക്കുക | 127 കായിക മത്സരം കാണുക |
| 122 കടലാസ്സു പുഷ്പങ്ങൾ ഉണ്ടാക്കുക | 128 പീക്നിക പോവുക |
| 123 ആരാധനയിൽ പങ്കെടുക്കുക | 129 റൂമിംഗ് കാണുക |
| 124 ജിംനേഷ്യത്തിൽ പോവുക | 130 ഗുസ്തി കാണുക |
| 125 രോഗികളെ സന്ദർശിക്കുക | 131 ചിത്രരചന |

താഴെപ്പറയുന്ന സ്ഥാപനങ്ങളിൽ ജോലി ചെയ്യാൻ നിങ്ങൾക്ക് എത്ര മാത്രം താല്പര്യമുണ്ട്?

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| 132 വന്യമൃഗ സംരക്ഷണകേന്ദ്രം | 136 വാച്ച് നിർമ്മാണശാല |
| 133 രാസവള നിർമ്മാണ ഫാക്ടറി | 137 സിനിമ സ്റ്റുഡിയോ |
| 134 മാതൃശിശു സംരക്ഷണ കേന്ദ്രം | 138 പോസ്റ്റ് ഓഫീസ് |
| 135 ശാസ്ത്രീയ ഗവേഷണശാല | 139 വർക്ക് ഷോപ്പ് |

താഴെപ്പറയുന്നവരെപ്പറ്റി കൂടുതൽ അറിയാൻ നിങ്ങൾക്ക് എത്ര താല്പര്യമുണ്ടെന്ന് അടയാളപ്പെടുത്തുക.

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| 140 ത്യാഗരാജ ഭാഗവതർ | 143 ടെൻസിംഗ് |
| 141 സി. വി. രാമൻ | 144 ലേനിൻ |
| 142 സോക്രട്ടീസ് | |

അവധി സമയത്ത് താഴെപ്പറയുന്ന പ്രവർത്തികൾ ചെയ്യാൻ നിങ്ങൾ എത്ര മാത്രം ഇഷ്ടപ്പെടുന്നു?

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| 145 ഇൻഡ്യയുടെ വിവിധ ഭാഗങ്ങൾ സന്ദർശിക്കുക | 150 കായിക വിനോദങ്ങൾ |
| 146 ആശുപത്രി സന്ദർശിച്ചു സേവനം നടത്തുക | 151 സംഗീതം അഭ്യസിക്കുക |
| 147 പുതിയ കളികൾ പഠിക്കുക | 152 സാമൂഹ്യ സേവനം |
| 148 ദൂരദേശങ്ങളിൽ യാത്ര പോവുക | 153 നിശ്ചിത പോവുക |
| 149 ശാസ്ത്രവിജ്ഞാനം വർദ്ധിപ്പിക്കുക | |

താഴെപ്പറയുന്ന ഓരോന്നും സന്ദർശിക്കാൻ നിങ്ങൾക്ക് എത്ര താല്പര്യമുണ്ട്?

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| 154 പെയിന്റിംഗ് പ്രദർശനം | 157 ലാബറട്ടറി |
| 155 സിനിമ സ്റ്റുഡിയോ | 158 പുണ്യസ്ഥലം |
| 156 സുഖവാസസ്ഥലം | |

താഴെപ്പറയുന്നവരുമായി പരിചയപ്പെടാൻ നിങ്ങൾക്ക് എത്ര മാത്രം താല്പര്യമുണ്ട്?

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| 159 ടെന്നിസ് ചാമ്പ്യൻ | 163 മതപണ്ഡിതൻ |
| 160 സിനിമനടൻ | 164 സഞ്ചാരി |
| 161 രാഷ്ട്രീയ നേതാവ് | 165 കവി |
| 162 ശാസ്ത്രജ്ഞൻ | |