

**HIGHER EDUCATION AND CAREER-CHOICES OF THE
UNDER-GRADUATE STUDENTS IN MANIPUR
- A SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY**

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in partial fulfillment of the requirements for
the award of the Degree of
MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY*

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DECLARATION

It is to certify that this dissertation entitled "**Higher Education and Career-choices of the Under-graduate Students in Manipur- A Sociological Study**", submitted by **Nameirakpam Samungou Singh**, in partial fulfilment for the award of the degree of **MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY** of this University is an original work. This dissertation has not been submitted in part or full for the award of any other degree to this University or any other University.

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We recommend that this dissertation be placed before the examiners for evaluation for the award of the degree of **Master of Philosophy**.


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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Higher education serves as a via media between the university education, on the one hand, and the secondary education on the other. It helps a student in thinking critically and imbibes a sense of responsibility towards the world around, human values and an inquiring mind. It also plays an important part in the emerging occupational pattern of a society. Higher educational institutions produce talents of various sorts – artists, scientists, lawyers, engineers, doctors, academicians, technicians and various types of personnel of higher competence required for administration, judiciary, industry, commerce and so on.

Moreover, an occupation is considered more than a means of fulfilling one's basic needs. It affects all aspects of one's life. In the modern industrial society, the occupational choices have been widened to the extent that it requires specialized skill training. It goes beyond the traditional occupation based stratification in most of the societies including India. The widening up of occupational choices in the industrial era also brought in a new kind of stratification in place of the traditional systems of stratification. It took the form of a social class, rejecting the earlier forms such as estates or castes or creed. Entry into the social class is determined by one's achievement in terms of one's education.

In this context, choosing a career may be influenced by several factors and certain jobs may require specific knowledge and skills that build upon higher education. Thus, choosing a career, which is suitable to one's needs, abilities, interests, personal qualities and values etc., is of utmost importance for the students. Therefore, the present study attempts to understand the linkages between the socio-economic background of the students and their career aspirations in the higher educational institutions. It also attempts to view higher education in India in general and Manipur in particular in so far as it contributes to the socio-economic development. It tries to study the career choices of the undergraduate students and perceptions of the students about the role of higher education in Manipur. A micro-level study was undertaken in a college campus to ascertain the perceptions with regard to various dimensions of higher education in Manipur.

1.1. Role of Higher Education in the Society

Higher education¹ serves several important functions or purposes in the society. Of them, the expansion of knowledge is a generally accepted purpose, especially in universities with strong research components. According to Sanford (1989), the central purpose of institutions of higher education is to educate (adults as well as young people) and the aim of education is to develop each individual as fully as possible, to make him/her more human. Higher education is expected to provide the right kind of leadership in all walks of life and identify gifted youth and help them develop their potential to full by cultivating the right interests, attitudes and values. The objectives of higher education are also to develop these capabilities in an individual which would help him to conceptualise a phenomenon or situation and enable him to contribute to societal development through his knowledge, skills and know how as well as by generating new knowledge (Singh, 1988). Not only does higher education disseminate knowledge, but it also creates new knowledge through research and scientific and technological development. Further, Francis Sutton identified three major roles of higher education institutions in development: (i) providing individuals with specialised competencies towards preparing for jobs, (ii) protecting and adding knowledge to the existing body of knowledge through research and (iii) preparing enlightened and morally outstanding citizens and leaders of their societies (Sutton, 1988:3-19).

The contribution of higher education in socio-economic development in both technologically advanced economies and newly industrialized and developing countries are now widely recognized. While reviewing the concerns of higher education in the Third World, Altbach (1987) concludes that higher education constitutes a very important institution in the Third World context, not only because it trains elites and provides the basis for a technological society but because it is the most important intellectual institution with widespread impact on culture, politics and ideology. Universities assist in the creation and especially in the dissemination of knowledge in societies. University system of education also promotes the development of the total

¹ UNESCO Conference on Higher Education, 1962 defined Higher education as "all types of education (academic, professional, technological or teacher education) provided in institutions such as universities, college technological institutions and teacher colleges for which (a) the basic requirement is completion of secondary education, (b) the usual entrance age is about 18 years, and (c) in which the courses lead to giving of a named award (degree, diploma, certificate oh higher studies- Encyclopedia of Britannia, Vol. 18, P.1).

personality of the students and inculcates in them a commitment of society through involvement in national service programme.

Thus, there is a general appreciation of the fact that higher education provides competencies that are required in different spheres of human activity, ranging from administration to agriculture, business, industry, health and communication, and extending to the arts and culture. The World Bank document (1994) entitled, "Higher Education: The Lessons of Experience", also observes that higher education is of paramount importance of economic and social development. Institutions of higher education have the main responsibility for equipping individuals with the advanced knowledge and skills required for positions of responsibility in government, business and the professions.

However, in recent times, higher education is in a state of rapid change everywhere in the world as the benefits of it to the social, economic and cultural life of different communities are realized. Individuals from all segments of society now see higher education as the means to adult success (Catsambis, 2002). This has led to the world wide exponential expansion of universities and colleges. Such unprecedented expansion of higher education may be attributed to increasing realization of its importance for social and economic development (Peer, 1994:17). The planners, administrators, and political leaders too, have considered education as a key ingredient for social and economic transformation. By imparting to the younger generation requisite psychological dispositions that are regarded as helpful for development and by instilling in students a reflective ability and a capacity to make rational decisions, higher education can lay down the foundation of socio-economic development (Sharma, 1979:213). It also serves as a stepping-stone to any job. It better the socio-economic conditions of the people to a great extent as it provides them with a variety of professions and careers, thereby giving them a special status in the society.

1.2. Career Choices

The term 'career', in the popular usage, is virtually a synonym for occupation or profession carrying usually the implication of a high degree of job stability, a life's work. Oxford English Dictionary defines career as "a way of making one's living, a profession; a person's course or progress through life". Further, career is treated as the sequence of positions occupied by a person during the course of a life-time with its recognition of life

stages of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline (Super and Hall, 1978). In each stage, an individual manifests qualitatively distinct types of behavior. Sociologists like Arther e t. al. (1989) as quoted by Mohan (1999), defined career as “the evolving sequence of a person’s work experience over time” giving central importance to ‘work’ and ‘time’. Work, in this context, refers to the people, organizations and society and time in a moving perspective on the unfolding interaction between the person and society.

According to the traditional viewpoint, the ‘choice’ is a decision that the individual makes at a given moment in time. Choice, as defined by Crites (1969) as quoted in Brown, D. et.al. (1984), is the individual’s statement of the occupation (or curriculum), he/she intends to enter. Thus, career choice is operationally defined as the process of choosing the career or occupation, which the boys and girls have to be taken up after the completion of their course of study.

In the past, it was thought that choosing a life’s work was largely a matter of chance or if some deliberation was given to it, the choice or decision was made about a career at a particular point in time (Mohan, 1999). This crosssectional myth of career planning and career choice has been challenged in recent years. Today, selecting an occupation is considered as a process, which spans a considerable number of years usually from late childhood to early adulthood (Ali, 2001). The notion of life span developmental perspective has highlighted the need for career exploration and preparation in latter childhood and adolescence. The underlying assumption is that the continued exposure will provide the students with the requisite skills and attitudes in making career decisions and finding the right career niche.

Career is a life-long development pursuit that occurs across a series of life stages. Ginzberg (1951) and his associates, as quoted by Brown, D. et.al. (1984), have traced the process of occupational choice through stages based on the characteristics of choice or the presumed determinants of choice. According to their point of view, the individual tends to make his choices with emphasis upon different factors at different age levels. Their approach was developmental and described as that an individual never reaches the ultimate decision at a single moment in time, but through a series of decisions over a period of time. Further, Srebalus, D.et.al. (1982) defined the process of choosing an occupation as that of establishing an identity. It is a compromise between preference for, and expectations of being able get into various occupations. Parsons (1909) as quoted by

Brown, D. et. al. (1984), proposed that in the choice of a vocation or occupation by an individual, there are three broad factors: (i) a clear understanding of himself, his aptitudes, abilities, interests, ambitions, resources, limitations and their causes; (ii) a thorough knowledge of the requirements and conditions of success, advantages and disadvantages, opportunities and prospects in different lines of work; and (iii) a true reasoning on the relations of these two groups of acts. In short, the individual makes an analysis of his vocational assets and liabilities and compares it with those demanded by occupations and selects the one he 'matches' with the best.

John Holland (1982) as quoted by Mohan (1999), contends that the choice of a vocation is an expression of personality. He suggested that people could function and develop best and find job satisfaction in work environments that are compatible with their personalities. Holland based his theory of personality types on several assumptions. People tend to choose a career that is reflective of their personality. Because people tend to be attracted to certain jobs, the environment then reflects his personality. He suggests that the closer the match of the personality to job, the greater the satisfaction.

From the above discussion, we can understand that career development is more than a single decision regarding an occupational choice. It is a process, occurring over a number of years and consisting of several distinct periods during which the individual makes successive compromises between his wishes and the realistic opportunities present. It also brings out the relevance of the exposure of a student in the higher education system in order to throw up a variety of career options/ choices. In this context, the linkage between higher education and career choices is important.

1.3. Higher Education and Career-Choices

Many people believe that the preparation for work is an important function of higher education. However, there are differences among the scholars over the preparation of work. Some emphasise career education as one such approach where colleges are obligated to provide the students with the knowledge and skills that will help them find satisfying employment if they wish to work. Those persons who consider preparation for work a primary goal of higher education think that the job market has or should have considerable influence on student-preparation – the courses taken and the line of study pursued (Solomon et. al., 1977:10). As long as higher education is valued for its usefulness in the marketplace, it will remain as an important institution in the

society. Thus according to one of the important aims of institutions of higher learning is to prepare student for work, to equip them for cultivated, intellectual and human lives. The institutions of higher learning the universities and the colleges come into contact with students in the formative stages of their life. One of the important life problems before them is to enter into the world of work. That is why, it is said that even though preparation for the employment is not the sole objective of higher education, it is one of the main objectives (Kochchar, 1985:145).

Pursuing higher education or college education after secondary education, have a lot to think about such things as selecting the right college at which to pursue higher education or training, opting of a suitable course, choosing a career etc. The entry of students into higher education has also become linked to the changes in job descriptions, job availability, job demands and the world corporate industrial culture. Because there are certain jobs which are required specific or particular course or specializations.

Further, higher education plays an important role with regard to the employment system, first in terms of providing career or job related knowledge and competencies and second, in pre-selecting students for future careers, positions and ranks. Also, career in terms of a foreseeable ladder of occupational status, progress appears to be more likely, the higher educational level (Brennan et. al., 1996:6). However, the responsiveness of higher education to the labour market depends ultimately on the response of graduates to work, what kind of jobs they choose to do and how they perform in those (Boys and Kirkland, 1988:131). Choice of a job and subsequent performance in it will be the outcome of many influences, only some associated with the value added by higher education.

The most direct way to decide whether higher education is related to careers is to determine the extent to which the substance of college courses is used on the job. However, many other traits that can be acquired in college contribute to job success: clear thinking, ability to learn, appreciation of learning, leadership, ability to develop life goals, and others (Solomon, et. al., 1977:43). To see whether students are matched to their careers, one can also compare the educational requirements for particular jobs with the educational attainments of the students in these jobs.

In recent times, the growth of higher education experienced by many countries reflects an increasing demand for high-level technical and management skills, whether or not these are directly related to technological progress. The impetus is both from

employers who need these skills and from prospective students who are attracted by better job prospects and high pay (Brynin, 2002: 363). It is also widely assumed that as a result of the expansion of higher education, a growing population of graduates, not only faces a more risky and shaky start to professional life but also a less progressive and stable career path (Brennan et.al., 1996:6).

1.4. Higher Education in India

In India, there has been a rapid expansion of higher education system since independence. The central and the state governments took various steps and established many universities and colleges. Various kinds of institutions of higher education came into existence. Institutions of higher learning in technology, medicine, agriculture, electronics, engineering etc., were established. From only 20 universities and 500 colleges in 1947, today, higher education is imparted through 236 universities and 11,831 colleges including 1520 women colleges (U.G.C, 2000:11-13).

1.4.1. Policy Context

Higher education planners in the independent India organized the nationalist agenda into three basic responsibilities: first, to gear higher education to function effectively as an instrument of economic, social and political development; second, to promote excellence, develop a world class system of higher education and liberate India from dependence on the developed countries for its higher education needs; third, to ensure full and equal opportunities for higher education (Association of Indian Universities, 1995). The objectives of higher education in independent India have been redefined in terms of these responsibilities.

In the post independence period, the role of higher education has well recognized in the development of science, technology and economy as well as various areas of human advancement. The University Education Commission (1948-49) or the Radhakrishnan Commission observed that welfare and betterment of humanity is the ultimate goal of higher education. If the ambitious schemes of rapid industrialization are to be realized the commission said, "we have to increase the number of professional colleges, agricultural, medical and engineering, to produce the requisite number of graduates and set up throughout the country, technical schools, which will supply the

much larger number of technicians needed for the purposes” (Government of India, 1950: 48-49).

Further, the Third Five Year Plan document (1961-62) described higher education as the most important single factor in achieving rapid economic development and technological progress and in creating a social order founded on the values of freedom, social justice and equal opportunity. The report of the Education Commission (1964-66) observed, “if the pace of the national development is to be accelerated, there is need for a well defined, bold and imaginative education policy and for determined and vigorous action to vitalize, improve and expand expansion”(Government of India,1966:1).The Commission further observed “education has to be used as a powerful instrument of social, economic and political change and will, therefore, has to be related to the long term national aspirations, the programmes of national development on which the country is engaged and the difficult short-term problems it is called upon the face”. (Government of India, 1966:2).

The document “Challenge of Education” of the Government of India (1985) recognized that higher education is given a place of special importance because it can provide ideas and men to give shape to the future and also sustain all the other levels of education. It also supplies a wide range of increasingly sophisticated and ever-changing variety of manpower needed in industry, agriculture, administration and services. Later, the National Policy of Education (1986) characterizes higher education as a “crucial factor for survival” providing the people with an “opportunity to reflect on the critical, social, economic, cultural, moral and spiritual issues”. It contributes to national development through dissemination of “specialised knowledge and skills. It is also envisaged in the National Policy of Education (1986) and Programme of Action (POA, 1992) that education will be used as an agent of basic change in socio-economic status of the people. Thus, the growth of the Indian higher education is a result of the nation’s policy adopted immediately after independence.

1.4.2. Current Scenario: Number of Institutions and Enrolments

As a result of various policies and programmes towards the development of higher education, the actual scenario of the Indian higher education in the recent times, can be seen from the Table 1.1

Table 1.1: Progress of Higher Education in India

Year	No. of Colleges	Enrolments		Percentage of Women	No. of Teachers
		Total Enrolment	Women's Enrolment		
1950-51	1,783	3,96,745	43,126	10.87	N.A.
1955-56	746 *	7,12,699	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1960-61	2,572	10,34,934	1,70,455	16.47	N.A.
1965-66	N.A.	17,28,773	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1970-71	3,604	30,01,292	N.A.	N.A.	21,619
1975-76	4,508	24,26,109	N.A.	N.A.	31,624
1980-81	4,722	27,52,437	6,89,086	22.14	39,964
1985-86	5,723	36,05,029	N.A.	N.A.	2,26,989
1990-91	7,346	49,24,868	14,94,295	30.34	2,63,125
1995-96	9,278	64,25,624	21,91,138	34.1	3,10,572
2000-2001	12,342	80,00,935	30,12,367	37.65	3,51,000

*Excluding professional and technical colleges. NA- Not available

- Sources: 1. Universities Handbook 2000, Association of Indian Universities, New Delhi.
2. Annual Reports (1966-67), (1976-77), (1989-90), (1993-94), (1995-96), (2000-2001), UGC, New Delhi.

From the table, we can see that during the last fifty years, we have made great progress in the field of higher education particularly in terms of quantity. The number of students enrolled in 2000-2001 are nearly 80 lakhs and total teaching staff in universities and affiliated colleges are nearly 3.51 lakhs. The sudden increase in enrolment was recorded during the first half of the sixties – the period corresponding to the Third Five Year Plan. It may be recalled that it was in the Third Plan document that education was recognized as an instrument of economic development. This trend continued even up to 1970-71. Enrolment showed signs of decreasing during 1970-71 to 1980-81. It is during this period that the emphasis shifted from rapid expansion to consolidation and quality improvement in higher education (Raza, et. al. 1985). It is also observed from the table that the share of women in total enrolment in higher education has increased steadily from nearly 11 percent in 1950-51 to 37.6 percent in 2000-2001.

With a view to examine the structural aspects of the higher education system in India and to bring out the linkages of the educational development with economic development, we shall examine the faculty wise enrolment in higher education. Because the changing technological base of an economy would get reflected in the faculty wise composition of enrolment. Table 1.2 presents the faculty wise distribution of enrolment from the year 1970-71 to 2000-2001.

Table – 1.2: Faculty wise Enrolment of Students (Percentage to the total enrolment (1970-71 – 2000-01))

Subject	Year					
	1960-61	1970-71	1980-81	1990-91	1999-000	2000-01
Arts (including Oriental Learning)	44.9	44.3	40.5	40.4	40.5	42.7
Science	30.0	31.6	19.4	19.6	19.1	19.7
Commerce (including management)	10.2	11.5	20.1	21.9	21.9	20.7
Education	1.5	1.9	2.6	2.3	2.3	1.7
Engineering/ Technology	3.6	3.0	4.7	4.9	5.0	6.6
Medicine	2.7	3.2	4.0	3.4	3.5	3.3
Agriculture	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.1	1.0	0.8
Veterinary Science	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2
Law	2.3	2.4	6.3	5.3	5.2	3.4
Others (including Music, Fine Arts etc.)	3.0	0.5	0.7	0.8	1.1	0.9

Source: Annual Reports (1966-67), (1970-71), (1980-81), (1990-91) (1999-2000) and (2000-2001), UGC, New Delhi.

A comparison of Table 1.1 and Table 1.2 shows the direction in which the expansion in higher education since independence has taken place. It is quite evident that the progress we made was largely in general higher education, in the field of arts, science and commerce. That is, the relative expansion has been more in non-professional as compared to professional courses.

The position with respect to faculty wise distribution of enrolments after 1960-61 has also undergone significant changes. During the sixties, the share of science subjects

was rising up to 1970-71 and has started showing declining or stable trends consistently since then. Another important aspect of faculty wise enrolment is that the share of commerce faculty to total enrolment has picked up after 1970-71. Its share was only 11.5 percent in the total enrolment in 1970-71 and has now gone up to 20.7 percent in 2000-2001. It appears that there has been a gradual shift in enrolment from the arts and suddenly from science in 1980-81 to the commerce faculty. The share of enrolment in law faculty to total enrolment has also shown an increasing trend till 1980-81 and has started declining since then. It is also observed that it is only engineering/ technology faculty, which has been showing increase in enrolment consistently since 1970-71

In 2000-2001, the students enrolled in professional courses are a mere 17 percent of the total enrolment and remaining 83 is in the three faculties of arts, commerce and science. In a country, which depends on agriculture and allied occupations, enrolment in agriculture is just 0.8 percent and in veterinary science, it is 0.2 percent (UGC 2000-2001).

The faculty wise enrolment reflects many significant changes in the composition of enrolment. The net result of these changes has been an increase of arts and commerce at the cost of science. It is clear from the above analysis that the share of engineering and medicine to the total enrolments is now less than what it used to be in 1947-48 where, the percentages were 6.7 and 8.35 respectively. This is a matter of serious concern for educational policy-makers. One of the reasons for the present state of affairs could be that education has been considered only as a passport to white collar jobs in the public and private sectors of the economy (Raza, et. al.1985). Consequently, the emphasis was on getting a degree by taking soft subjects.

1.4.3. Higher Education and Career Choices in India

Under the Indian system of higher education, for those students who have made specific plans to enter certain professional fields, the Class XII examination is the basic qualification. Choosing an educational stream at +2 stage means choosing a way of life. The choice of educational stream (science, arts, commerce) at this stage is directly related to the occupation, which one tends to adopt after studying in that particular stream. For example, some of the careers are linked to proficiency in certain subjects such as science for engineering and medicine. However, the contemporary Indian adolescent faces the problem of choosing the right type of stream, which is compatible

with his interest, aptitude and socio-economic status (Ali, 2001:28). Moreover, as there is no proper career guidance for most students after higher secondary school education and hence a majority of them go for higher education for the sake of education without knowing much about the use and uselessness of such education in their career choice (Verghese, 1989). However, academic performance of undergraduates at the degree examination as well as the subject or stream in which they take their degree are often the decisive factors of one's career choice and future economic and occupational attainment since majority of them enter into the employment sector soon after the graduation.

Traditionally, the Indian youth generally adopted the vocation or profession of their parents or family in which caste system played an important role. However, education especially higher education, has brought about significant changes in the attitude and expectations of adolescents and their parents, but still, the handover of traditional values influences career choices to some extent. This needs to be probed into socio-economic status, which may have important bearing on career aspirations of young students. Moreover, the value system of one's family or one's self may also influence one's choice of a career. The impact of socio-economic status, value system, career aspiration and academic achievement on choice of vocations is known, it can provide useful information for guidance and counseling (Bhatnagar and Gupta, 1999). However, conglomeration of many influences, impressions and imprints caused by developments in the field of science and technology, the impact of the process of democratization and explosion of knowledge had generated newer norms and values of life and the newer needs and aspirations (Association of Indian Universities, 2002). The new modes and patterns began replacing the traditional ones, for education had become student oriented from being teacher oriented. Students are becoming career conscious. Consequently, they wanted to study those subjects that fitted in their life span.

In recent times, the influence of social, economic and technological developments has shaped the future of many occupations. The satellite revolution, electronic revolution, information technology, new inventions, changes in the economic policy, industrial policy and in habits and styles of people have created demand for various kinds of occupation as well as eliminated or distorted certain other occupations (Ali, 2001:9). The changing face of industrialization and the growth of different types of tertiary activities to support the continued growth of industry, has also really led to the origin and emergence of the need for different types of educated manpower (Peer, 1994).

As industrialization advanced, economic growth becomes increasingly dependent on a high level of knowledge and skills in engineering and technology. For graduates and postgraduates of general subjects, there are limited employment possibilities in their respective areas of specialization (U.G.C., 1993). On the other hand, in these days of science and technology, modernization and rapid development are continuously taking place. These changes further influence the preparation required for various occupations and hence affect education and training opportunities. These changes require updating of the educational and occupational information so that students could be provided with accurate, reliable and up-to-date information in order to help them choose and prepare for future careers.

1.5. Review of Literature:

An attempt has been made to develop an overall idea about the nature and findings of the previous studies to find possible support to the rationale for the present study. Studies found that certain factors are responsible in a student's academic achievement, his/her occupational aspiration and choosing a future career. The family's socio-economic status (SES) is one variable that has been the focus of many investigations. For instance, James Coleman and others (1966) found that the black and white seniors (students) had comparable aspirations; it was in taking the necessary steps to carry out their goals that the differences lay. Black students felt that they had less control over their environment and left their fate to luck and chance. From Coleman's research on Equality of Educational Opportunity (The Coleman Report, 1966), it is evident that the effects of home environment far outweigh the effects of the school programme on achievement. Educational and social class backgrounds of the parents are the most important factors in determining differences between the students.

Further, Song and Hattie (1984), in their study, found that home environment exerts direct effects on the child's academic achievement. The family's level of encouragement, expectations and educational activities in the home is related to socio-economic status. Families from different socio-economic groups create different learning environments that effect the child's academic achievement.

Studies have also found that the perceived relevance of school increases slightly with rising family socio-economic status. In his analysis of school students' aspirations and expectations, Richard James (2002) reported that there is an association between

parental educational attainment and young people's attitudes towards schooling and education in general. Students from lower socio-economic backgrounds, with parents who have completed less formal education, are the most likely group to report they are marking time at school until appropriate work opportunities emerge. Deridder points out that lower level of parental education can retard adolescents' career development. "Being born to parents with limited education and income reduces the likelihood of going to college or achieving a professional occupational goal and essentially predetermines the child's likely vocational choice" (1990: 4).

In India, studies have been conducted on the improvement of the socio-economic status and the role of higher education, the relationship between higher education and employment, etc. For instance, Sharma (1979), Nayak (1987), Pandey (1988), Peer (1994), etc. in their studies found that there is a close relation between the growth of higher education and the changing socio-economic status of the people. It is also found in some studies that the higher the income and socio-economic status of the students' parents, the greater is the likelihood of he or she go to college. Students with lower family income are less likely to participate in higher education. For instance, according to Shah (1964), at the secondary and college levels where students needed much expenditure, the difference in their parents' income make any discussion of equal opportunities, an unrealistic one. In his study of college students of Gujarat found that successively higher levels of education are characterised by a decreasing proportion of students from the lower income group families.

Reddy (1977) in his study found that in India, occupational choices of adolescents are very much dependent on the social class into which they are born and also on the economic status of the family. This relationship is also true irrespective of the locality from which the students hailed. Swaminathan and Parvathi (1983) attempted to determine the level of occupational aspiration of male and female adolescents of working and non-working mothers the results showed that the adolescents of working mothers had higher level of occupational aspirations than those of non-working mothers.

Sharma, Verma and Swami's (1990) study was conducted to explore differences in the vocational interests of socio-economically advantaged and non-advantaged students of higher secondary schools. The result revealed that the socio-economically advantaged group had significantly stronger vocational interest in literary, artistic and persuasive areas than their non-advantaged counterparts.

Researches related to the field of study preferences suggest that the determinants of educational choices are multiple and such choices are the products of various external as well as internal factors, e.g., parents wish, self-interest, advice of teachers, brothers/sisters, friends etc. However, self-interest was found to be the most effective factor or variable among the students in the selection of their educational choices (Desai, 1975; Singh, 1976; Das, 1979; Shah and Uniyal, 1986). Shah and Uniyal (1986) in their study of Kumaon University students found that the paramount influence of students' interest in the subject was the most effective variable among the graduates of various faculties (arts, science and commerce) in the selection of their educational choices. The students had not given much importance to the advice of their parents, friends, teachers etc.

As far as Manipur is concerned, the existing literature focuses on the development of education, school and college drop-out, education and occupational mobility among tribes, economic backwardness of the state. For instance, Henia (1987) in her study of the growth and development of education in Manipur found that increasing literacy percentage was followed by job crisis in the state. So far, the state has no large-scale industries to absorb a large number of educated youth who passed out from the colleges. The secessionist activities that prevailed in the valley areas are partly due to the unemployment problem among the educated youth. Henia also found that development of education in hill areas is hampered due to political situation and lack of communication system accompanied by weak economic conditions and language problem in the state particularly in the Hill tribal areas.

Another attempt by Singh (1977) was to study college dropouts in Manipur. In his study of three colleges, it was revealed that the idea of getting a job after graduation is the most important motivational factor that leads to students in the college. He also explored that parental occupation and income are the most important factors related to the phenomenon of college dropouts. In spite of the strong motivation to join colleges, the students are compelled to leave the college before graduation, because of their membership in the families of lower occupation and income. Singh (1989) in his study of school dropouts of children in Manipur between tribal and non-tribal also found the same factors for dropout of children at school levels. Majority of the fathers of the school drop-out children were engaged in agriculture as against the professional occupations. He also concluded that, traditionally, the Meiteis (inhabitants of the valley) formed the dominant group and they have had a long literacy tradition. On the other

hand, the tribals who lived in the hilly region were geographically isolated. Unlike the Meities, the tribals did not have a literacy tradition until the late nineteenth century, the Meiteis were thus, placed at an advantage.

In an analysis of the relation between education and occupational mobility among the tribes of Manipur, Vanramawi (1988, 1992) found that there is a direct and positive relation between educational and occupational status. Education provides new avenues of occupational mobility by equipping the tribals with the skills and qualifications for salaried jobs in the organized sector. Those having higher educational qualification are able to achieve high status occupations while those having low educational attainments tend to continue their traditional agricultural occupations. The studies also found that literacy rates and enrolments too, the position of scheduled tribes in Manipur is comparatively better than that of the scheduled tribes at the national level. But within the state, the tribals of Manipur are still behind the non-scheduled caste/tribe communities in terms of literacy as well as enrolment in higher education.

The reviews of literature thus, indicate that education exerts an impact on several aspects of the social life. The review of studies however, did not bring out clearly the linkage between the higher education and career choices among the students. It does not provide a satisfactory answer to the question of what are the expectations and career choices of the students when they enter higher education, how they are determined. Therefore, our attempt in the present study is to approach the problem from a sociological perspective and understand the role of higher education in the society in so far as it facilitates the students to enter their future careers.

1.6. Significance/Relevance of the Study

In the backdrop of the discussion on the existing literature, the present study seeks to examine the expectations and career choices of the undergraduate students when they enter higher education. The existing literature shows that the research work on the subject is scattered and there are only passing references and no systematic study has been done so far with special reference to the career choices of undergraduate students and their determinants. The present study may also give a clear picture of the current status of higher education system in Manipur and also help in bringing out some important issues. Today, we have two universities, 69 colleges and more than 40,000 students. Because of this ever-increasing number, there are also certain problems and

shortcomings within the higher education system. The study is expected to help in understanding these issues and problems with a view to see what role higher education plays in all overall progress of a society.

1.7. Research Questions and Objectives of the Study

The present study seeks to examine broadly the following research questions with special reference to Manipur: -

- (1) What factors influence the pursuit of higher education among the undergraduate students?
- (2) What are the career-choices of the undergraduate students and how are they determined?
- (3) Does the expansion of higher education increase occupational opportunities?

The study however, aimed to discuss these broad questions in terms of the following specific objectives in the context of Manipur.

- (i) To study the quantitative and qualitative growth of higher education in Manipur.
- (ii) To study and compare the socio-economic background of the students entering the higher educational institutions.
- (iii) To analyse the divergence between the course of study preferred and that pursued actually, and the reasons for rejecting the first choice, if any, among the students.
- (iv) To study the understanding of students on the role of higher education and what it means to them. It attempts to study the perception of students on the factors contributing or limiting their higher education.
- (v) To study the expectations of students on their future career choices after the completion of their course.

1.8. Methodology

The study adopts a combination of methods and techniques to gather data and information. These include analysis of documents and existing literature on the subject and use of interview techniques. Sources of data include published and unpublished records of the Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Government of Manipur; College

Development Council, Manipur University; Annual Reports of the University Grants Commission and unpublished dissertations and theses on the subject.

Information on socio-economic background of the students and their attitudes, expectations on higher education and future career choices are collected through personal interviews with the students from under-graduate student population with the help of semi-structured interview schedule

Sample:

Out of the existing 69 colleges, D.M. Colleges was selected for the study, because it was the first institution established in the state for imparting higher education. Presently, D.M. College is trifurcated into three separate colleges – D.M. College of Science, D.M. College of Arts, and D.M. College of Commerce. Above all, these are co-educational institutions and today, these colleges are the most prestigious colleges in the state having fairly good number of students from different parts of the state. The fields of specialization of the students are classified into three – science, arts and commerce. This was done by taking 30 students from each of the above colleges.

Sampling was done using three major criteria: (i) the year level of the student, (ii) the birthplace of the student i.e., rural or urban and (iii) the field of specialization of the student. Only the students in their second year of under graduation are included in the study. They are the ones who have the knowledge of college life and had at least a year of experience in the college. They are also the ones who are about to enter their careers (employment).

Table1.3 Distribution of sample in the study

Students Background	Men	Women	Total
Village	18	16	34
Town	13	15	28
City	13	16	29
Total	44	47	91

Chapterization:

The dissertation has been organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 of the dissertation introduces the topic selected for the study. Chapter 2 describes the higher

education scenario in Manipur. It discusses the historical development of higher education and also the current situation in the state. It also tries to locate a few problems and issues.

Chapter 3 and 4 presents the results of the data analysis. In chapter 3, the socio-economic backgrounds of the students under study are examined. Expectations on higher education and career choices of the students are analyzed in Chapter 4.

Chapter 5 summarizes the study and presents the conclusions. It tries to identify problems and implications of higher education in the state.

CHAPTER II

HIGHER EDUCATION IN MANPUR: AN OVERVIEW

This Chapter deals with the higher education scenario in Manipur. It describes briefly the history and society of Manipur from the pre-British times. The Chapter also describes the development of educational facilities in a historical context. It discusses the growth and development of higher education with special reference to- a brief history of collegiate education and the efforts for the establishment of a university in Manipur. It also presents the current scenario of higher education in the state.

2.1. A brief Account of Manipur

Manipur was an independent kingdom. In 1891, it came under British rule as a Princely State with which Manipur, for the first time, linked up with the rest of India. However, the cultural flow began much earlier. The democratically elected government was formed in 1948 under the Manipur State Constitution Act, 1947 (Roy, 1973:148). With the merger on October 15, 1949, the Assembly was dissolved and Manipur was put under Part C state without a responsible government.

In 1963, Manipur was made a Union Territory with a Legislative Assembly of 30 elected members. On January 21, 1972, Manipur became a state. It has 60 seats in the Assembly of which 19 are reserved for Scheduled Tribe and one seat for Scheduled Caste and the rest is for general. The state is represented in the Lok Sabha by two members and by one member in the Rajya Sabha (Government of Manipur, 1991).

The state has an area of 22,327 sq. kms with an oval shape fertile valley at the centre. Geographically, Manipur is divided into two tracts – the hills comprising of five districts and the plains with four districts. The valley covers only 2,238 sq.kms of area, i.e., one tenth of the area. Manipur has a diverse and complex social composition. Historically, it is the home of three major ethnic groups – Meiteis, Nagas and Kukis, followed by Manipur Muslims. There are sizeable population of Nepalis, Bangladeshis, and people of outside origin, who are later immigrants. The Meiteis, who predominantly reside in the valley of Manipur, are the largest group in the state.

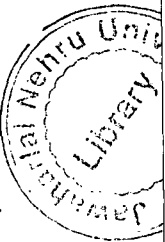
According to 2001 census, Manipur has a population of 2,388,634. The sex ratio was 978 females per 1000 males. The valley that is one tenth of the total geographical area had 58.84 percent of the population while the hills were inhabited by 41.16 percent. This makes an impaired distribution of population between the hills and the plains having the population densities of 52 per sq. kms and 632 persons per sq. kms respectively, even though the average density of 108 per sq. kms is much below the all India average. The tribes constitute 31.51 percent of the total population while the Muslims and the Schedule Caste from 7.26 percent and 0.96 percent respectively.

Agriculture is the single largest source of livelihood of the majority of the rural masses and is also the main stay of the state's economy. The state is making rapid strides towards industrialization and a number of small and medium scale units exist in the state. The per capita net income of the state based on a quick estimate at current prices is Rs. 13,213 for 2001-02 while the average annual growth rate of the State Domestic Product is Rs. 3,204.78 crores (Government of Manipur, 2002).

Manipur has a literacy rate of 68.78 percent (males 77.87 percent and females 59.70 percent) as against the national average of 65.38 percent in 2001. A high rate of unemployment also exists in Manipur, particularly among the educated youth. There are more than 4 lakhs unemployed persons as per the live register of the employment exchanges (Government of Manipur, 2002).

2.2. Development of Modern Education

Historically, until 1872, there was no primary school for formal education in Manipur. Efforts made by Captain Gordon and W.F. Nuthal, the political agents for opening vernacular schools, were failed due to the negative attitude of the people towards formal education, which was exogenous to their cultural system and social structure (Government of Manipur, 1997). As a result, the growth of primary education was very slow. In the course of time, Maharaja Chandra Kirti gave his consent to Sir James Johnston for establishing an English school in 1885 at Imphal, when he was requested. This school was later known as Johnstone Middle English School. Soon, during 1893-95, a few Lower Primary Schools, 3 in Imphal and one in the hill area, were opened (Singh, 1967). Though the enrolments of boys were greatly increased by this time, the girls were conspicuous by



their non-enrolment. The parents were not willing to send their daughters to these schools (Devi,1987:37). In spite of such prejudice against female education, a separate Girls' Primary School was established in 1899 in Imphal. Only 12 girls came forward to join the school.

By 1901-02, there was one Middle English School and 17 Primary Schools in Manipur (Singh, 1967). The first batch of students who received education in Manipur appeared at the Matric examination in 1909 at Srihat. Till 1921, as there was no high school and examination centre, many children could not continue their secondary education in Manipur (Devi, 1987). By 1921, the Johnstone Middle English School was upgraded to the high school level and it was affiliated to Calcutta University.

During 1931-41, a few more high schools came up to meet the growing demands for education. To attract more students in the Schools, some incentives were given in the form of scholarships, free textbooks, exercise books etc. Yet, the attendance at the school was rather poor as education was not free during the British Rule. On the whole, the progress of Primary Education was far from satisfactory until 1947.

During 1931-43, the pace of educational development in Manipur was slowed down by the outbreak of World War II, as Manipur was the theatre of war between the Japanese with INA and Allied forces (Govt. of Manipur, 1997). It was only after 1944 that few more schools started functioning in Manipur. In 1946, a college was set up in Imphal in the name of Maharani Dhanmanjuri Devi, who donated a sum of rupees ten thousand for the purpose. It has since been known as D.M. College. With the opening of this college just on the eve of Indian Independence, Manipur entered a new era of higher education. The D.M. College is the oldest and biggest college in Manipur. It has played a very significant role in the development of higher education in Manipur.

2.3. Educational Administration

There was no separate department of education in the state up to the year 1895-96. The work of inspection and supervision was done by the British officials and most particularly by the Political Agent himself during the tour. In 1897-98, Rev. Pettigrew, an American Baptist Missionary became the first honorary inspector of schools under the Education Department of Assam. As advised by Rev. Pettigrew, an Inspecting Pandit was

appointed in order to visit and constantly inspect all the Primary Schools in the valley. This was the beginning of Education Department in the state. The Education Department came into existence in 1910 with a Deputy Inspector of Schools and two Inspecting Pandits (NCERT, 1966:166). The administrative machinery of education was divided into two parts – one for the hills and other for the valley. All the schools in the hills of Manipur were under the control of the Vice-President of the Manipur State Durbar, while in the valley under the member of the Durbar in charge of Education. It was amalgamated into one in 1950 as State Education Department.

The nomenclature and responsibilities of the Department have undergone changes from time to time. Since 01-03-1974, for the purpose of control and management, all primary schools in the hill districts of Manipur were transferred to concerned autonomous district councils. The Department of Education, however, retained the power of supervision and inspection, framing of curriculum and syllabi and selection of textbooks.

At present, the Education Department of Manipur has been divided into 4 (four) different entities, viz.

- (1) Department of Education (University and Higher Education)
- (2) Department of Education (Schools)
- (3) State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT), Government of Manipur and
- (4) Department of Adult Education.

2. 4. Primary Education since Independence

The introduction of free and compulsory education in the field of primary education after the Indian Independence, gave a strong impetus towards the progress of Primary education in Manipur. The social and political changes following independence had inevitably a great impact on the growth of education in Manipur as in the rest of the country (Government of Manipur, 1997). The thrust has been on elementary education so as to fulfill the constitutional obligation for providing free and compulsory education for all children up to the age of 14 years.

In 1947, the numbers of primary schools in Manipur were 278 with an enrolment of 25,400 students including 5700 girls and with 507 teachers. In 1972-73 it rose to 2426

schools with an enrolment of 1, 70, 493 and the total number of teachers was 7496. During the Fifth and Sixth Plan period (1975-85), the state government for improvement of primary education in Manipur took up some measures. Mention may be made of (i) construction of primary school building on Steel Tubular Structure Designs, (ii) special programme/ scheme for girls' education and for SC/ST students by supplying free text books and uniforms, attendance scholarships and financial assistance, (iii) purchase of school furniture, (iv) improvement of science education with UNICEF Assistance, (v) establishment of Book Banks, (vi) introduction of work experience in primary schools etc. (Government of Manipur, 1997:35).

The Third All India Educational Survey observed the need for introduction of 'Educational Innovation' in Manipur particularly at the Primary school level. As a result, the State Institute of Education (now SCERT) , introduced a new syllabus from Class I to III from 1981-82 onwards as a first step for introduction and implementation of educational innovations (Devi, 2001). For availability of schooling facilities as well as for removal of regional or intra-district imbalances, the Department of Education (Schools) opened 294 primary schools at 294 school-less villages during Seventh Plan period thereby covering all school-less villages identified by the Fourth All India Educational Survey (Singh, 2000:59). During the year (1990-91), the Department took steps to cover another 214 school-less villages as identified by the Fifth All India Educational Survey of 1986.

With the implementation of the above programmes, in 1998-99, the number of Primary schools in Manipur were 2572 with an enrolment of 1, 92,292 students including 93,795 girls and with 9,412 teachers (Government of Manipur, 2001). So, judged by the progress made so far in the enrolment of children during the Plan periods, Manipur has come a long way as a part of the universalisation of free and compulsory primary education.

2.5. Secondary and Higher Education

The provision for providing secondary education to the students in Manipur can be said to have begun when the existing Johnstone Middle English School was upgraded into a high school in 1921 and affiliating it to Calcutta University. Until 1930-31, this school remained as the lone high school in Manipur (Singh, 1967). During 1930's, owing to the efforts made by some local pioneers 3 or 4 more high schools came up to meet the rising

popular demand. By 1934-35, there were 4 high schools (3 for boys and 1 for girls) with an enrolment of 770 students and 37 teachers. The outbreak of Second World War struck a heavy blow on the progress of secondary education in Manipur. All the educational institutions were closed down following the Japanese bombardment of Imphal on 10.5.1942. It was only after the end of the war that schools were reopened (Devi,1987:72). New schools were set up and the educational atmosphere was built up.

The large increase in primary school enrolment in the post-independence period led to an expansion of secondary schools. In Manipur, secondary education is provided in the high schools and higher secondary schools. In the high schools, there are classes IX to X, while higher secondary Schools have classes XI to XII (Devi,1987:65). Following the adoption of the 10+2+3 pattern in college education, more and more children here in Manipur, as in the rest of the country are being engaged to go to secondary schools so as to acquire more skills, understand the realities of life and improve their potential for development (Government of Manipur, 1997). Thus, there was a rapid expansion of secondary education from 6 high schools with an enrolment of 3705 students and 111 teachers in 1947 to 394 high schools with 1,14,980 students on rolls and 5,988 teachers (including 1787 women teachers) in 1990-91. It rose to 582 schools (511 high schools and 71 higher secondary schools) in 1998-99 with 2,23,918 students including 1,04,554 girls and 10,733 teachers (Government of Manipur, 2001).

Various measures were taken up by the Government of Manipur for the development of secondary education in Manipur during the Five Year Plans. During the last three Plan periods, the Department of School Education had taken steps such as (i) appointment of one science supervisor for each district and purchase of science equipments, (ii) training of graduate teachers, (iii) strengthening school inspection staff, (iv) construction of additional classrooms, teacher quarters and improvement of existing hostels, (v) appointment of librarians in higher secondary schools and (vi) extension of grant-in-aid to more secondary schools etc. (Government of Manipur, 1997).

The scheme of vocationalisation of education at the +2 stage was also taken up as approved by the Central Government. Fifteen trades were identified for introduction as vocational subjects in the higher secondary schools. Ten high/higher secondary schools were provided computers by the National Council of Educational, Research and Training

(NCERT), for implementation of computer literacy programme under CLASS project. Under NEC's Project on school computerization, in 1995-96 four schools have been installed computers for starting computer classes from Class IX (Government of Manipur, 1997:36-37).

In order to cope with the rapidly expanding education at all stages, the Department of Education was recognized towards the end of the Fourth plan. The Directorate of Education was bifurcated into two, one to look after the school education and the other to deal with higher education. Since the attainment of full-fledged statehood in January 1972, the Board of Secondary Education, Manipur, was set up in the year 1972-73 in order to regulate, supervise and develop secondary education in the state. It is responsible for framing the curriculum and syllabus and conducting the examination particularly from Class IX and X standard (Devi, 2001:60). Later in the year 1991-92, as recommended by the State Education Commission, the Council of Higher Secondary Education, Manipur, was established, which framed the curriculum and syllabus for higher secondary classes, conducted examination for Class XI and XII standards since 1991. During the year, 1973-74, the State Institute of Education (SIE) was set up with one Director as its head for academic improvement of School Education in Manipur. In 1989-90, upgrading the erstwhile SIE set up the State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT). Under the SCERT, four District Institutes of Education and Training (DIET) are conducting training for the in-service and pre-service training of the elementary school teachers (Government of Manipur, 1997).

In order to fulfill the scope of vocationalisation of secondary education in the state, the following courses have been introduced since 1996-97 in different secondary schools. The vocational courses, thus introduced are:

1. Office management and secretarial practice
2. Commercial garment designing
3. Textile designing
4. Building maintenance
5. Maintenance and repairing of domestic electrical appliances
6. Medical laboratory technician
7. Journalism and

8. Inland fisheries (Council of Higher Secondary Education, quoted in Devi, 2001:61)

Thus, there has been rapid progress of secondary education after achieving statehood in 1972 by Manipur.

2.6. Growth of Higher Education in Manipur: Historical Context

The idea of a college in Manipur began to take roots in 1933-34. In those days, students from Manipur who wished to pursue higher education had to attend colleges in Assam and Bengal or even further. Manipuris who had the opportunity to attend those distant institutions realized the considerable hardship and difficulties they had to undergo. So, the idea of the state's own college grew among the educationists and initial moves were made when the Education Department of the state began to correspond with the Calcutta University. However, for various reasons, including the outbreak of the World War II and the Japanese invasion of Manipur, there was little progress about the college for many years (Priyobatta, 1996:4-5).

In Manipur, the year 1946 may be considered as a landmark or the starting point in the history of higher education. In that year an intermediate college was established in the state after a protracted but a determined effort on the part of some educationist with vision and strong desire, love and zeal for imparting higher and quality education in their own state. The college was initiated under the financial patronage of the state and the Raj family. It was handed over to the state in 1948 and was named after Maharani Dhanmanjuri Devi for her generous donation towards the development of the college and came to be known as D.M. College. Initially, the college was affiliated to the Calcutta University and later to the Gauhati University in 1949. The first batch of B.A. students of the college got their degree from Gauhati University in 1950.

The college was the first of its kind in the state and has been playing a significant role in the development of higher education, imparting higher education in Arts, Science and Commerce courses. In course of time, there has been an unprecedented increase in the number of students willing to go for higher education and as such D.M. College could not accommodate all the students seeking admission for higher studies. To give opportunities of higher education to more students some private colleges were established in Manipur. The

colleges especially, the Imphal College (1952), the Manipur College (1958), the Oriental College and Modern College (1963) were established by the people. In 1965, a girl's college was established for imparting higher education to girls and it was named as Ghanapriya Women's College (G.P. Women's College). Post Graduate classes were opened in 1962 in D.M. College. This provided the facility for PG studies in the state, which later developed as Jawaharlal Nehru University Centre of Post Graduation at Canchipur, Imphal in 1972. In 1975, the parent D.M. College was bifurcated into two colleges – one for Arts and Commerce Studies and another for Science Studies.

During the 1950's and 60's there was a spurt in the number of colleges of general education with an allocation of sufficient funds as central government assistance (Government of Manipur, 1997). This continued till Manipur attained full-fledged statehood in 1972. The Planning Commission allocated a sum of Rs. 625.00 lakhs for development of education in Manipur in the Fifth Five Year Plan (1974-78) (NIEPA, 1980). The schemes included in this Plan for university and higher education are expansion of collegiate education, improvement of government colleges and development of Centre for Post-Graduate Studies, opening of faculties in humanities and science subjects. Various measures were also taken up to improve women's education, which were considered as a step for raising the status of women in the society (Devi,1987). The Government of Manipur set up the State-Council for Women's Education in 1967 for the promotion of women's education in the state. It was reconstituted in 1972. Most of the recommendations made by the Council for the growth and development of women's education were accepted and implemented by the state government. With the result, education was made free for girls up to the secondary stage and award of scholarships to the talented girl students for research and further studies. It also provided facilities for girls to appear as private candidates up to Post-Graduate level. All these gave a fresh impetus to the growth of women's higher education in Manipur (Government of Manipur, 1997).

The second women's college was established by the voluntary organizations. It was established in the year 1969-70. It may be noted that due to the efforts of the voluntary organizations during the period 1969-70 to 1980-81, at least one private college came up in the state every year (Devi, 2001:70). It may be mentioned that most of the colleges were confined to the valley areas.

2.7. Technical and Professional Education

In Manipur, there was no college or institution for imparting education such as law, agriculture, engineering, medicine, fine arts etc. prior to 1997. The people felt the necessity for imparting professional and technical training and the administration also realized the urgent need for establishing technical and professional institutions in the state. As a result, the first technical institute named “Adimjati Technical Institute” was started in 1956. Its main objective was to impart technical education to Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe students of the North-eastern region of India (Government of Manipur, 1997). The institute was affiliated to the State Council for Technical Education, Assam. The institution started admitting the non-tribal students since 1960. In the year 1972, the Institution was taken over by the Government of Manipur and renamed as Government Polytechnic, Imphal. The Institute offers courses in Civil, Electrical, Mechanical, Electronic and Telecommunications and Pharmacy.

Since independence, many professional institutions were established in Manipur to cater to the diverse educational needs of the state. For instance, the establishment of LMS Law College for law education, Regional Institute of Medical Sciences (RIMS) for medical education, Manipur Agriculture College, now merged with the Central Agricultural University, Government Music College, and College of Fine Arts, etc. With the inauguration of the Government College of Technology in 1998, a long cherished desire of the people to have an engineering college was fulfilled. Today, professional and technical education is imparted through twelve colleges in the state (Government of Manipur, 2002). These institutions impart technical and professional training to the younger generation to a large extent.

2.8. Setting up of a University

Manipur had no university of her own till 1980. So, all the institutions of higher education were affiliated to Gauhati University. With the growth and expansion of collegiate or higher education, the Manipuris felt the urgent need for a university of their own to provide better educational facilities and therefore, better job opportunities and also to solve the problem of a large number of youth going outside the state for higher education

(Devi, 2001:188). In 1980, the Manipur Legislative Assembly passed Manipur University Act and Manipur University was established in that year with its territorial jurisdiction over the whole of Manipur (Manipur University Act, 1980). As per provisions of the Manipur University Act 1980, the undergraduate educational institutions in the state that were under the Gauhati University are immediately brought under the Manipur University. The Jawaharlal Nehru University Centre for Post-Graduate Studies that existed prior to the establishment of Manipur University was amalgamated into the new University.

In order to monitor and assess the progress and academic activities of the colleges, a College Development Council (CDC) was set up under Manipur University in July 1985. The Council co-ordinates between the colleges and the UGC and was instrumental in obtaining grants from the University Grants Commission (UGC). The College Development Council is headed by one Director, appointed by the Syndicate of the University on the recommendation of a Selection Committee. He is to inspect the colleges and give suggestions for the improvement of the colleges. He may take, in consultation with the other officers or bodies of the university, all such steps as he may think fit for the promotion, coordination and raising the standards of education in the colleges.

In order to relieve the pressure of admission in the Manipur University, Post-Graduate classes were again opened in the D.M. College of Science in the subject of Botany, Zoology, Anthropology and Mathematics from the academic session 1996-97. A Commerce College was opened in 1996 by detaching Commerce Classes of D.M. College of Arts and Commerce. For the diversification of the courses in higher education, vocational courses were introduced in seventeen colleges as sponsored by the UGC. Approval of the UGC is awaited for eight more colleges for opening vocational courses. With the introduction of these vocational courses, many more students may be able to choose gainful profession and get themselves self-employed in different trades (Government of Manipur, 1997).

Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) has been functioning in the Manipur University since 1986. The Centre has the proposal to upgrade into a Regional Centre for the North-east. The IGNOU Centre of Imphal has so far opened 22 (twenty two) courses till 1996 including Master of Business Administration, Post graduate Diploma in Journalism and Mass Communication and different other Post-Graduate Diploma and degree courses. Today, the state has got a second university Central Agricultural University,

situated at Iroisemba (on the western outskirts of Imphal city). The University has been established to impart education, advancement of learning and research and to undertake programmes of extension education in different branches of agricultural and allied sciences. This university has campuses in six states of North-Eastern Hill Region – Arunachal Pradesh, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Tripura and Sikkim.

2.9 Present Situation

There has been a rapid expansion and development of higher education in Manipur over the years, from one college in 1946-47 to 29 colleges in 1990-91. It rose to 69 colleges in 2000-2001 (University Grants Commission, 2000-2001). Out of this, the state has 7 women's colleges but concentrated mainly in the valley districts. Of these 69 colleges affiliated to the Manipur University, 28 colleges are under government management including 2 colleges of teacher education, one medical (RIMS) and one law College (LMS Law College). The number of aided colleges is 6 and remaining are privately managed colleges including 3 law colleges and one college of physical education.

Table 2.1 shows the rapid expansion of higher education in the state in recent years. It is observed that the growth of colleges was very fast during the decade 1960-70, where the number of colleges increased from 2 to 12. According to the reports of the Planning Commission, the population of Manipur in the age group of 16-20 was 41,936. For instance, the percentage of college going students of this age group was 15.62 percent (Singh, 1986:43). The growth continued till 1975-76, after which the trend became slightly slow. However, the growth of colleges multiplied by 1995-96 where the total number reached 59 which was only 29 in 1990-91. In the same year, the number of girl's college also jumped to 7.

Table 2.2 gives a picture of the number of students at the college level in Manipur during 1947-48 to 2000-2001. It follows from the table that there has been a massive expansion in enrolment in higher education since 1955-56 and the rate of growth was found steady. From 1955-56 to 1960-61, there was gradual increase in enrolment. But in 1965-66, there was a sudden increase in enrolment. In 1960-61, the number of enrolment was 2,014 but in 1965-66, it rose up to 5,797 and during this period boys' enrolment rose from 1,771 to 4,710. For girls, the enrolment increased suddenly, from 243 to 1037. The increase was

Table 2.1 – Growth of Colleges in Manipur

Year	No. of Colleges Including Co-Educational College	No. of Colleges For Women	Total Colleges
1947-48	1	Nil	1
1950-51	1	Nil	2
1955-56	2	Nil	2
1960-61	2	Nil	2
1965-66	10	1	11
1970-71	12	1	13
1975-76	18	2	20
1980-81	21	2	23
1985-86	26	2	28
1990-91	27	2	29
1995-96	52	7	59
1999-2000	58	7	65
2000-2001	62	7	69

Source: 1. Singh, Th. Mangoljao – Western Education in Manipur Vol. I, Vol. II and Vol. III.

2. College Statistics (1996-97), CDC, Manipur University.

3. U.G.C. Annual Report (200-2001), New Delhi.

more than four times. After 1965-66, both boys and girls enrolment increased rapidly. The reason may be that the state government made consistent efforts for the expansion of women's education so that the imbalance between boys and girls education can be eliminated as early as possible (Devi, 2001:74). After 1965-66, the rate of growth was found steady but the enrolment showed the peak in 1990-91, where the total enrollment reached 39,024. During this period, enrolment of the boys was 22,427 and that of the girls was 16,597. On the whole, there has been continuous development of college education in general since 1965-66. There has been continuous growth in enrolment during the last four

decades mainly due to the increase in number of students passing the matriculation examination (Devi, 2001:74).

Table 2.2 – Students Enrolled in College of Manipur

Year	Enrolment			
	Boys	Girls	Percentage of girls	Total
1947-48	NA	NA	NA	60
1950-51	341	7	2.01	438
1955-56	1,119	75	6.28	1,194
1960-61	1,771	243	12.07	2,014
1965-66	4,710	1,087	18.75	5,797
1970-71	7,767	2,385	23.49	10,152
1975-76	11,273	5,311	32.02	16,584
1980-81	12,847	7,712	37.51	20,559
1985-86	14,816	9,651	39.44	24,467
1990-91	22,427	16,597	42.53	39,024
1995-96	26,655	18,678	41.20	45,333
1999-2000	NA	NA	NA	46,575
2000-2001	21,681	21,164	49.40	42,845

NA - Not available

Sources: 1. Singh, Th. Mangoljao – Western Education in Manipur, Vol. I, Vol. II. and Vol.

III.

2. College Statistics (1996-97), CDC, Manipur University.
3. U.G.C. Annual Report (2000-2001), New Delhi.

Participation of the Scheduled Castes and Schedules Tribes in higher education rapidly progressed in the state after independence as a result the policy of giving equal opportunity for education to all citizens. The government of Manipur took up various measures for the upliftment of the tribal communities and other backward classes in the

state. In recent years, the progress made by the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in the field of higher education is quite encouraging. Table 2.3 gives a picture of progress in terms of the enrolment of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in the colleges of Manipur.

**Table 2.3 – Enrolment of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes
in the Colleges**

Year	Scheduled Castes	Percentage to the total enrolment	Scheduled Tribes	Percentage to the total enrolment	Total Percentage of SC/ST to the total enrolment
1960-61	7	0.35	182	9.04	9.39
1965-66	41	0.70	981	16.92	17.62
1970-71	66	0.65	1,506	14.83	15.48
1975-76	213	1.29	3,112	18.77	20.06
1980-81	412	2.00	4,168	20.28	22.28
1985-86	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
1990-91	1,238	3.18	4,276	10.95	14.13
1995-96	1,412	3.11	5,659	12.49	15.60
1999-2000	679	1.46	5,156	11.08	12.54

NA – Not Available

Sources: 1 Devi, Jamini, 1987, Education in Manipur.

2. Statistical Handbook of Manipur, Government of Manipur, 2002.

From table 2.3, it is interesting to observe that the number of scheduled caste and scheduled tribe enrolments has been increasing over the years although the increase is only marginal. However, the size of enrolment shows a sharp decline during the year 1999-2000. It is also clear that the share percentage of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes to total enrolment has continued to be much less than their share in total population of the state, thus showing the relative deprivation of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes population in higher education. Such continued low share of percentage shows the persistence of disparities between scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and other communities (Raza, et. al. 1985).

Table 2.4 shows the growth of teachers serving in colleges of Manipur during the period 1947-48 to 2000-2001.

Table 2.4 – Number of Teachers in Colleges of Manipur (1947-48 to 2000-2001)

Year	Number of male teachers	Number of female teachers	Total number of teachers	Teacher-student ratio
1947-48	7	Nil	7	1:19
1950-51	14	Nil	14	1:25
1955-56	39	Nil	39	1:31
1960-61	67	4	71	1:28
1965-66	260	14	274	1:21
1970-71	333	35	368	1:28
1975-76	527	88	615	1:217
1980-81	811	234	1045	1:20
1985-86	890	339	1229	1:20
1990-91	781	346	1,127	1:35
1995-96	1,639	902	2,541	1:18
1999-2000	1,763	1,078	2,841	1:16
2000-2001	765 **	502 **	1,267 **	NA

** Excluding private colleges. NA – Not Available

- Sources:
1. Singh, Th. Mangoljao – Western Education in Manipur, Vol. I, Vol. II and Vol. III.
 2. College Statistics, 1996-97, CDC, Manipur University.
 3. Statistical Handbook of Manipur, 2002.

From the table, it is observed that there were only 7 college teachers in 1947-48, all of them being male teachers. Till 1955-56, there was not even a single female teacher in the colleges of Manipur. In 1965-66, there was sudden increase in the number of teachers and the number of female teachers also reached 14 and total number of teachers. This increase

in the number of teachers may be related with the increase in the number of colleges and enrolment of students (Table 2.1 and 2.2). From 1965-66 to 1985-86, there was a gradual increase in the employment of both male and female teachers. However, in 1995-96, total teachers employed in the colleges have increased by nearly two and a half time (2,541) of which female teachers account for about 35.49% (902). There was a late start as well as a very slow growth in the women's education. Only from Sixties, women have been in the forefront of higher education in Manipur (Devi, 2001:77).

From table 2.2 and 2.3, it is also evident that the state has maintained a stable teacher-student ratio during the phase of phenomenal increase in enrolment. Data shows that in 1990-91, the teacher-pupil ratio in the colleges was highest, 1:35 compared to 1:19 in Indian Universities.

Table 2.5 gives the number of graduates in the faculties of Arts, Science and Commerce in the last few years.

**Table 2.5 – Number of Graduates produced by the Manipur University
in 1981- 1998**

YEAR	B.A.	B.SC.	B.COM	TOTAL
1981	2662	488	57	3207
1985	5026	1231	115	6372
1990	2623	1548	132	4313
1995	3640	2274	136	6050
1998	3030	2414	141	5585

- Sources: 1. Devi, Jamini, (1987), Education in Manipur.
2. Statistical Abstract of Manipur 2001, Government of Manipur.

It may be observed that the number of graduates passing out from Manipur University increased in the faculties of Science and Commerce over the years. However, in the faculty of Arts, there are fluctuations.

Although commendable progress has been achieved as regards the expansion of the structure of higher education in Manipur, there still remains much to be desired. For

instance, Devi (1987) argues that the increase in the number of institutions is not in tune with the socio-economic condition of the state. Due to the pressure in admission, there has been mushrooming of colleges without proper facilities, irregular admission under pressure, recruitment of incompetent teachers, lack of library and laboratory facilities etc. The different institutions or colleges have their own norms of examinations and admission. The norms set out by the University Grants Commission (UGC) are often ignored in recruiting the teachers. The newly established colleges face tight financial hardships and UGC grant also does not reach many institutions. Natural consequences of such conditions are the general lowering of academic standards (Sisodia, 1999) and deterioration of quality of education.

Therefore, the discussion reveals that the higher education in Manipur is fraught with problems. The quantitative expansion has not brought about the qualitative improvement. It really poses a threat to the career planning through the higher educational institutions in the state.

The Chapters 3 and 4 describe the data collected about the socio-economic background of the students and their opinions on higher education and career choices, which may highlight some of the concerns reflected earlier.

CHAPTER III

SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND OF THE STUDENTS

3.1. Introduction

Social background of the students may be referred to as 'home background', 'family background', 'social class background', etc. Sociologists have often argued that the students' social background has an important bearing on their educational progress or career. It also decides the availability or non-availability of educational facilities to the student, which influences the career planning of the student.

The relationship of social background to the educational attainment of a student is one of the many dimensions of the relationship between education and environment and perhaps one of the most important dimensions. Many investigators advocate the importance of this relation. As for example, according to Blackledge and Hunt (1985), wherever children fail to take advantage of schooling, it can usually be traced to an unstable home background. Flould et.al., (1961) had opined that the social class of a child may either offset or reinforce a child's tendency to learn. According to them, if a child comes from a family whose material condition is rated as good, then his attitude towards education is likely to be favourable. On the other hand, those children who come from a home rated as having poor material condition, they are more likely to be unfavorable to education.

Weber is of the opinion that children born to wealthy families have better life chances than the children of poor parents. The child undergoes social experiences of power and prestige upon which his ideas of class are built (quoted in Musgrave, 1965:62). Further, it is a generally acknowledged fact that the children from higher social class families are more likely than others to have higher levels of educational aspirations and achievements. The ethos of the homes children come from is crucial in determining their educational attainments. The children with educated parents who are engaged in white collar occupations, particularly the professions, are better prepared for school than the children of uneducated parents or parents in blue-collar occupations (Ali, 2001). This advantage comes from the fact that educated parents are oriented to the culture that is adapted to the world of formal education. Children from educated families are also advantaged in terms of the help they receive from parents in their homework and guidance in the choice of courses. Besides, parents also act as models or as reference

groups for their children (Mohan, 1999). Even among the Scheduled Castes/Tribes, it has been pointed out those enrolled for school and college education comes from a more literate background than others. Not only do they come from literate homes but are economically privileged as well.

In India, interest in social background of students preoccupied sociologists in the sixties and seventies. It was around this time that sociology of education began to assume importance due to interest taken by noted sociologists such as I.P. Desai and M.S. Gore. However, most of the earlier studies focussed on caste as a very crucial variable and included occupation and income of the father as additional variables. Later, occupation, income and education of the father/guardian assumed more importance. This will be true of the surveys of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribe students as well (Desai, 1953;; Shah, 1964; Chitnis and Aikara, 1977; Ahmad, 1974; etc). All these studies have highlighted that there is a close link between the educability of a child and one's social background. Ahmed is of the opinion that:

“the difference in the school backgrounds of the students is closely interlocked with their social backgrounds or with the educational, occupational and income level of their families” (1974:190).

An individual student's attitudes, expectations and desires are reflected through his/her choice of course of study and occupational career. These attitudinal factors are likely to be related to the socio-economic background of the students. It is, therefore, in this Chapter, the socio-economic background of the students is described. An analysis of the data and information on socio-economic background of the students entering higher education will hopefully indicate whether the higher education system in the State is adequately represented in terms of various socio-economic groups or not.

In this chapter, we shall also examine the demographic characteristics and regional background of the students. The educational level, occupation of the parents and monthly household income of the students; the school background of the students and their source of finance for higher education are also presented.

3.2. Demographic Characteristics

In the demographic characteristics of the student respondents, we included their age, sex-wise distribution, caste/tribe group and rural/urban background. The data related to these factors provide an understanding of certain basic patterns in relation to education.

3.2.1. Age-Sex composition of the students

The sample covered a total of 91 students, out of this, 44 are men and 47 are women. The distribution of the students in terms of their age and sex is presented in table 3.1.

Table 3.1 - Age and Sex Distribution of Students

Sex	Age						Total
	19 Yrs.	20 Yrs.	21 Yrs.	22 Yrs.	23 Yrs.	24 Yrs.	
Men	7 (15.9)	7 (15.9)	18(40.9)	9 (20.5)	2(4.5)	1(2.3)	44(100.0)
Women	7 (14.9)	19(40.4)	7 (14.9)	8 (17.0)	5 (10.6)	1(2.1)	47(100.0)
Total	14(15.4)	26(28.6)	25(27.5)	17(18.7)	7(7.7)	2(2.2)	91(100.0)

Note: Figures in parenthesis are in percent. The same will be applicable to all the tables presented in the study.

From the table, it is clear that out of the 91 students, 74.8 percent falls within the age of 20-22 years. Large number of students is found to be of 20 years of age (28.6 percent), followed by those with 21 years (27.5 percent) and 22 years (18.7 percent). Very few (2.2 percent) students are of the age of 24 years.

Gender-wise distribution reveals that a majority of the men students are of 21 years (40.9 percent) and the women students are of 20 years (40.4). About 20.5 percent of men and 17 percent of women are of 22 years. Those who are above 22 years are 6.8 percent (men) and 12.7 percent (women). Interestingly, those below 20 years are 15.9 percent and 14.9 percent of men and women students respectively.

Thus, the sample data shows that many students are either below or above the natural expected age group of 20-22 years.

3.2.2. Caste/Tribe Background

The data on caste/tribe background of the students are classified into four categories (i) Meitei, (ii) Scheduled Tribe, (iii) Scheduled Caste, and (iv) Others. Under the category 'others', we have included a couple of Muslim and Nepali students. Table 3.2 gives the detailed distribution of the students in terms of their caste/tribe.

Table 3.2 - Caste/Tribe Distribution of Students

Caste/Tribe	Sex		Total
	Men	Women	
Meitei	27 (61.4)	40 (85.1)	67 (73.6)
Scheduled Tribe	5 (11.4)	0 (0.0)	5 (5.5)
Scheduled Caste	9 (20.5)	6 (12.8)	15 (16.5)
Others	3(6.8)	1(2.1)	4 (4.4)
Total	44 (100.0)	47 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

Nearly 73.6 percent of the students are Meiteis.² The Scheduled Caste students constitute 16.5 percent and the Scheduled Tribe students constitute 5.5 percent of the sample. The remaining 4.4 percent is represented by 'others'. Among the men students, majority of them belong to Meitei community constituting 61.4 percent, while in case women students, the figure are 85.1 percent. It is thus clear that Meitei constitute a majority of the student respondents. This can be correlated with the fact that they have had a long literacy tradition.

3.2.2. Rural/Urban Background

The rural/urban backgrounds of the students are noted in terms of their place of residence. The responses are categorised into three groups – village, town and city. About 36.3 percent of students are from village while the remaining 63.7 percent are represented by the students from town and city i.e. 31.9 percent each.

² Meiteis are the dominant nationality/community inhabiting in the valley. Meiteis had their own unique institutions, customs, scripts, cultural and religious beliefs and practices. Changes in these uniqueness were brought through powerful process which can be described as Hindunisation, some call it Sanskritisation. (Singh, N.S. 1999, 'Meitei Revivalism and its Political Implication' in S.K. Chaube and B. Chakrabarty edited Social Movements in Contemporary India).

Gender- wise distribution of rural/urban background does not show any marked difference. Once reason for this is the researcher's conscious decision to include equal number of men and women students from village or town or city in the study. It is intended to see the differing socio-economic backgrounds of the students coming from different places of residence and also to examine the difference between men and women in their career choices.

3.3. Socio-Economic Background of the Students

The socio-economic status of a family is related to a number of social and economic variables. For analytical purposes, there is no single, agreed measure of individual or family socio-economic status. But the most common measures for classifying students' socio-economic status include parental education, parental employment and family income. These variables may be closely related to each other. For instance, the higher the level of educational attainments, the greater the chance of holding a prestigious and better-paid job. Occupation is a good indicator of the economic position of the family. In order to get a clear picture of the students' socio-economic background, the present study examined the data on three variables, namely –

- (1) Parental education,
- (2) Parental Occupation and
- (3) Monthly household income

(1) Parental Education

It is generally observed that relatively more educated than uneducated parents encourage their children to complete their courses as the former find education to be of great value. Although a major part of the early socialization and education process is taken over by kindergarten and other nursery centres, the basic role played by the family cannot be underestimated. In fact the degree of academic achievement of children depends largely upon the degree of education of the parents (Desai, 1991). Educated parents do not merely guide their children, but regularly observe their performance. They consciously create a more conducive atmosphere at home, keep in touch with the

teachers, and also make efforts to motivate their children. This continuous support and 'back-up' helps the children perform well in schools (Banks, 1968).

(i) Father's Educational level: Table 3.3 presents the data on the educational level of both the fathers and mothers.

It is observed from the table that the students whose fathers are not educated at all (i.e., those who were illiterate) constitute only 5.5 percent of the total sample. The proportion of students whose fathers are either graduates or post-graduates constitute as

Table 3.3 - Parents' Educational level

Parents' education level	Parents					
	Father			Mother		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
No Edn.	5 (11.4)	--	5 (5.5)	16 (36.4)	12 (25.5)	28 (30.8)
Primary Edn.	13 (29.5)	9 (19.1)	22 (24.2)	14 (13.8)	17 (36.2)	31 (34.1)
Secondary Edn.	6 (13.6)	6 (12.8)	12 (13.2)	7 (15.9)	5 (10.6)	12 (13.2)
Graduation	13 (29.5)	25 (53.2)	38 (41.8)	6 (13.6)	12 (25.5)	18 (19.8)
Post Graduation	6 (13.6)	5 (10.6)	11 (12.1)	1 (2.3)	1 (2.1)	2 (2.2)
Data Unavailable	1 (2.3)	2 (4.3)	3 (3.3)	-	-	-

high as 53.9 percent. About 24.2 percent of the fathers of students have received primary education while about 13.2 percent have received secondary education.

It is revealed that a majority of the women students (63.8 percent) came from families where their fathers' are graduates or post-graduates. None of the women came from families where their fathers' had no education. Almost all of the fathers who are illiterate are those of men students. However, 43.1 percent of man students came from the families where their father is educated up to graduation or post-graduation.

(ii) Mothers' Educational Level

Regarding the mothers' educational level, it is found that 22 percent of the students come from families where their mothers had either graduation or post-graduation level of education. However, a large number of them also come from

families where their mother had no education (30.8 percent), 34.1 percent of the students are from families where their mothers were educated up to primary level of education.

Gender-wise distribution of the students reveals that a majority of the men students (36.4 percent) are from families where their mothers had no education while the corresponding figure of women students is only 25.5 percent. A large number of women students (36.2 percent) are from families where their mothers were educated upto primary level but in case of men students the figure is only 13.8 percent.

(2) Parental Occupation

Occupation symbolizes the social position of a person and also reflects his/her economic position. Representing in certain ways a mode of life, it is also a fair index of a person's class position. Accordingly, occupational status of the parents is one of the most significant factors associated with the educational attainment of the members of their family. Jayaswal and Kale, in their study of Gujarat University students found that occupation of parents was the most important factor in the education of a child (1965: 53-71). Family or one's father's occupation also provides the earliest motivations to the children towards the acquiring of professional skills (Parvathamma, 1984). It is quite common for the children of professionals to imbibe early an ambition for qualifying as doctors, engineers and so forth. There is some kind of 'ready background' within the family. Keeping all these in view, we have made an attempt to analyse the occupational background of the parents.

(i) Father's Occupational Status

We have classified the occupation of the fathers' into eight categories depending upon the type of occupation they pursued:

- (i) Professions (e.g. teachers, lawyers, doctors, engineers etc.),
- (ii) Managerial (e.g., managers and cashier of bank, officers and higher level administrators in the government etc.),
- (iii) Clerical (e.g., clerks, peons, typist etc.),
- (iv) Businessmen,
- (v) Self-employed (e.g. artisans),
- (vi) Cultivator;

(vii) Retired and

(viii) Data not available.

The first three categories come under the wider category of the white-collar occupations. This categorization of occupations is not based on any classification of occupations published in government or any other report. We devised our own classification for the purposes of analysis of our data.

Table 3.4 - Distribution of Students by fathers' occupation

Father's occupation	Sex		Total
	Men	Women	
Professionals	11 (25.0)	16 (34.0)	27 (29.7)
Managerial	5 (11.4)	5 (10.6)	10 (11.0)
Clerical	5 (11.4)	16 (34.0)	21 (23.1)
Businessmen	4 (9.1)	-	4 (4.4)
Self-employed	4 (9.1)	3 (6.4)	7 (7.7)
Cultivator	10 (22.7)	1 (2.1)	11 (12.1)
Retired Category	2 (4.5)	4 (8.5)	6 (6.6)
Data not available	3 (6.8)	2 (4.3)	5 (5.5)
Total	44 (100.0)	47 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

Table 3.4 provides the distribution of the students in terms of the occupational categories of their fathers. It is seen from the table that a majority of students (63.8 percent) come from white-collar occupational background and the rest from various other occupational backgrounds such as businessmen, cultivator and self-employed category. Thus, students from white-collar occupational background had better chances of receiving higher education than those coming from other occupational background. Among the white-collar occupations a large number of students (29.7 percent) are from the professional category, followed by 23.1 percent for the clerical category. Managerial category constitutes 11 percent.

Distribution in terms of gender reveals that a large group (25 percent) of men students is from the families where their fathers are engaged in professional occupations. 22.7 percent of the fathers of men students are cultivators. This can be correlated with an

increasing number of students from rural areas seeking higher education. Among the women students, a majority of their fathers (68 percent) are either from professional or from clerical occupational background, constituting 34 percent each in both categories. Only 2.1 percent of fathers of the women students were engaged as cultivators and no student is from business.

During the interview with the students, a few students expressed that they are joining the college education in order to get better knowledge as they have seen the handicap of their illiterate parents in the society.

Table 3.5 – Distribution of Students in terms of fathers’ occupation and residence

Fathers’ occupation	Residence			Total
	Village	Town	City	
Professionals	11 (33.3)	7 (24.1)	9 (31.0)	27 (29.7)
Managerial	2 (6.1)	3 (10.3)	5 (17.2)	10 (11.0)
Clerical	6 (18.2)	8 (27.6)	7 (24.1)	21 (23.1)
Businessmen	1 (3.0)	1 (3.4)	2 (6.9)	4 ((4.4)
Self-employed	1 (3.0)	2 (5.9)	4 (13.8)	7 (7.7)
Cultivator	8 (24.2)	3 (10.3)	0 (0.0)	11 (12.1)
Retired Category	3 (9.1)	1 (3.4)	2 (6.9)	6 (6.6)
Data not available	1 (3.0)	4 (13.8)	-	5 (5.5)
Total	33 (100.0)	29 (100.0)	29 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

Table 3.5 shows the distribution of students in terms of their fathers’ occupation and the area of residence. It is seen from the table that there is a higher proportion of parents from the village in the lower occupational categories than those of town and city. Interestingly, there is also higher percentage of parents from village than town and city in the Professional occupational category. However, parents from the city are in higher proportion in the white-collar occupations, followed by parents from city.

(ii) Mothers’ Occupational Status

We have classified the mothers’ occupations into seven categories depending upon the type of occupation they engaged in:

- (i) Professionals (e.g. teachers, lawyers, doctors, engineers etc.),

- (ii) Managerial (e.g. managers and cashier of bank, officers and higher level administrators in the government etc.),
- (iii) Clerical (e.g., clerks, peons, typist etc.),
- (iv) Self-employed (e.g. weaver, running small shops etc.),
- (v) Housewife and
- (vi) Data not available.

Table 3.6 shows the distribution of students in terms of their mothers' occupations. It is clear from the table that higher percentages (65.9 percent) of the students' mothers are housewives. 20.9 percent of the students' mothers are engaged in white-collar occupations, in which 11.0 percent are in the professional occupational category. 6.6 percent are in the clerical and only 3.3 percent are in the managerial category.

Table 3.6- Distribution of students by their mothers' occupation

Mother's occupation	Sex		Total
	Men	Women	
Professionals	4 (9.1)	6 (12.8)	10 (11.0)
Managerial	-	4 (6.4)	3 (3.3)
Clerical	1 (2.1)	5 (10.6)	6 (6.6)
Self-employed	8 (18.2)	2 (4.3)	10 (11.0)
Housewife	30 (68.2)	30 (63.8)	60 (65.9)
Data not available	1 (2.3)	1 (2.1)	2 (2.2)
Total	44 (100.0)	47 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

Distribution in terms of gender shows that a majority (68.2 percent) of the mothers of the men students are housewives and 18.2 percent are from the self-employed category. Only 9.1 percent and 2.1 percent are employed in professional and clerical categories respectively. Among the women students, like the men students, a large number (63.8 percent) of their mothers are housewives. 29.8 percent of them are from families where their mothers are engaged in white-collar occupations with 12.8 percent in professional, 10.6 percent in clerical and 6.4 percent in managerial occupational categories.

(3) Family Income:

The very accessibility of education depends on the economic condition of the family. The financial background of the parents is pertinent in terms of the ability to support the students in the process of higher education (Peer, 1994). Income is closely associated with the level of education one gets and the kind of occupation one takes up. As a result, the differences in education and occupation are carried over to the difference in income. Sharma and Sapra (1967) are of the opinion that the income of the family is a predictor of educational status of the children. They go on to argue that the parents exposed to education may command more income. Thus, it is likely that educated parents are aware of the value of education. Further, since they earn more, they may be in a position to invest more in the education of their children than their less educated counterparts. Keeping all this in view, an attempt has been made to examine the income levels of the parents of the students.

We have divided the monthly household income of the students into six broad categories. They are:

- (i) less than Rs. 5,000
- (ii) Rs. 5001 – 10,000
- (iii) Rs. 10,001 – 15,000
- (iv) Rs. 15,001 – 20,000
- (v) Rs. 20,001 – 25,000
- (vi) Rs. 25,001 – 30,000

The data presented in table 3.7 provides the distribution of students in terms of their family income. It may be seen that a large percentage of students (47.3 percent) are from families with Rs. 5,001-10,000 income per month, followed by students from families Rs. 5,000 or less income per month (22.0 percent). 20.9 percent of the students enjoyed a monthly household income of Rs. 10,001-15,000.

Gender-wise distribution of students shows that among the men students, a majority (95.6 percent) are from the three income groups, namely, less than Rs. 5,000 (34.1 percent); Rs. 5,001-10,000 (36.4 percent) and Rs. 10,001-15,000 (25 percent). The rest (4.5 percent) are from Rs. 15,001-20,000 income group. In case of women students,

majority of them (57.4 percent) are from families with Rs. 5,001-10,000 income per month, followed by students (17 percent) from Rs. 10,001-15,000 income group. Another 14.9 percent are from families where the income group is between Rs. 15,000 and Rs. 30,000. Only 10.6 percent of the women students are from families with Rs. 5,000 or less income per month.

Table 3.7 - Distribution of Students by family income

Family income (monthly in Rs.)	Sex		Total
	Men	Women	
Less than 5000	15 (34.1)	5 (10.0)	20 (22.0)
5,000-10,000	16 (36.4)	27 (57.4)	43 (47.3)
10,000-15,000	11 (25.0)	8 (17.0)	19 (20.9)
15,000-20,000	2 (4.5)	2 (4.3)	4 (4.4)
20,001-25,000	-	3 (6.4)	3 (3.3)
25,001-30,000	-	2 (4.3)	2 (2.2)

The household income data with reference to course of study of students is shown in table 3.8.

Table 3.8 – Distribution of students in terms of their family income and course of study

Family income (monthly in Rs.)	Course of study			Total
	B.Sc.	B.A.	B.Com	
Less than 5000	4 (13.3)	12 (38.7)	5 (16.7)	21 (23.1)
5001-10000	15 (50.0)	12 (38.7)	16 (53.3)	43 (47.3)
10,001-15,000	4 (13.3)	7 (22.6)	8 (26.7)	19 (20.9)
15,001-20,000	3 (10.0)	-	1 (3.3)	4 (4.4)
20,001-25,000	2 (6.7)	-	-	2 (2.2)
25,001-30,000	2 (6.7)	-	-	2 (2.2)
Total	30(100.0)	31 (100.0)	30 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

It may be observed from the table that students from higher income families are more represented in Science than Arts and Commerce course. Students from lower

income families in contrast, are more represented in Arts and Commerce subjects. Even more striking is the fact that there is no student from higher income families in Arts and Commerce courses. It is also seen that higher percentage of students came from the income group 5,001-10,000 in all the course of study.

3.4. School Background:

It is a matter of common observation that there exists a hierarchy of educational institutions with respect to the standard and quality of education imparted to the students. Individual belonging to certain elite/well to do strata are better able to exploit the educational facilities of a higher quality than those belonging to others (Rao, 1967). Inequality of educational opportunities does not take place solely or abruptly at the level of higher education. In fact, the initial selection takes place at the school itself and higher education mainly reinforces it (Ali, 2001). The quality of schooling determines, to a very large extent, the quality of college education and the performance therein. Keeping all this in view, an attempt was made to ascertain which type of school the students attended and is there any difference among the students coming from different socio-economic backgrounds. For this purpose, the schools attended by the students under study are categorised into –

- (i) Public schools,
- (ii) Private aided/unaided schools and
- (iii) State run government schools

The distinction between public schools and private aided/unaided schools is thin and at times may be more or less similar.

- (i) **Public Schools:** The public schools are those schools, which are run by a private management who has a profit motive and elitist in nature. These are mainly English medium schools and have high academic standards and charge high tuition fees. They cater to the children of rich parents. But, now a days, there is a great demand for these schools even among the middle class families too. These schools are located mostly in metropolitan cities or state capitals.
- (ii) **Private aided/unaided Schools:** These refer to a school run by a private trust or a group of people. The school may be aided or unaided by the government funds. Students, by and large, may belong mainly to the middle-income

groups. Most of these schools are located in small towns and in the townships around the metropolitan cities.

- (iii) Government Schools: These are the schools run by the state government. The government meets the total cost of maintenance in these schools and tuition fees are comparatively very low. Facilities in these schools are poor in comparison to the above mentioned types of schools. The classes are generally overcrowded and the teacher-student ratio is high. Children from lower income groups are to be found in great numbers in these schools.

Table 3.9 gives the distribution of students who received their school education in public, private and government schools.

Table 3.9- Distribution of students in terms of the type of schooling

Type of school	Men Student	Women Student	Total
Public School	1 (2.3)	2 (4.3)	3 (3.3)
Private aided /unaided	10 (43.2)	15 (31.9)	34 (37.1)
Government School	24 (54.5)	30 (63.8)	54 (59.3)
Total	44 (100.0)	47 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

It is observed from the table that a large proportion of the students (59.3 percent) received their secondary education in government schools. Those who are educated in a private aided/unaided school constitute 37.4 percent. Only 3.3 percent of the students attended a public school for their secondary education.

A majority of the men students (54.5 percent) and also women students (63.8 percent) studied in the government schools. 43.2 percent of the men students studied in private schools while the corresponding figure of women students is only 31.9 percent. Only 2.3 percent of students in case of man students and 4.3 percent of women enjoyed their secondary education in public schools.

Table 3.10 shows the relationship between school background and family income of the students. It is found that 31.5 percent of the students having government school background are from the families with an income of less than Rs.5, 000. A majority of

the students having private school background (61.8 percent) and government school background (40.7 percent) are from the income group of Rs. 5,001-10,000. All the students who studied in the public school are from the well-to-do families with the income groups between above Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 25,000.

Table 3.10 – Distribution of students in terms of their school background and family income

Family income (in Rs.)	Public school	Private aided/ unaided school	Govt. school	Total
Less than 5000	-	4 (11.8)	17 (31.5)	21 (23.1)
5,001-10,000	-	21 (61.8)	22 (40.7)	32 (47.3)
10,001-15,000	1 (33.3)	8 (23.5)	10 (18.5)	19 (20.9)
15,001-20,000	1 (33.03)	-	3 (5.6)	4 (4.4)
20,001-25,000	1 (33.3)	1 (2.9)	-	2 (2.2)
25,001-30,000	-	-	2 (3.7)	2 (2.2)
Total	3 (100.0)	34 (100.0)	54 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

3.5. Source of Finance for the Students:

An attempt has been made in the present study to know the source of finance of the students for their present education. 73.6 percent of students depend upon their family for their education. About 24.2 percent of students depend on scholarships. Those students who are getting government scholarship are partly dependent on their family as the amount of scholarship is not sufficient for maintaining their educational expenditure. The remaining 2.2 percent is represented by students whose own efforts financed their present. These students earned money by taking tuition classes and other domestic works such as poultry (for man) and weaving (for girls), as their parents could not support them for higher education.

In summary, the Chapter shows that the socio-economic background exerts a profound influence in acquiring the higher education. For instance, the proportion of students whose fathers are educated upto either graduation or post- graduation is as high as 54 percent. It is noted that the students whose parents are engaged in white-collar occupations have better chances of receiving higher education than those coming from

other occupational background. Among the student respondents, a majority of them were from the families having a monthly household income less than Rs. 10,000. Thus, the discussion on the socio-economic background of the students reinforces the belief that the higher education in India is middle class oriented. It also brings out the differences in terms of gender, courses of study and regional background.

The next Chapter IV discusses the attitudes and expectations of the students on higher education and their future career choices.

CHAPTER IV

HIGHER EDUCATION AND CAREER- CHOICES

The choice of a career is possibly one of the most critical decisions of our lives because social and economic profile for the major part of our life depends upon it. It shapes our future and determines our lifestyle (Brown and Brooks, 1984). Making career choices is not an easy decision today, not because of lack of choices but because of a multiplicity of choices.

Studies have shown that socio-economic status of the family significantly influence in varied ways the upbringing of the children and thereby influence their outlook, expectations, aspirations and the type of career and the final place reached within that career (Shah, 1964; Chopra, 1967; Hall, 1969; Ginsberg, 1984; Shah and Uniyal, 1986; Segal, 1988). It is understandable that the children of parents who have been exposed to formal education are better equipped in many ways and are able to get the right advice and guidance regarding their career choices and also other aspects of life.

This Chapter deals with the description of the attitudes, the expectations and the future career choices of the students. Fathers' educational level and occupation will be used as variables to find out how far one's preference for particular type of career will be influenced. First, the reasons for continuing higher education and factors influencing the choice of the college will be discussed. In the course of presentation, the differences in the career preference in contrast to the actual courses of study will also be looked at.

4.1. Reasons for continuing higher education

Entry into higher education system takes place after the successful completion of the Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC) examination. In our study, students are asked to indicate why they have decided to pursue higher studies beyond secondary education. An analysis of the pattern of responses revealed that the major reason is to get better employment opportunities with a degree (Table 4.1). Around 78 percent of the students stated this as a reason for opting for future higher education.

Table 4.1 - Reasons for pursuing higher education

Reasons	Men	Women	Total
Better employment opportunities	29 (65.9)	42 (89.4)	71 (78.0)
Inability to obtain employment	6 (13.6)	1 (2.1)	7 (7.7)
To get better knowledge	9 (20.5)	4 (8.5)	13 (14.3)
Total	44 (100.0)	47 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

About 14.3 percent of the students are pursuing college education to get better knowledge. They do not think much about the employment, as they could not receive guidance from their illiterate parents. Nearly 7.7 percent of the total students are continuing their college education, as they were unable to obtain employment after 10+2 education.

Distribution of students in terms of gender shows that more women students than men students noted that they want to get better employment opportunities with a degree. For instance, the percentage of woman who stated this is 89.4 percent and that of the men students is 65.9 percent. Similarly, more men students than women students stated that they are pursuing higher education because of their inability to obtain employment after 10+2 and they want to get better knowledge. For instance, 20.5 percent of men and 8.5 percent of women students observed that they want to get better knowledge by opting for post secondary education. Similarly, 13.6 percent of men and 2.1 percent of women students stated that they came to college because there is no chance of getting employment soon after 10+2.

4.2. Choice of the College

Once a student chooses to continue for higher education, he/she has to make a choice of the college in which he/she wishes to study. Admission or entry into a college as well as into a faculty (science, arts, commerce) may be determined by factors such as the socio-economic status of the family, the students' performance in the secondary school examination, the distance of the residence from the institution and so on (Sanyal, 1987). Apart from these, there may be other influences on the students' choices, as for instance, college reputation, college offering the course which the student wanted to study, better infrastructural facilities and teaching methods in the college, etc.

In the present study, the students are asked, what reasons prompted them to opt for a particular college as their first choice. Table 4.2 gives the distribution of the data on the students' reasons for opting for the college.

Table 4.2 – Reasons for choosing a particular college by students

Reasons	Men	Women	Total
Good reputation	19 (43.2)	19 (40.4)	38 (41.8)
Offers the course wanted	9 (20.5)	8 (17.0)	17 (18.7)
Nearer to home	3 (6.8)	3 (6.4)	6 (6.6)
Better facilities	3 (6.8)	11 (23.4)	14 (15.4)
Financial reasons	10 (22.7)	6 (12.8)	16 (17.6)
Total	44 (100.0)	47 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

It is clear that 41.8 percent of the students are influenced by the good reputation of the college while, 18.7 percent of the students are influenced by the factor that the college offers the course, which wanted to study. Better infrastructural facilities and teaching methods of the college is the reason given by 15.4 percent of the students. Few students wanted to go outside Manipur for higher studies, but due to financial problems they had to study in Manipur itself. 17.6 percent of the students stated financial reasons for the choice of a particular college. The close proximity of the residential location to the college also found to have influenced about 6.6 percent of students in choosing their choice of the college.

In terms of the gender-wise distribution, it is found that the good reputation of the college is a high priority reason for both men and women students in the selection of college of their study. They constitute 43.2 percent and 40.4 percent respectively. Financial reasons are found to have played a vital role for men students (22.7 percent). Better facilities and teaching methods of the college are found to have influenced the decision of 23.4 percent of women students in choosing a particular college as their first choice. Further, 6.8 percent of men and 6.4 percent of women students choose the college because of its nearer to home.

Table 4.3- Distribution of students in terms residence and reasons for choosing a particular college

Reasons	Residence			Total
	Village	Town	City	
Good reputation	11 (33.3)	13 (44.8)	14 (48.3)	38 (41.8)
Offers the course wanted	7 (21.2)	4 (13.8)	6 (20.7)	17 (18.7)
Nearer to home	1 (3.0)	---	5 (17.2)	6 (6.6)
Better facilities	4 (12.1)	8 (27.6)	2 (6.9)	14 (15.4)
Financial Reasons	10 (30.3)	4 (13.8)	2 (6.9)	16 (17.6)
Total	33 (100.0)	29 (100.0)	29 (100.0)	91(100.0)

Table 4.3 shows the distribution of students in terms of their residence and reasons for choosing a particular college. It is observed that good reputation of the college emerged as a high priority reason for all the students irrespective of their place of residence. For instance, 33.3 percent of students from village, 44.8 percent from town and 48.3 percent of students from city backgrounds stated this. Financial reasons are found to be playing a vital role for students of villages (30.3 percent), while better facilities and teaching methods for students from the towns (27.6 percent), and considerable proportion of students from the city (20.7 percent) stated that the college offers the course they wanted to study and therefore, they chose the college

4.3. Choice of the course of study

It is pertinent to find out the motivational factors that influence a student in choosing a particular course of study at the time of applying for admission to the college. Factors may be many and varied. For example, the level of education in the family may

have an influence on the preference pattern of a student. A family whose members are highly educated may be more knowledgeable about the job prospects of a course and is in a better position to mould the preference pattern of its wards accordingly. In addition, students from such families are likely to develop a taste for those courses whose social prestige is greater. Moreover, the preference pattern of the men students may differ substantially from that of the women students.

In this regard, a question was posed to the students to indicate whether the present course was their first choice or not, and if not, what are the reasons for not taking up the first choice.

The data shows that a sizeable proportion (25.3 percent) of the students could not choose the course of study they preferred most due to a variety of reasons. However, the reasons cited by the students are centred on the following two—

- (i) not qualified for the first choice and
- (ii) course of their choice not available in the college.

For the first reason, there are two groups of students – students who got low percentage of marks in their (10+2) examination, thus could not get even the minimum eligible marks for applying for the preferred course; and students who got the eligible mark but could not get through the entrance examination conducted for the course. For the second reason, there are students who wanted to study a particular course, which was not available in their present college. Due to financial reasons, they couldn't go outside the state for studying the course. There are also students who wanted to go outside Manipur, but could not go, not because of financial problems, but due to the parents' desires and objectives. This is particularly true in the case of women students.

For all students taken together, the most important reason for the divergence between the expected or preferred course and actual course is not being qualified followed by financial problems. There is no marked difference between the men and women students regarding the reasons for not taking up their first choice of the course, except in the case of a couple of women students who noted that they could not go outside Manipur to study the course because of their parents' desires/objectives.

A look at the responses of the students in terms of their courses of study (arts, science and commerce), reveals that not being qualified for the first choice is the most important reason for most of the students offering general courses in all the fields of study. Because of their low percentage of marks in the higher secondary examination,

they could not choose the honours course in their respective fields. Failing to get through the entrance examination conducted for the course, which they wanted to pursue, emerged as the most important reason for rejection of their first choice among the science (honours) students. They wanted to study professional courses like medical, engineering etc. but they could not get through the entrance examination for these courses.

Besides, the students are also asked why they chose the present course of study. Across all the course of study (science, arts, commerce), the factors influencing in the selection of a course centred around four factors. The data are presented in table 4.4.

Table 4.4 – Factors influencing the choice of a course

Factors	Men	Women	Total
Pure Academic interest	12 (27.3)	18 (38.3)	30 (33.0)
Better employment prospects	23 (52.3)	21 (44.7)	44 (48.8)
More easy and Scoring	8 (18.2)	7 (14.9)	15 (16.5)
Social Prestige	1 (2.3)	1 (2.1)	2 (2.2)
Total	44 (100.0)	47 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

Table 4.4 reveals that a majority (48.8 percent) of the students stated that the better employment prospects influenced their choice of the course of study. Pure academic interest influenced 33.0 and another 16.5 percent of the students are influenced by the fact that the subject is more easy and scoring. Social Prestige seems to have a lesser influence as only 2.2 percent of the total students stated that it led them to choose a particular course.

Gender- wise distribution shows that better employment prospects are influencing most both men (52.3 percent) and women (44.7) students. While 38.3 percent of the women students are influenced by the pure academic interest in choosing their course of study, only 27.3 percent of men students stated this factor. There is no marked difference in terms of the other two factors, namely, more easy and scoring, and social prestige between men and women students in choosing a particular course of study.

Table 4.5 shows the course -wise distribution of students in terms of the factors influencing their selection the course of study.

Table 4.5 – Distribution of students by their course of study and factors influencing the selection of a particular course

Factors	Course of study			Total
	B.Sc.	B.A.	B.Com.	Total
Pure academic interest	15 (50.0)	11 (35.5)	3 (10.0)	29 (31.9)
Better employment prospects	8 (26.7)	9 (29.0)	13 (43.3)	30 (33.0)
More easy and scoring	7 (23.3)	9 (29.0)	14 (46.7)	30 (33.0)
Social prestige	-	2 (6.5)	-	2 (2.2)
Total	30 (100.0)	31 (100.0)	30 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

It may be observed from the table 4.5 that the pure academic interest is the most influencing factor for both B.Sc. (50.0 percent) and B.A. (35.5 percent) students while more easy and scoring is found to be the most influencing factor among the B.Com. students (46.7 percent). A high proportion of students doing B.Sc. (26.7 percent) and B.A. (29.0 percent) are influenced by 'better employment prospects' in choosing a particular course of study. 43.3 percent of commerce students are influenced by this factor, i.e. 'better employment prospects'.

4.4. Career Guidance Source

Guidance, in the real sense of the term, is to make the individual self-directing and capable of taking his/her own decisions. Guidance enables the individual to understand the problems and deal with them intelligently. Bhatnagar and Gupta (1999) defined guidance as a process of helping the individual find solutions to his problems and accept them as his own. The effort of the counselor is to change the perception of the child about self and situation, so that a wise decision is possible. This is done through providing a lot of information to the individual about self and situation, which ultimately helps in looking at the problems in the correct perspective.

Many studies have shown that a student's career is guided by various career guidance sources. As for instance, Shukla (1962) gave inconclusive evidence regarding influences of parents' advice and Shah (1986) concluded that self-interest of students of arts and commerce and science streams was significantly higher than either parents' advice or any other reason. Srivastava (1972) in his study found that father's expectations about their son's occupational placements higher than the latter's own choice. The fathers' suggestive behaviour with regard to girls changed, as they grew older. There is also a paramount influence of student's interest in the subject on the selection of their courses of study (Desai, 1991; Das, 1979).

In the present study, the data on career guidance source brought to light the following pattern of answers, shown in table 4.6.

Table 4.6 – Distribution of students by their career guidance source

Guidance Source	Men	Women	Total
Parents	8 (18.2)	15 (31.9)	23 (25.3)
Teacher	3 (6.8)	4 (8.5)	7 (7.7)
Friend	1 (2.3)	3 (6.4)	4 (4.4)
Brother/Sister	4 (9.0)	6 (12.8)	10 (11.0)
Personal Interest	28 (63.6)	19 (40.4)	47 (51.6)
Total	44 (100.0)	47 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

It may be observed from the table 4.6, that a majority of the students (51.6 percent) cited that personal interest in the course or the subject guided them in the selection of their educational choice; followed by guidance from parents (25.3 percent). Brothers/ sisters in the family are also found to be important sources of career guidance for 11.0 percent of the total students. Teachers and friends acted as guides for 7.7 percents and 4.4 percent of students respectively in selecting a course of study.

Gender-wise distribution reveals that 63.6 percent of men students undertook their course because of their personal interest. The corresponding figure of women students is 40.4 percent. Parents, as source of career guidance are larger in the case of women (31.9 percent) than men (18.2 percent) students. This clearly reflects the higher dependency of women students on their parents compared to their men counterparts.

Table 4.7 – Distribution of students by career guidance source and father’s level of education

Father’s Education	Career Guidance Source					Total
	Parents	Teacher	Friend	Brother/Sister	Personal Interest	
No education	---	---	---	1 (10.0)	4 (8.5)	5 (5.5)
Primary education	---	---	1 (25.0)	5 (50.0)	16 (34.0)	22 (24.2)
Secondary education	2 (8.7)	1 (14.3)	---	---	9 (19.1)	12 (13.2)
Graduation	10 (43.5)	6 (85.7)	3 (75.0)	4 (40.0)	15 (31.9)	38 (41.8)
Post-graduation	10 (43.5)	---	---	---	1 (2.1)	11 (12.1)
Data unavailable	1 (4.3)	---	---	--	2 (4.2)	3 (3.3)
Total	23 (100.0)	7 (100.0)	4 (100.0)	10 (100.0)	47 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

An analysis of the data on the source of career guidance in terms of the fathers’ educational level reveals that for those students whose fathers had either graduation or post-graduation, parents were the most popular source of career guidance (Table 4.7). Among the students whose fathers’ educational level is either primary or secondary, personal interest in the course is found to be the most important factor in choosing a course. For some other students, it was their brothers/sisters who have completed college education, acted as the source of career guidance.

A look at the career guidance source for the students in terms of the occupational status of their fathers reveals that the fathers who are professionals guided their children in their career planning (Table 4.8). Students whose fathers are in the lower level occupations such as clerks, cultivators, businessmen or self employed, seem to have received less or no guidance from their parents or teachers, but had to depend on their own personal interest and search on their own for a better career planning.

Table 4.9 gives the distribution of students in terms of career guidance source and residence of the students. It may be observed from the table that for students from village, personal interest seems to have more influenced in comparison to other students

from town and city. However, parents' influence is higher for students from town and city than their village counterparts where teacher also played an important role.

Table 4.8 – Distribution of students by career guidance source and father's occupation

Father's Education	Career Guidance Source					Total
	Parents	Teacher	Friend	Brother/Sister	Personal Interest	
Professionals	16 (69.6)	2 (28.6)	2 (50.0)	1 (10.0)	6 (12.8)	27 (29.7)
Managerial	2 (8.7)	2 (28.6)	---	2 (20.0)	4 (8.5)	10 (11.0)
Clerical	3 (13.0)	2 (28.6)	2 (50.0)	---	14 (29.8)	21 (23.1)
Businessmen	---	---	---	---	4 (8.5)	4 (4.4)
Self-employed	---	1 (14.3)	---	3 (30.0)	3 (6.4)	7 (7.7)
Cultivator	---	---	---	1 (10.0)	10 (21.3)	11 (12.1)
Retired Category	1 (4.3)	---	---	2 (20.0)	3 (6.4)	6 (6.6)
Data unavailable	1 (4.3)	---	---	1 (10.0)	3 (6.4)	5 (5.5)
Total	23 (100.0)	7 (100.0)	4 (100.0)	10 (100.0)	47 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

Table 4.9 – Distribution of students in terms of career guidance source and residence

Guidance source	Residence			Total
	Village	Town	City	
Parents	6 (18.2)	10 (34.0)	7 (24.1)	23 (25.3)
Teacher	3 (9.1)	2 (6.9)	2 (6.9)	7 (7.7)
Friend	1 (3.0)	1 (3.4)	2 (6.9)	4 (4.4)
Brother/ Sister	2 (6.1)	3 (10.3)	5 (17.2)	10 (11.0)
Personal Interest	21 (63.6)	13 (44.8)	13 (44.8)	47 (51.6)
Total	33 (100.0)	29 (100.0)	29 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

4.5. Present course and its relation with career choice

In order to know what the students think about the extent of relationship between their field of study and career choice, students are asked to give their response to whether they would like to make a career in the fields related to their present course of study. The data pertaining to this aspect is presented in table 4.10.

It may be noted from the table that a large percentage of students (70.3 percent) think that their present field of study is linked with the career they want to pursue. Only 12.1 percent of the students think that their area of study is not linked with the career,

Table 4.10 – Distribution of students by the extent of relationship between their career-choices and present course of study

Career related to present study	Sex		Total
	Men	Women	
Yes	25 (56.8)	39 (83.0)	64 (70.3)
No	7 (15.9)	4 (8.5)	11 (12.1)
Undecided	12 (27.3)	4 (8.5)	16 (17.6)
Total	44 (100.0)	47 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

they wish to choose. These students stated they are forced to the subject, which they do not like due to lack of finances or lack of availability of the courses in the college. Surprisingly, a significant percentage of students (17.6 percent) stated that they are still undecided about their career.

It is also revealed from the table that a majority of the women students (83.0 percent) would like to make a career related to their present course of study. In the case of men students, the figure is 56.8 percent. Among the students who feel that there is no relationship between these two factors are 15.9 percent of men and 8.5 percent of women students. Among the students who want to make a career related to their present course, women students comprise of comparatively higher percentage than men students, while in the other cases, their percentage is less. This means that the women students are very much satisfied with the subject area in which they are studying in comparison to their men counterparts.

The comparison of the data in terms of various disciplines (science, arts and commerce) reveals that there are no much differences (Table 4.11). However, among the students who feel that their present course is not related to their career, large percentages (23.3 percent) of students are from the science stream. However, students who are still undecided about their career, a majority are from the commerce (23.3 percent) and the arts (19.4 percent) disciplines.

Table 4.11 – Distribution of students in terms of career related to present course and course of study (specialization)

Career related to present course	Course of study			Total
	B.Sc.	B.A.	B.Com	
Yes	20 (66.7)	22 (71.0)	22 (73.3)	64 (70.3)
No	7 (23.3)	3 (9.7)	1 (3.3)	11 (12.1)
Undecided	3 (10.0)	6 (19.4)	7 (23.3)	16 (17.6)
Total	30 (100.0)	31 (100.0)	30 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

4.6. Career-Choice of the Students

It can be generally assumed that by the time a student enters the final year of his/her college career, he/she would have fairly definite ideas about the type of career he/she prefers to pursue on completion of his/her studies. His/her academic and socio-economic background would partly influence his/her aspirations and expectations with regard to employment. For instance, educated and well off parents play an important role in the career choices of their children. (Srivastava, 1986). Varghese (1989) in his study found that as there is no proper career guidance for students after higher secondary education, a majority of them go for higher education for the sake of it. However, academic performances of under- graduates as well as the subject or stream at the degree examination are often the decisive factors of one's career choice and future economic and occupational attainment.

Thus, the choice of a career like the selection of the courses of study is very much influenced by the forces within and outside the family. Teachers, friends and relatives and even mass media like newspapers, provide the students with information about job prospects in a particular course of study. All these forces may exert considerable

influence on the young mind and help to develop rightly or wrongly certain attitudes towards certain jobs. Since this is a hypothetical situation one may or may not get the job of one's choice. Nevertheless, he/she may exercise his choice and inclination or preference to a particular career. On this assumption, it was intended to explore the expected future career choices of the students in this study. Table 4.12 sums up the responses of students about their choice of future careers.

Table 4.12 – Distribution of students by their expected career

Future expected career	Sex		Total
	Men	Women	
Civil Services	4 (9.0)	2 (4.3)	6 (6.6)
Academics	12 (27.3)	30 (63.8)	42 (46.2)
Business	1 (2.3)	4 (8.5)	5 (5.5)
Defence Service	4 (9.0)	1 (2.1)	5 (5.5)
Banking	2 (4.6)	3 (6.4)	5 (5.5)
CA/CS *	5 (11.4)	---	5 (5.5)
Journalist	3 (6.8)	1 (2.1)	4 (4.4)
Any Govt. job	13 (29.5)	6 (12.8)	19 (20.9)
Total	44 (100.0)	47 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

* CA – Chartered Accountant, CS – Company

It is observed from the table that a large percentage of students (46.2 percent) want to become academicians. Surprisingly, 20.9 percent want to get any government job after completion of their education. They do not have any particular career, which they want to pursue. Students, who want to go for civil services as career, constitute 6.6 percent of the total students. Equal percentages of students (5.5 percent) want to go into different sectors of employment – business, defence service, banking services and CA/CS etc.

A significant finding in terms of the gender-wise distribution is that a higher proportion of women students preferred academics career as compared to the men students. About 63.8 percent of women and 27.3 percent of men students expressed their preference for the academics career. Interestingly, women students (8.5 percent) who want to take up business as career outnumbered men students (2.3 percent). More men students (29.5 percent) than women students (12.8 percent) want to get any government

job. No women student wishes to take up CA/CS as her career, only men students expressed that they wish to take up a career in CA/CS.

Table 4.13 presents the data on the expected career of the students in various fields of study – science, arts, and commerce.

It is interesting to note that students studying science mentioned a variety of occupations as their expected career, the most important being academics, civil service, defence service and business – in the priority order. In the case of arts students, the preferences are academics, journalism, civil services, business and defence services. However, for commerce students, we find certain other careers which are related to their field of study and their order of preference are academics, banking, CA/CS.

Table 4.13 – Distribution of students by field of study and expected career

Expected Career	Field of Study or Course			Total
	B.Sc.	B.A.	B.Com	
Civil Service	4 (13.3)	2 (6.5)	-	6 (6.6)
Academics	15 (50.0)	17 (54.9)	10 (33.3)	42 (46.2)
Business	3 (10.0)	1 (3.2)	1 (3.3)	5 (5.5)
Defence Service	4 (13.3)	1 (3.2)	-	5 (5.5)
Banking	-	-	5 (16.7)	5 (5.5)
* CA/CS	-	-	5 (16.7)	5 (5.5)
Journalism	-	4 (12.9)	-	4 (4.4)
Any govt. job	4 (13.3)	6 (19.4)	9 (30.0)	19 (20.0)
Total	30 (100.0)	31 (100.0)	30 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

* CA – Chartered Accountant, CS – Company Secretary

From the above analysis, we have seen that academics emerged as the most preferred expected career among the students of all the fields of study constituting 50.0 percent, 54.9 percent and 33.3 percent in science, arts and commerce respectively. Among those who want to go to civil services, a majority are from the science streams followed by arts and no student from commerce. All the students who wanted to pursue banking and CA/CS belong to the discipline of commerce while that of journalism are from arts. The higher percentage of students who want to get any government job are

from commerce constituting 30 percent of the total commerce students followed by arts and science students with 19.4 percent and 13.3 percent respectively.

Preferences for expected career have also been classified with reference to socio-economic variables such as the occupation and education of father (Table 4.14).

Table 4.14 – Distribution of students by fathers' occupation and expected career

Father's occupation	Expected career								Row total
	Civil Service	Academics	Businesses	Defence Service	Banking	CA/CS	Journalism	Any Govt. Job	
Professionals	1 (16.7)	16 (38.1)	2 (40.0)	1 (20.0)	2 (40.0)	3 (60.0)	-	2 (10.5)	27 (29.7)
Managerial	2 (33.3)	3 (7.1)	1 (20.0)	1 (20.0)	-	-	1 (25.0)	2 (10.5)	10 (11.0)
Clerical	-	13 (31.0)	1 (20.0)	-	2 (40.0)	-	-	5 (26.3)	21 (23.1)
Businesses	1 (16.7)	1 (2.4)	-	-	-	1 (20.0)	-	1 (5.3)	4 (4.4)
Self-employed	-	2 (4.8)	-	2 (40.0)	-	1 (20.0)	1 (25.0)	1 (5.3)	7 (7.7)
Cultivator	-	3 (7.1)	1 (20.0)	1 (20.0)	-	-	1 (25.0)	5 (26.3)	11 (12.1)
Retired	1 (16.7)	2 (4.8)	-	-	-	-	1 (25.0)	2 (10.5)	6 (6.6)
Data Unavailable	1 (16.7)	2 (4.8)	-	-	1 (20.0)	-	-	1 (5.3)	5 (5.5)
Column Total	6 (100.0)	42 (100.0)	5 (100.0)	5 (100.0)	5 (100.0)	5 (100.0)	4 (100.0)	19 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

It may be observed that the students whose fathers are professionals or clerks, preferred academics as their career in high proportion, followed by an equal proportion (7.1 percent) of students who had fathers in managerial and cultivator occupational category. A large percentage of students who want to get any government job are from families where their fathers are clerks or cultivators. About 33.3 percent of students preferring civil services as career are from households where fathers are in the managerial occupations and the remaining are from the professional, business and retired categories with an equal proportion of 16.7 percent. A majority of the students (60.0 percent) who want to be CA/CS are from professional occupational background. For journalism, which is less expected career (4.4 percent) among the students, a majority of the fathers of the students are self-employed or cultivators or retired and the remaining are from the managerial occupational category. From the table 4.14, it is also revealed that for academics, which emerged as the most preferred expected career among the students of all the fields of study, students are from all occupational backgrounds irrespective of higher or lower category.

Table 4.15 – Distribution of students by fathers’ education and expected Career

Father’s Education	Expected Career							
	Civil Services	Academics	Business	Defence Services	Banking	CA/CS	Journalism	Any govt. jobs
No Edn.	-	1 (2.9)	-	-	-	1(20.0)	-	3(15.8)
Primary Edn.	2(33.3)	9(21.4)	2(40.0)	2(40.0)	-	-	2(50.0)	5(26.3)
Secondary Edn.	-	5(11.9)	-	1(20.0)	-	0	1(25.0)	5(26.3)
Graduation	2(33.3)	21(50.0)	2(40.0)	2(40.0)	3(60.0)	2(40.0)	1(25.0)	5(26.3)
Post Graduation	2(33.3)	5(11.9)	1(20.0)	-	1(20.0)	2(40.0)	-	-
Data Unavailable	-	1(1.1)	-	-	1(20.0)	-	-	1(5.3)
Total	6(100.0)	42(100.0)	5(100.0)	5(100.0)	5(100.0)	5(100.0)	4(100.0)	19(100.0)

If we see the distribution of data in terms of the fathers’ educational level and the students’ expected career, some interesting points may emerge. If we look at the table 4.15, we find that students, whose fathers are educated at different levels of education, preferred the academics career. However, students whose fathers’ educational level is above secondary education formed a majority of those who want to go to civil services as their career.

Further, it is observed from the table that no student from the families where their fathers had no education or primary or secondary education, want to take up banking services as their career. However, a majority of the students who want to get some government job after graduation came from the same families where fathers had either no education or primary or secondary education. Students, irrespective of their fathers’ educational level, expect academics as their career in varying proportions. From the table, it is also observed that the proportion of students whose fathers’ educational level is graduation is higher in all the expected careers, with fluctuations or equal in proportion occurring with students whose fathers’ educational level is primary or post-graduation.

Looking at the rural-urban differences in terms of the students’ expected careers (table 4.16), we see that the students from village prefer academics to those of town and city. Moreover, the proportion of students preferring any government job after graduation is higher for students from the town. Students from the city preferred to take up business and journalist in higher proportion as their future career in comparison to their village and town counterparts. No student from town wants to take up business and

journalism as their future careers. And it is interesting to note that students from all the areas – village, town and city, expect civil services as their future career in nearly equal proportions.

Table 4.16 – Distribution of students in terms of their residence and expected career

Expected Career	Residence			Total
	Village	Town	City	
Civil Service	2 (6.1)	2 (6.9)	2 (6.9)	6 (6.6)
Academics	17 (51.5)	13 (44.8)	12 (41.4)	42 (46.2)
Business	2 (6.1)	-	3 (10.3)	5 (5.5)
Defence Service	2 (6.1)	3 (10.3)	-	5 (5.5)
Banking	1 (3.0)	2 (6.9)	2 (6.9)	5 (5.5)
CA/CS	2 (6.1)	1 (3.4)	2 (6.9)	5 (5.5)
Journalist	1 (3.0)	-	3 (10.3)	4 (4.4)
Any govt. job	6 (18.2)	8 (27.6)	5 (17.2)	19 (20.9)
Total	33 (100.0)	29 (100.0)	29 (100.0)	91 (100.0)

4.7. Post-Graduate Study and Job Oriented Course

Having sought the opinion of students on matters pertaining to higher education and expected careers, it was thought appropriate to find out their views on further education in the form of post-graduate study or they are presently doing any job-oriented course outside their present course of study. In this regard the following two questions are asked:

- (a) Do you want to pursue a Master's degree course? (M.A./ M.Sc./ M. Com.)
- (b) Are you presently doing any job oriented course?

The responses to the above two questions are dealt with in the following paragraphs.

(a) Post-Graduate Study

A course-specific analysis to the question of post-graduate study reveals that a very high proportion of students from science and arts courses intend to undertake a post-graduate study. However, the proportion expressing this desire is higher in the arts

group (nearly 71 percent) than any other groups. The proportion of students stating that they have no intention of going for a post-graduate study is highest for the commerce students (nearly 56.7 percent). In this group, the students who don't want to go for a post-graduate study outnumbered the students who intend to pursue a post-graduate study. Looking at the data in terms of the students' expected career, it was found that a high proportion of students whose expected careers are civil services and academics stated that they have an intention of pursuing a post-graduate study constituting 72.2 percent of the total students who want to do a post-graduate study. It is also not surprising to note that among those students who don't intend to take up post-graduate study, 43.2 percent happen to be from students who want to get any government job.

As far as factors or reasons that limit students' higher education at graduate level is concerned, students' individual thinking that graduate degree is enough for their career chosen forms the highest proportion constituting 48.6 percent. It is followed by financial problems, with 27 percent. Another 24.3 percent of students want to study another unrelated field of study.

(b) Job-oriented course

Out of the total number of students in the sample, only 17.6 percent are enrolled in a job-oriented course outside their present course of study. The courses followed by the students is centred on a single course i.e. diploma or some basic course in computer applications. As cited by the students, the reasons for doing the course are that, today computer knowledge is essential in every field. Having a degree or diploma in computer applications would have an advantage in the job market over the others who are without a degree. Few students cited that they are doing the job-oriented course as a supportive requirement for the career chosen.

To summarize, we can state that the linkage between higher education and career choice is clearly evident. Primarily, the study brought to light the fact that a majority of the students appear to have anticipated at the time of their entry into the college that their higher education would help to better their employment prospects. The students seem to have been influenced by pure academic interest and better employment prospects to choose a particular course of study. Further, the students noted that they could not undertake study in their choice because they did not qualify for it. A related issue is that the guidance for future education and career choices is found to be playing an important

role. In our study, parents, self- interest, friends, brothers/ sisters and teachers formed the motivating agencies for pursuing a course of study or a career choice. Interestingly, a majority of the students stated that they intend to go for academics as their future career choice. The study brought out significant differences in career –choice, in terms of the certain socio-economic variables such as, education and occupation of the father, and the place of residence. There have also been some differences in terms of the course of study they are currently pursuing.

The next Chapter provides the summary and conclusions of the study.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Higher education helps a student in thinking decisively and imbibes a sense of responsibility towards the world around, human values and a searching mind. It plays an important role not only in the progress of education but the overall development of a society. In a way, the growth and status of higher education indicates the level of development of a society. In the modern industrial societies, the occupational choices have widened and certain jobs require specific/specialized knowledge and skills that build on higher education. Higher education, thus, supplies a wide variety of specializations to increasingly sophisticated and ever-changing manpower needed by industry, agriculture, administration and services. Not only it provides the required knowledge and skills, many other qualities can be acquired from higher education that contributes to job success. It is, in this context, the present study is undertaken to understand the relationship between higher education and career choices of the undergraduate students in Manipur. The study tries to understand the linkages between the socio-economic background of the students and their career aspirations in the higher educational institutions.

The study adopted a combination of methods and techniques to gather data and information. These include analysis of the documents, policies and existing literature on the subject and the interview techniques. Sources of data include published and unpublished reports of the College Development Council, Manipur University; University Grants Commission; unpublished dissertations and theses, related to the subject. Interview Schedule is used to collect the primary data from the under-graduate students for collecting the primary data. Second Year students of the major disciplines in the three colleges, namely, D.M.College of Science, D.M.College of Arts and D.M.College of Commerce, formed the sampling frame for the study. In all, 91 students, 44 men and 47 women students are interviewed, nearly 30 students each from each college.

Summary of the findings:

The study substantiates the fact that the socio-economic background of the students exerts profound influence in acquiring higher education. It is found in the present study that the proportion of students whose fathers are educated upto either graduation or post-graduation is as high as about 54 percent. Students whose fathers received no education are least represented among the students. Among the women students, a majority of them are from families where their fathers are either graduates or post-graduates. Almost all of the fathers who are illiterates are those of the men students. In case of mothers' educational level, a high proportion of mothers of men students had no education, while a large number of women students are from families where their mothers are educated upto primary level.

The findings also reveal that the parents in white-collar occupations provide better chances of higher education to their children than those from other occupational backgrounds. A higher proportion of the fathers of men students are from either the professional or the cultivator occupational backgrounds. A majority of the fathers of women students are either from professional or clerical occupational categories. Interestingly, most of the mothers in the sample are housewives. However, some of the students are from families where their mothers are engaged in white-collar occupations. It is also found that a high proportion of parents of the students from the village are in the lower occupational categories. However, parents of the students from the city and town are in higher proportion in the white-collar occupations.

The data on the monthly household income reveals that a majority of students are from the families having monthly household income of less than Rs. 10,000. It is also found that a higher percentage of women than men students are from higher income families. The study shows that the household income of the students and their school background are also closely related in the sense that a high proportion of the students having government school background are from lower income families. Most of the students who studied in the public schools are from well-to-do families.

Further, it is also found that the educational level and occupation of the parents are highly related in the sense that a majority of the fathers holding professional and managerial positions have had graduation and post-graduation level of education. Those who have no

education belong to the occupational category of cultivator and self-employed. It is also noted that the students from higher income families are more represented in science than arts and commerce courses. Thus, it is evident from the discussion that socio-economic background of the students is closely related with their chances of pursuing higher education.

In terms of their continuation for higher education, a majority of the students have anticipated that their higher education would help them to better their employment prospects. This expectation is an important reason mentioned by most students for pursuing higher education. The percentage is higher for women students than that of the men students. It is also found that the good reputation of the college is the most important reason for choosing a particular college by the students, irrespective of their place of residence. However, financial reasons are also found to be playing a vital role for students from the villages than those students from towns and cities in choosing a particular college.

Further, a student may fail to pursue the course of study preferred due to a variety of reasons. An important reason cited by the students is one's failure to qualify or to get through for admission into that course. Inability of the family to finance may also be an important factor in this context. In some cases, the students' preferences may differ from that of the parents/guardians and the latter may become more important in determining the actual course to be taken by the students. The reasons may vary from one case to another. For example, the financial reasons may be more important for students from low-income households compared to those from higher income ones. In the present study, it is found that for all students, irrespective of their course of study, the most important reason for the divergence between the preferred and actual pursued course is not being qualified for the first choice. Besides, it is evident from the data that a variety of other factors also influence a student in choosing a particular course of study. Among them, two most important factors—better employment prospects and pure academic interest are found to be influencing a student to select a particular course of study. Social prestige of the course is found to be not very significant.

It is found that there is a lack of guidance among the students in the selection of their educational choice, which would be related to their career. A majority of the students are

guided by the personal interest in the course in the selection of their educational choice, followed by guidance from parents. Parents, as sources of career guidance, are larger in the case of the women students than the men students. Parental educational and occupational background and students' source of guidance appear to be closely related. For instance, for those students whose fathers had either graduation or post-graduation, parents are the most popular sources of career guidance. Similarly, the fathers who are professionals guided their children in their career planning. In terms of the extent of relationship between the career guidance source and the place of residence, personal interest in the subject is found to be dominating the students from villages than those from the towns and cities. Parents' influence is higher for students from town and city than their village counterparts.

The degree of correspondence between expected career and the course actually taken up do not seem to be good for men students, although it is much better for women students. Course specific analysis shows no marked difference in the distribution. However, among the students who feel that their present course is not related to their expected career, a large percentage of them are from the science stream. A majority of the students, who are still undecided about their future career, are from the commerce and the arts courses.

Academics emerged as the most popular expected career, irrespective of their field of study and place of residence. A significant finding in this regard is that a high proportion of women students preferred academics, business and banking as their future careers than their men counterparts. For men students, civil services, defence services, CA/CS and journalism are preferred as future careers. More men students than women students want to get any government job after completion of their course. Students of the arts stream preferred academics and journalism as their future careers than students of science and commerce streams. The science students mostly preferred civil services, business and defence services than their arts and commerce counterparts. Those who want to get any government job are mostly from the commerce stream.

Data in terms of the rural-urban background reveals that students from the villages preferred academics as their future career than the students from towns and cities. Business and journalism are preferred by those from the city. A majority of the students preferring any government job after graduation is higher for students from town. A high proportion of

students from science and arts courses intend to pursue a post-graduate study. Many of them expressed that they wish to go for civil services and academics. It is also found in this study that a sizeable number of students are doing a computer course besides their present course of study. They believe that in today's society computer knowledge is essential in every field. Having a computer diploma course would eventually help them in getting advantage from others in seeking a job.

Conclusions:

Higher education has expanded rapidly in the last few decades. Major theoretical questions are why and what are the results. Sociologists from two opposing theoretical traditions interpret this expansion of higher education in different ways. According to the functionalist perspective, higher education has developed rapidly for several reasons. Higher education is desirable to help improve individual opportunities. It increases the possibility of equal opportunity by teaching the skills required in a complex technological world and thereby improving an individual's ability to compete and fit into the system in a productive way. Thus, in a functionalist world, the higher education system selects people and allocates to them certain jobs according to their capabilities.

On the other hand, conflict theorists view the growth in higher education as directly related to the changes in the needs of the capitalist system. They believe that higher education, like primary and secondary education, is structured to serve the needs and perpetuate the advantaged position of the elite. Thus, higher education is shaped by society's economic base and, therefore, serves the interest of the ruling class. Just as the secondary school channel students into vocational or academic tracks, so too higher education system can be viewed as a series of tracks. There is a major difference in the occupational status of the student graduating from a college or a technical school compared to that of the elite university. It is difficult, however, to examine the theoretical positions of both functionalists and conflict theorists. Both can account partially for the development of higher education.

Today education at all levels is expected to play a diverse and a crucial role in the socio-cultural and economic development of a country. There is a wide consensus that the education, more importantly, higher education has the task of preparing leaders in different

walks of life-social, intellectual, political, cultural, scientific and technological. It plays a key role in the generation, transfer and application of new knowledge. It produces trained manpower required for industry, agriculture, administration, services and other sectors.

Therefore, the purpose of higher education is not confined to bring about a total development of the individual, physically, intellectually and spiritually. It is also to equip him with the skills necessary for the material well being of him as well as for the socio-cultural and economic development of the society as a whole. Rarely do young people today pursue higher education for its own sake. Even the universities are being increasingly looked upon as places where one could increase one's chances of employability, rather than as fountains of academic excellence (Sanyal, 1987).

In the coming years, the demand of higher education is likely to increase substantially (Power, 1995:118). The basic problem is that of providing adequate opportunities to all young people who would like to have the benefits of higher education, especially professional education. Added to this is the question of maintaining quality that would be globally competitive. To meet the requirements, considerable resources (and planning) will be required. In this respect, the study reinforces the general belief that higher education in the country, in general, and Manipur, in particular, needs to be reformed.

To most of the students in Manipur, higher education means getting a white-collar job. Prospective job seekers find security in the government jobs. Generally, students do seek employment or some form of technical training after completing their higher secondary education. Failing in this effort, they join colleges in the hope that a college degree would help them in obtaining the means of augmenting the family income. Some of the students indicated that they would not have come to the colleges if they had managed to secure employment at the end of their school career. However, government cannot provide jobs to all. Now, the state is no longer the principal employer of the educated youth. The hard reality is that a majority of the employment opportunities are now in the private sector, which requires changes to keep pace with its global competitors. However, in Manipur, there are no private undertakings that can substantially employ educated people. There are a number of dimensions to such a situation. Lack of entrepreneurship among the people is an important one. The failure of the education system to expose and provide the skill necessary to

encourage such private undertakings is one of the causes for this lack of entrepreneurship. Another dimension is related to the socio-economic and political situation of the state (Bhabananda, 2002). When there is no political stability, unrest and economic degradation, no one would want and come forward to take up such undertakings. Thus, there is a high rate of educated unemployment in the state. However, in this study, the students hoped that their higher educational qualifications would eventually help them in getting government jobs.

There is a close relationship between the socio-economic status of a student and his/her attitudes, expectations on higher education and career or occupational choices. Socio-economic background of the students, to some extent, determines the choice of subjects, the level of aspirations and the choice of occupations after the completion of education. The level of aspirations of the students is influenced to a great extent by the education and occupation of their fathers. It is understandable that the children of parents who have been exposed to higher education are better equipped in many ways and are able to give the right advice and guidance regarding their career choices and other aspects of life. The type of occupations chosen by the children tend to be influenced by the parents, particularly, fathers. There is a strong tendency for the children of white-collar workers to inherit their fathers' occupational level or climb above. There is also a considerable difference between students coming from high-income families and those from the low-income families with regard to the careers they chose to enter. The study reinforced these findings in the case of Manipur.

Absence of a counseling cell for students is a hindrance in the higher education system of Manipur. In the present study, a significant proportion of students are still undecided about their future career. These can be correlated to the lack of career guidance or may be because they think that their aim is to get a graduate qualification and after that any government job. Guidance and counseling to individual students through the involvement of faculty and senior teachers and departmental orientation is a must. This should be one of the most important organs of higher educational institutions. This will certainly help a student's journey to his/ her destination. Besides solving the problem of students in general, it can help in solving their personal problems too. Most of the students continue their study without a defined aim or purpose. They just follow a trend, regardless of their skill, capability and creativity. This has led to the alienation of the students from what they are learning.

Therefore, the most urgent need of the hour is to bring about a fundamental transformation in the attitudes and conduct of students, parents, and teachers as well as the college administrators. Parents and teachers should also be the effective and motivating forces of the students. The government has to play a crucial role in bridging the gap between the higher educational sector and the actual career planning. There is also a need for bringing about fundamental changes in the higher educational system in order to make it more responsible to the needs of the society.

The present study tried to understand the above mentioned dimensions through a micro- level study. This kind of a study has certain limitations. For instance, the findings of the study may not be applicable to a larger population. But the study took care of the socio-cultural profile of the sample of students included in the study. It may, to some extent, rectify the problem of the small size of the sample and may explain the general trends in the Manipur higher educational system. Yet another limitation is that the study could have included the technical and professional institutions as well under its ambit so that a comparison of attitudes, expectations and socio-economic backgrounds would have been possible between the general as well as the professional educational institutions. The third limitation is that the study could have included interaction with the employers, namely, the government and the private sectors, in order to understand the other side of the perspective. Particularly, it would have enriched an understanding of the career- offering and career-seeking segments of the society. It would also have explained the interaction among the industry, government, society and higher education in the State. Many of these areas could possibly be identified as future areas of research in the sociology of education in India.

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APPENDIX

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (STUDENTS)

PART-A PRELIMINARY INFORMATION

1. Name: -
2. Age: -
3. Sex: -
4. Course of study: - B. A. / B. Sc. / B. Com.
5. Year of study: -I / II /III
6. Total no. of siblings at home: -
7. No. of brothers: -
8. No. of sisters: -
9. Position in the family: -
10. How many siblings in the family completed – (i) school education-
(ii) college education-
7. Did anybody in family study in this college?

PART-B SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

1. Residence- Village/ Town/ City
2. Caste/Tribe (specify) –
3. Where did you study your secondary (10+2)?

(a) (i) Public School (ii) Private School (iii) Govt. School	(b) (i) Village (ii) Town (iii) City
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4. Father's education: -
5. Mother's education
6. Father's occupation
7. Mother's occupation: -
8. Family income: -
9. Source of finance of the present education: -Govt. Scholarship/ Family/ Own effort (employment, savings etc.), Any other source.

PART-C ATTITUDES, EXPECTATIONS AND CAREER-CHOICES

1. (a) Was the choice of continuing your education beyond (10+2) is yours? Yes/ No.
(b) If no, why not?
2. (a) Was this college your first choice? (Yes/ No).
(b) If yes, why?
(c) If no, where did you want to study?
3. (a) Was your present course of study, your first choice? (Yes/No)
(b) If no, what was your first choice?
4. (a) Who influenced you in choosing a particular course study?
(b) What was their reasoning for that?
- 5.(a) Would you like to make a career in the field related to your present course of study? (Yes/No).
6. (a) What do you think are your possible areas of future career?

(b) Please rank following career choices according to your preference-

- (i) Civil Service
- (ii) Academics
- (iii) Business
- (iv) Journalism
- (v) Any other (specify).

7. Do you think your present course is leading you towards the goal of realising the career choice?

8. Do you want to pursue (study) a Master's Degree Course (M. A. / M. Sc./ M. Com.)

9. (a) Are you presently doing any job-oriented course?

(b) If yes, please name the course of study you are doing.

(c) Why do you want to do this course?

