CONCLUSION
AND
SUGGESTION
It is now being increasingly realized by demographic analysts and policy makers that; on one hand, the world is being characterised by persons of higher and higher specializations; and on the other; urbanization, increasing economic burden, breakdown of joint family system, migration and loss of traditional values have influenced the life style of the average Indian woman.

Education has been a means of personal growth and emancipation for women and for many, a motivational force changing them into agents of social change.

This study was undertaken to find the relationship between education and social mobility among working women. Qualitative as well as quantitative analysis was done in accordance with the need of the obtained data.

A modernization inventory and rigidity scale was used to measure modernization and rigidity, respectively. Social mobility was assessed with the help of content analysis of a self-made questionnaire. The facts brought to light by the above tools about the variables are presented as under-

5.1 FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

On the basis of the study, the following findings are drawn-
5.1.1 SOCIO-CULTURAL BACKGROUND

1. There is a relationship between caste and educational attainment of women. Women of higher castes show higher educational attainments than women of lower castes.

2. 36% of respondents originate from small cities and 19% from large cities. Only illiterates and women with low levels of education come from remote villages. Educational attainment was thus, found to be related to place of origin.

3. Education influences employment. Monthly income tends to rise with increase in educational attainment.

5.1.2 EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND AND RELATED VARIABLES

1. Mothers of respondents with high educational attainments have better educational attainments than mothers of respondents with low levels of education.

2. Respondents with high education (above intermediate) were more upwardly mobile than respondents with education below intermediate.

3. All respondents aspire to educate their children surpassing their own levels. 44% aspire their daughters to attain graduation, while 45% aspire their sons to be post-graduates.

4. The discrimination in educational aspirations for sons and daughters reduces with increase in respondents' education.
5. 49% respondents' have attended government schools, 11.6% private schools, 11% convents and only 1.4% public schools. The higher the educational attainment, the better the schooling the respondents had received.

6. 38% of respondents' children attend government schools, 35% convents, 22% private, 2.9% municipal schools. Higher the respondents' education, better the schooling provided by them for their children.

7. No significant difference was found between type of schools attended by sons and those attended by daughters of respondents.

5.1.3 OCCUPATIONAL BACKGROUND AND OTHER VARIABLES

1. 37% women perform low rank jobs and 34.3% middle rank jobs. 16.5% respondents were engaged in manual jobs and 6.9% worked in high status jobs. 3.4% do independent practice and 1.4% run family business.

2. Women with no or lower educational attainments (upto intermediate) hold low rank jobs in comparison to respondents' with higher educational attainments.

3. All working women show upward mobility with respect to occupation, as 72% of their mothers were housewives, 10.7% did manual work and 7.5% were engaged in low rank jobs.
4. Respondents with higher education (above intermediate) were more upwardly occupationally mobile than respondents with education below intermediate.

5. 30.5% respondents aspire their daughters to be housewives, 17% aspire daughters to perform low status jobs, while 25.8% opt for high status jobs and 18.6% for middle rank jobs.

6. 35.17% respondents aspire their sons to take up middle rank jobs, 32.5% opt for high status jobs, 9.5% aspire their sons to do low status jobs while 14.8% opt for independent practice by sons.

7. The discrimination between occupational aspirations for sons and daughters reduces with increase in educational attainment of respondents.

8. 44% women work due to financial reasons, 22.6% due to own desire, 17% to use acquired qualifications, 9.8% due to in-law's demands and 5.8% as a result of spouse's motivation. Higher the educational attainment, greater is the tendency to work due to own desire or to use qualifications.

9. Level of satisfaction with respect to income, clients and conditions at place of work increases with increase in educational level of respondents.
10. Women with higher education are more mobile in admitting larger cities as place of work as compared to women with lower levels of education.

11. 36% respondents acquired their jobs by self-efforts, 26% by friends' influence, 18% applied to advertisement, 15% had to undergo competition and 3.7% were invited to join. The more the education, the more was the tendency to acquire jobs by competition and application against advertisement.

5.1.4 MARRIAGE AND RELATED VARIABLES

1. 34.5% of respondents' mothers were married below 18 years of age, 39.5% at 18-19 years and 19.7% at 20-21 years of age. 25% respondents were married at 18-19 years, 25% at 20-21 years and 25% at 22-23 years of age 13% constitute the 24-25 age range for marriage and 4.6% constitute the 26+ years age of marriage.

2. Increase in educational attainment increase the respondents' age of marriage.

3. Aspirations with respect to age of marriage for daughters show an increasing trend with increase in educational attainment of women. 13% women with education upto intermediate favour 22-23 years for marriage of daughters while 13.9% women with higher education aspire for daughters' marriage at 24-25 years.
4. Favourability towards arranged marriage reduces with increase in educational attainment.

5. 10.4% of illiterate respondents and 11.6% respondents with education up to intermediate fully disagree to inter-caste marriage in general and with reference to own sons and daughters, as compared to women with higher education, 11.3% of whom favour inter-caste marriage in general and 10.46% for children.

6. Increase in educational attainment of respondents' increases favourability towards the importance of role of boy/girl in marriage.

7. Favourable attitude towards dowry was found among 19% of respondents with education up to intermediate and illiterates, 40% of respondents pertaining to higher levels of education disfavoured dowry system.

5.1.5 SOCIAL PARTICIPATION

1. Subsequent increase in educational attainment of working women leads to increase in social participation as members of social groups.

2. A distinct difference was found between the social groups attended by women with differing levels of educational attainment.
5.1.6 RELIGION, VISIT TO PLACE OF WORSHIP

1. 42% respondents were occasional visitors to place of worship, 28% were regular visitors/worshipers with 19% contained in illiterate group and education upto intermediate.

5.1.7 SELF-ANALYSIS

1. 45% women state that they have enhanced to some extent, the status of their family in society; that their status had improved at home as well as in their society due to working.

2. The higher the level of education, the more was the perception of self as a constructive contributor to the home and society.

5.1.8 MODERNIZATION

1. There exist significant differences among the means of modernization scores of groups belonging to different educational levels.

2. Illiterate respondents were found to be the least modernized.

3. No significant difference was found between mean modernization scores of respondents' with high school education and education upto intermediate.

4. Significant differences were found between modernization scores of -
a) High school respondents and graduate and post-graduate respondents.
b) Intermediate passed respondents and graduate and post-graduates.
c) Respondents with professional qualification after high school or intermediate and all other groups of women with higher professional qualifications.
d) Respondents with graduate/post-graduate professional degree and all other groups with some professional education.
e) High school group and all other groups with some kind of professional education.
f) Intermediate and professional qualification higher than qualification after intermediate.
g) Graduate and post graduate general education and PhDs.
h) Graduate and post graduate general education and graduate and post graduate professional degree.
5. No significant differences were found between modernization scores of respondents' with-
a) professional qualification after graduation and professional degree at undergraduate level.
b) undergraduate professional education (B.Ed.) and Ph.D. (college and Univ. teachers).
c) general education upto intermediate and professional qualification after high school/intermediate.
d) graduate and post-graduate general education and undergraduate professional education (B.Ed.) and also with respondents with professional qualification after graduation.

6. Among groups with general education alone, graduates and post graduates were found to be the most modernized.

7. Among groups with professional education, respondents' with graduate and post-graduate professional qualification were the most modernized.

8. Significant difference was found between mean modernization scores of women with general education alone and those with some kind of professional qualifications. The latter were more modernized than the former.

9. Respondents with graduate and post-graduate professional education, scored highest on mean modernization scores.

5.1.9 RIGIDITY

1. There exist significant differences among the means of rigidity scores of groups belonging to different educational levels.

2. Illiterates and respondents' educated upto high school were found to be most rigid.
3. No significant difference was found between mean rigidity scores of illiterates and respondents' educated upto high school.

4. Significant differences were found between rigidity scores of respondents' with-
   a) High school education and intermediate education
   b) Intermediate education and graduate and post-graduate education.
   c) Professional qualification after high school or intermediate and all other groups of women with higher professional qualifications.
   d) Graduate and post-graduate professional degree and all other groups with professional education.
   e) High school and all other groups with some kind of professional education.
   f) Intermediate and professional qualification higher than qualification after intermediate.
   g) Graduate and post graduate general education and PhDs.
   h) Graduate and post graduate general education and graduate and post graduate professional degree.

5. No significant differences were found among mean rigidity scores of respondents with-
   a) Professional qualification after graduation and professional degree at undergraduate level (B.Ed.).
   b) Professional qualification after graduation and PhD's.
c) Undergraduate professional education (B.Ed.) and PhD (college and university teachers).


d) General education upto intermediate and professional qualification after high school/intermediate.


6. Among groups with general education alone, graduates and post graduates were found to be the least rigid.

7. Among groups with professional education respondents' with graduate and post-graduate professional qualifications were least rigid.

8. Significant difference was found between mean rigidity scores of the group with general education alone and the group with professional qualifications. The latter were less rigid than the former.

9. Respondents' with graduate and post-graduate professional qualifications scored lowest on rigidity scale.

5.2 CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

5.2.1 SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

The present study endorses that Indian society has shown very little flexibility in admitting women into the field of education. Lower caste women were found to have attained lower levels of education than higher caste women. The decided role of caste in the educational attainment of women was revealed.
This persistence of the divide between the dominant and the labouring strata, preventing the latter's mobility was also found by Jayaram (1977) who surveyed 344 randomly selected students in the four most prestigious institutions in Bangalore that pave the way to 'higher professional and administrative careers'. 60% of them were brahmins, 34% other upper castes and only 4% belonged to lower castes. Pandey (1988) also found that among low caste persons, majority of them have educational qualification upto high school and intermediate level and only a small percentage of them have graduate and professional degrees. Navlakha (1989) revealed that among the elite groups, most respondents' hailed from Brahmins, Kshatriya, Vaishya and Kayastha caste strata which forms nearly two-thirds of the Hindu society.

In general low-castes have been exploited and not been given due opportunities to come up. But, unfortunately, in all castes women's education has not been given due emphasis, wherein in low castes it has been totally neglected.

The other finding that women with less educational attainment originate from villages or backward areas, may be attributed to the fact that higher educational opportunities are unavailable in rural areas. Thus, they may have come from villages to the city in search of occupation or to gain access to educational facilities available here.
Among women, one of the reasons may be their marriage in an urban area.

In one of the studies conducted in Kumaon by Uniyal and Shah (1980), it was found that the rate of unemployment and migration has abruptly increased along with the increase in education. Azam (1985) considered the variables of religious devotion and rural origins and analyzed the negative effect of upward social mobility. He found that all SS showed signs of upward mobility via education or vocation Kurian (1993) in a qualitative study of the variation in patterns of social change in Kerala found that ethnicity is an interacting nexus of factors such as religion, income, occupation, education and family structure.

Education bears a positive relation with migration from rural to urban areas. On one hand, education motivates an individual to move to urban areas. Formal education produces certain kinds of occupational competence, expectations and aspirations which villages are not geared to provide for; On the other, for higher education, people leave their villages and move to cities. Thus, Duncan (1975) rightly deplores that higher education in India has an urbanising influence.

Education also has the potential to make an individual productive. The extent of productivity in terms of monetary gains is inevitably controlled by the level of education and competence acquired by an individual. Women's education, too
undoubtedly, contributes to making a woman independent and economically self-reliant through her occupation. Results of the present study confirm that higher the educational attainment, more is the income of women. Education, thus, also determines the occupation, thereby the income.

In the context, studies by Singh J. (1978) support that educational level was positively related to income. Showeb (1986) in a study on harijans found that there is considerable variation in the income status of the respondents in the employment sector which is not only a reflection of their deferential job placement but also an indicator of their differential educational status.

5.2.2 EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND & RELATED VARIABLES

The process contributing to the formation of an educated working woman is strongly linked to early socialization and maternal nurturance. Mother's education was found to have a strong bearing on the role of daughters in future. With every subsequent increase in mother's education, daughter's education also showed an increasing trend. Women with low educational attainment portray low mobility rates with respect to educational attainment of their respective mothers than women with higher levels of educational attainment.

Thus, education is necessarily conducive to upward mobility among women. This assertion is invariably supported
by the revelation that while all women aspire to educate their children with levels surpassing their own, the evident discrimination between educational aspirations for sons than for daughters reduces with increase in their own educational attainment.

Inherited inhibitions are thus removed by higher education. Better schooling also results into social awareness and independent thinking.

Downward mobility among uneducated and low educated women with respect to educational mobility may be attributed to socio-economic conditions or unconducive circumstances in their families. As their mothers were also found to have attained very low levels of education, traditional modes may have suppressed them and they may not found expression in the overpowering conservative society.

However, overall mobility has been found by many other studies. Showeb (1986) found that the literacy level of the Harijan community has been lowest in the case of Harijan women. While in the case of respondents pursuing the traditional occupations, all mothers were found to be illiterate, among employed Harijans, 82% mothers were illiterate. Discriminative attitude towards sons' education and daughter's education was revealed as only 14.66% families contained boys and girls; of which all were receiving education, in 6% families all boys and some girls
while in 35.33% only boys were receiving education. Reduction in this discrimination was found with increase in education of the respondents. Sarkar and Mukhopadhyay (1980) examined the educational mobility among the females irrespective of caste/religion. About 16% of females of age 15 and above exhibit upward literacy status mobility in relation to their mothers. Higginbotham and Weber (1992) in examining the experience of upward mobility for professional/managerial women, found that more mobile SS had parents who never expected them to achieve a college education and financial support for college attendance than subjects who came from middle class families. Overall results suggest a mobility process motivated by a desire for both personal and collective gain and that is shaped by interpersonal commitments to family, partners, children, communities and race.

In addition to this, findings illustrate that women with higher levels of education have attended better schools than women with low educational attainments. Sons and daughters of women with more education attend better schools than children of women with low levels of educational attainment.

Thompson (1971) rightly advocates that parental mobility values for the son may indirectly play a rather major role through their relationship to type of schools
attended. Jindal (1981) also established that the parent's English-medium schooling was positively related to student's modernity scores.

Both education and mode of acquiring education, influence mobility among women. The present survey is evidential of the very fact that while formal modes of education are successful in training both mind and body; communication and interaction in an educative environment also fosters development of women. The fact that higher education initiates a differential quality in women and shapes their aspirations with respect to education of children.

5.2.3 OCCUPATIONAL BACKGROUND AND RELATED VARIABLES

The changing roles of women in tradition ridden society are obvious from obtained results. Upward occupational mobility is observed in all women as most of them constituted of mothers who were housewives. While the traditional role for daughters i.e. a housewife was supported by most women, it was revealed that most of these women comprise low educated respondents. Increase in mother's education led to higher aspirations for daughters. Sons are expected to take up high status jobs by all women.

However, it is interesting to note that women with higher education support independent practice for both sons and daughters, thus laying emphasis on personal development.
and confidence among them. Lipset and Bendix (1963) hold the view that, the importance of family background for the education and careers of our respondents are seen. When we compare respondents whose educational attainments were same, but whose family backgrounds differ, we find that the sons of manual workers most often enter the labour market in manual jobs, while the sons of non-manual workers usually enter the labour market in non-manual jobs. Only college education enables manual-worker's sons to enter the labour market in a middle class occupation. In connection to this, Klemmack and Edwards (1973) assert that in addition to the effects on occupational aspirations of family status as it is commonly measured, mother's employment is a theoretically significant variable. Employed mothers who work by choice, the typical situation in the middle class, present a role model for their children and are more likely to train their offspring for independence, thus enhancing the probabilities that female children will themselves seek gainful employment. Hayes (1990) examined female intergenerational occupational mobility in Australia and concluded that daughters inherit the class location of their mothers.

Financial reasons were found to be the most responsible for admitting women into the work place. Educational attainment was also found responsible in making a woman more mobile with respect to admitting larger cities as place of
Nelson (1990) found that politics and lack of career progress were associated with greater strain symptoms and reduced satisfaction. Thus, the role of education cannot be overlooked in this context.

5.2.4 AGE OF MARRIAGE

Occupational aspirations of a female are essentially directed by her age of marriage. The observed trend is on an increasing plane with respect to age of marriage; from mothers to daughters. Upward mobility was perceived as respondent's age of marriage ranged on an average 20-21 years, while their mothers' ranged about 18-19 years. Acquired results maintain the deduction that increase in educational attainment leads to a rise in age of marriage among women.

Education expounds aspirations and determines occupational competence. Thus, career-mindedness gains more importance in comparison to marriage among women. Thus, in case of women with college education and those with some kind of professional qualification, greater variance is exhibited and a upward movement towards higher marriage age is found from mothers' to daughters'. Klemmack and Edwards (1973) hypothesize that the lower the age of anticipated marriage, the more likely a women is to aspire for a stereotypically feminine occupation.
Anticipated age of marriage for daughters of respondents is largely influenced by the respondents' own education. Subsequent increase in educational attainment of mothers leads to a rise in anticipated age of marriage for daughters. Singh (1974) studied the trend of marriage age in three generations and attitude towards women's age at marriage in general and actual age at marriage they married their daughters. It was found that age of marriage was closely linked with higher education. Brinton et al. (1995) studied the phenomenon of secular change in married women's employment in industrializing countries and found that a parallel rise in marriage age provided more opportunities for women to accumulate work experience before marriage in both countries and a shortened child bearing period made it possible for women to return to work sooner.

Structural changes in society and attitudes towards variables concerned with marriage are unquestionably governed by education of women. Women with higher educational attainments are more in favour of inter-caste marriage and give due importance to the role played by boy/girl in marriage as compared to illiterate or women with low educational attainment. The same trend is visible in case of attitude towards dowry.

Helena (1973) revealed that as a result of higher education, women are more likely to experience and undertake
identity reformation in marriage and widowhood. Upadhyay (1989) investigated that there is a significant difference among different educated groups regarding necessity of marriage rituals. The higher the level of education the lesser is the necessity shown to observe these rituals. With the increase in educational status the respondents favouring the necessity of horoscope matching for marriage is found to be decreasing. The study also revealed that age of girls at marriage has gone up with rise of education.

Kapur (1973) however proclaims that educated working women are ambivalent in their attitudes. They have started recognizing the need for change but at the same time they continue to cling to the old values because they are brought up with them. Education invariably extenuates a woman's ability to be able to express her attitudes and put them into practice. Thus women with higher levels of education exhibit a view to allow for inter-caste and self-arranged marriage for their own sons and daughters in practice too.

5.2.5 SOCIAL PARTICIPATION

Participation of women in public programmes is directly related with their age, income and education (Cotherman, 1977). The present study also upholds the view that education not only makes allowance for social participation for women, but also decides the nature of social group, a women enters into interaction with.
Women with no education were found to contain in religious groups, which may be a means of security for them. Women educated upto Intermediate level were members of trade unions on an average, while higher levels of educational attainments, made women members of clubs and associations, on an average. Thus, it may be assertively emphasized that education is a means of class upliftment and it provides for more interaction among elite class for women.

Similar findings have been illustrated by Groffimann, et al (1976) who found that participation in various social, political, cultural and educative activities is correlated with the level of education and type of education. Recently, Evans and Sariva (1990) worked on brazilian women and obtained results that education expands women's market work opportunities. In general labour force participation rises with each level of education although the increases are largest at the higher levels. Brinton et al. (1995) are also of the view that rising educational attainments also provided the conditions for an increase in woman's labour force participation. Thus, participation at work place, also instill confidence into women to be participative members in society and social activities.

5.2.6 VISIT TO PLACE OF WORSHIP

The point of focus in questioning as to how often one visits her place of worship was to judge her religiosity and
faith in religion. Examination to this effect revealed decline in frequency of visit to place to worship with increase in educational attainment of women Timothy (1972) also reveals that education increases tolerance while faith in religion decreases this tolerance. Cook and Cook (1967), Daniel and Victor (1973), Jackson (1973) and Marlene (1974) reveal the relationship of education with beliefs and prejudices. It has been found that declining religious faith and moral conviction were deeply associated with higher education.

However, Indian women have been socialized to be bearers of tradition and religion since ages, hence the present study portrays that all respondents were invariably theistic, but higher education made them do away with all kinds of unwarranted conservation. Besides, lack of time due to dual responsibility; at home and at place of work has made them busy. Deductions can therefore be derived in the light of a current study; by Boltz (1992) who examined the persistent challenges in the lives of three generations of women and their approach to respond to them. Data indicated similar approach to meeting challenges showing that religiosity strongly transfers from generation to generation; hence the incoming generations of women with educated working mothers will inherit the found attitudes towards religion and essentially contribute to modernization.
of women, doing away with beliefs and superstitions in the name of religion.

5.2.7 SELF ANALYSIS

The self-portrayal of a woman as a contributory member of her family and society is decidedly controlled and directed by her educational status. The accepted fact that though a woman may be economically independent, she still survives as a secondary human being, primary, being the man of the house is now changing. It was observed that women with higher educational attainment perceive their contribution to the family and society as important in comparison to women with low educational attainments. Santha (1986) investigated that women had a more positive attitude towards their own role in the cultural sphere and educational sphere. In the social sphere, women graduates had a more significantly positive attitude than women non-graduates. Lenon, M.C. (1994) states that employed wives appeared to benefit from having less routinized work than home makers while Lobel et al. (1993) in a comparison between career and non-career who did not study beyond high school and worked in non-professional jobs women on several psychological characteristics found that career women (who studied beyond high school and worked in their profession) attributed to themselves more instrumental characteristics, were found to be more independent and emotionally stable and
had a higher need for achievement and a higher academic and social esteem.

Women, if provided education cannot only perform participatory roles at home or in society, but display themselves as contributors to national development as a whole. Mishra (1988) in his studies emphasized participatory role of women in various phases of policy formation. He gave a simple logic to prove his point that women are in constant touch with basic needs and requirements so that potential for the efficacy of plans must be utilized. Besides women also encompass managerial qualities as they work in regular portions of a household—a provider in home.

5.2.8 MODERNIZATION AND RIGIDITY

Assessment of modernization and flexibility among working women reveals significant differences between modernization and rigidity among women with general education and women with some kind of professional qualifications. Professionally qualified women were found to be more modernized and less rigid than women with general education alone. This may be attributed to the nature of occupation which determines interaction of these women with society. Basaiawmoit (1987) investigated differences in attitudes towards the matrilineal system among women belonging to different professions; and with different levels of education. The major conclusions were that
education and professional status determined prevalent traditional attitudes, beliefs, customs, etc.

Relative increase in modernization scores and decrease in rigidity scores of working women was observed with every subsequent increase in their educational attainment. However, it is interesting to note that no significant differences were found with respect to mean scores between intermediate level respondents and professional qualification after intermediate, graduate level respondents and undergraduate professional education level respondents'.

Invariably, findings suggest that for modernizing and making a woman more flexible, it is essential to provide for education; but just by making her occupational by competent at a lower level of general education, modernization and rigidity level will not be enhanced. Only after higher education; i.e. graduation and post-graduation levels, professional qualification, i.e. Ph.D. or graduate and post-graduate professional qualification will lead to accentuation in modernization and flexibility among women.

Desai (1984) investigated that among college-going girls, scores on the overall modernity scale showed that the respondents had appreciably moved towards modern attitudes, values and behaviour patterns. On the whole, various spheres of preferences and participation in different types of activities reflected changing roles presumably due to
higher education and urbanization. Khatun (1986) examined the effect of education on psycho-social modernity and found that education affected modernity. The differences were found to be statistically significant in case of attitudes, beliefs and behaviour pattern of educated people as compared with those of uneducated people.

Clark (1992) found that modernization was associated with economic development in professional and technical occupations. Education thus brings modernity, modernity brings development and helps a women to adjust to the existing scenario. This adjustment brings about self-sufficiency. Self-sufficiency reduces rigidity. Ansari (1974) studied the typical behaviour of rigid and non-rigid persons of Agra district and the relationship between rigidity and other personality traits. A negative correlation was found between rigidity and self-sufficiency. Bakht (1992) also found that rigidity was negatively correlated with self-sufficiency.

Thus, the facts that modern education contributes to making a women more modernized in attitude and less rigid with lower resistance to change are confirmed in the present study. Even minimum education produces differences in modernization, while only education upto Intermediate level removes inhibitions and longheld views which stagnate the society and hinder personal development.
In consummation, the findings of the present study lead us to deduce that not only should primary education be emphasized for women, but education, at least up to intermediate level should be provided to them to transform the entire society in reality.

The gulf between highly educated women and illiterate women is profound, they both live in their self-perpetuating closed worlds. An awareness needs to be created, achievable only through education. The crucial role of an educated mother in the home and an educated working woman at her workplace as revealed. Thus, education for women needs emphasis.

5.3 IMPLICATIONS

Evidence indicates that educational attainment of women is a major determinant of career patterns, a fact which provides the strongest and most direct statistical link between family background and the assets and liabilities with which a woman enters the workplace.

Education, despite being proclaimed a foremost dissolver of social barriers and promoter of mobility and equality, the inadequacy of the social structure in providing equal status to its women is evident. Attention needs to be paid to this section of our society.

A woman occupies the core of a family. She bears children and socializes them too. The family background and
environment is directly or indirectly directed and controlled by the woman of the family. An educated mother can shape and transform the entire influx of incoming generations in the family. Lipset and Bendix state, "the importance of family background for the education and the careers of youth is seen in the characteristic cumulation of advantages or disadvantages. Vocational advice from many sources is more often given to those individuals whose families can afford to keep them in school. It also seems to be more realistic and helpful than the advice given to the these and other background factors may be discerned in an individual's choice of his first job."

Occupational status is also seen to be transferred from father's generation to sons' generation. Keshav C. Kaistha (1987) asserts, 'Family organisation is an important variable to study intergenerational mobility, which reflects on the occupational status in the fathers' generation and that of sons' generation. Strong familial bonds and notions of family prestige may affect the choice of occupation of the members of the family over time.'

Siegal et al. (1963) found that daughters of employed mothers are more self-reliant, aggressive and dominant. Rodgon and Graleswski (1979) investigated that employed mothers who worked full-time were less traditional in their attitudes towards child-rearing. Yubarak et al. (1990) in a
study on women in Pakistan revealed that working Ss families had significantly higher immunization rates and shorter duration of illness, compared with non-working Ss. More working Ss supported contraception, desired equal education for sons and daughters, and had a dominant role in family health decision making. Sasso (1991) explored that working women of homemaking mothers identify with their mothers in both, their own functional approach to and rationally oriented attitudes towards work. Bailey (1994) asserts that maternal employment plays a significant role in determining parental involvement with children.

Thus, the trenchant role of education and employment in raising a woman's status in society is revealed. They essentially play an important role in the mobility process among women.

Education not only leads to endorsement of self-advancement, irrespective of social origins for the successfully upwardly mobile woman, but other benefits that arise from higher education are social approval and enhanced material well-being. Nathawat & Mathur (1993) in a comparison between housewives and working women indicate significant better marital adjustment and subjective well being for Ss working outside the home. Working Ss reported higher scores on general health, life satisfaction and self-esteem measures and lower scores on hopelessness.
insecurity and anxiety.

Results imply that traditional beliefs, attitudes and value-structure are imbibed in women due to early socialization. The only way to modernize the woman of today is through education. Higher education and professional competence leads to the formation of a woman who is receptive to changes and who modifies her activities in order to adjust in accordance with the needs of the society.

Ashford (1990) proclaims that even if the mobility process remains potentially stressful, the compensation of status, financial security, confidence and competence may cushion its less desirable consequences with the result that the experience is generally beneficial to self-esteem. Given a sympathetic climate, individual ambition ought to be reinforced by the esteem in which a person is held by others. Only education can provide this financial security, confidence and competence for women in India.

To conclude in the words of Vimla Mehta (1979) 'Education for women means education for nation.' The basic quality of women's education should be 'intellectual dynamism' which finally results into 'national dynamism.'

5.4 SUGGESTIONS TO SOCIAL WORKERS, EDUCATORS AND POLICY MAKERS

The bulk of Indian women are deprived of their status mainly because majority of them are devoid of education,
even of the elements of literacy and of gainful employment. That is why we see around us more cases of suicide among women than among men, torture of the in-laws upon the daughters-in-law, lower facilities for girls and women within the household, the burden of domestic work upon women, inequality and discrimination in the labour market as well as in all other spheres of life.

The National Perspective Plan for women (1988-2000 AD) explains that as there is a direct correlation between education and employment, female education needs to be expanded with special emphasis on rural area. Earning, working and living should be an integral part of the education scheme, so that each acquires meaning only when fully correlated with the others. The integrated plan will cover the development of vocational education among women to improve earning capacity, education in health, nutrition and family planning and legal education to improve understanding of their rights and socio-economic status. For this the non-formal system will be more relevant and an acceptable means of learning.

Report of the National Workshop, World University Service, 1989 states, 'It is only lately that we have realised how women's illiteracy itself is based more on the discriminatory attitudes and gender based values of the society rather than on mere economic and infrastructural
factors'. "Since education plays an important role in securing employment, social attitudes and outlook towards the education of females should be radically changed along with institutional and structural changes", says Bina Sharma (1991).

Pradhan (1995) says, 'considering the objectives of 'empowerment of women' as mentioned in POA-1992, the role of education can be visualized in two ways; first, by educating the future generation with redesigned curricular which need to be free from any sort of 'gender bias' and 'sex-stereotyping' and equipped with new values of gender equality at all levels of formal education. Second, by designing programmes for the masses through appropriate non-formal education channels.'

McDaniel (1993) in research on women and stress suggests that working women generally enjoy better health than women who work at home, although working women do experience stress stemming from lower pay, less job security, lesser mobility prospects, pressures of combining work and home responsibilities and sexual harassment. Some companies in the U.S. and Canada are trying to improve overall job-related social support by developing employee assistance programmes (EAPS) offering assistance in areas including career and marital counselling and substance abuse.
Any improvement in these directions would not only improve the existing situations in India but also help to promote necessary changes in the attitude of men towards employment of women as well as in the attitude of women themselves towards their participation in employment.

Ellis (1992) suggests that if psychotherapists will be scientific (as well as artistic) they can help clients change their basic philosophies and behaviours. Norcross (1992) also claims that psychotherapy to provides relief from neurotic suffering, instillation of hope and optimism, facility with emotional processes, development of coping and self-change skills, improvement in interpersonal relationships, empowerment to pursue favoured social changes, etc. in short, these socially sanctioned healers are invariably social change agents.

Thus, policy makers, educators, psychotherapists and social workers can all enhance social mobility among women, so that no infant, girl child or woman is nipped in the bud of her talent and aptitude.

5.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The extent to which the results of the present study can be generalised depend on the extent to which the study has been specified and the extent to which those populations have been represented in the study.
a. The size of the sample is not adequate for a field
survey of working woman.

b. In this study the rural population failed to have place in the sample. Therefore the generalisation of the results is limited only to the urban population.

c. A more statistical study could have been performed if certain variables like socio-economic status and intelligence would have been controlled.

d. The present study has not been able to cover the entire field in psychological aspects and this depicting the vivid picture related to the theme.

5.6 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCHES

a. The sample taken was small. A larger sample may be taken and studied.

b. Mobility among working women may be assessed with respect to child-rearing practices, patterns of migration and educational expansion.

c. Longitudinal studies may also be carried out to highlight the role of education on the socio-psychological pattern of working women's lives.

d. Mobility among working and non-working women with same levels of education may be compared.