A variety of work patterns are found with regard to women's participation in the world of work. Cultural differences seem to influence the pattern of participation of women in the labour market in different countries. The cultural influences seem to be operated by attitudes motivation and personality of the individual women. The influences contributing to women's participation in the labour force include the forces of socialization at work in the developmental stages. The literature on the pattern of women's participation in the work force and the factors that influence the pattern are reviewed in the following pages.

A review of status of American women for 50 years in 1970 shows that major elements affecting the work pattern of women remain to be marital status, presence and age of children, family income, race, education, and job satisfaction (Waldmen, 1970). Being married and having preschool children were reported to be the major reasons stated for nonparticipation in the labour force by American women with doctorates (Astin, 1967). Most women in Poland and Czechoslovakia opine that health and raising children do not permit them to work. Employed women in the
countries cited are satisfied with their work and are more active in political and public life than non-working women. Most women referred to prefer no more two children under any circumstances (Prokopec, 1965). Many Danish women regard their work as extension of their house work (Lundin, 1966). The same tendency is reported among African women, Austrian women (Rosenmüller, 1962 and Bay, 1982). The major obstacle to improve the integration of French women into work force is said to be the lack of child care services (Machel, 1966).

Interestingly, one half of women in the labour market has been found to have reported that they would work even if they did not need the money. For both husbands and wives and for all social levels and stages in the life cycle, marital adjustment was significantly better when the wife was free to choose between the labour market and the home than when she was in the labour market out of economic necessity. Part-time employment is more favourable to marriage adjustment than either the home choice or full-time employment (Ordeh, 1968).

American women report scarcity of domestic help and employer discrimination as the most prevalent obstacles to their career development (Astin, 1969).
Female medical students most frequently mention 'encouragement from others' as reason for attending the medical school (Cartwright, 1972). No single motive is endorsed by all the subjects for going to the profession. Other conscious reasons for going to the profession include long standing interest, self-development motives and altruism.

Another review suggests that among the primary links between sex-role and occupational entry are the intention to marry, time of marriage, reasons for marriage, and the husband's economic situation and attitude towards his wife's working. The pattern of occupational participation and level at which the occupational system is entered are also strongly affected by the state of finances of the family of origin, since occupational roles vary in length and expense involved in requisite training and in the immediacy of financial return to the trainee (Psathas, 1968).

Religious ideologies influence female role pattern among Israeli born immigrant girls of 10th to 12th grades. More girls raised in extremely orthodox families following Judaism express a positive interest toward nursing. They also select elementary school teaching as first choice in choosing occupations. They are less interested in work after marriage and show a greater tendency to identify
with their mothers or other female figure. It is also revealed that the Israeli born girls appear to be better able to identify additional occupational alternatives and more willing to break with the orthodox role patterns of their families (Shuval, 1963).

The average response pattern of the self-perceptions of the American women is found to be relatively balanced between strivings of self-actualization and intrafamily nurturing. American women's concept of ideal women also is characterised by balance between self-achieving and other-achieving striving; the ideal woman is conceived to be slightly more active than their self-perceptions. (Steinmann, 1966).

Whether the mother is working outside the home or is a full-time traditional housewife does not solely determine the child's development and personality adjustment. The decisive factor appears to be whether the child in early developmental stages experiences sufficient maternal contact to gain a fundamental confidence in itself and its surroundings. Analysis of different forms of paternal and maternal absence and cross cultural parent-child relations suggests that too much contact with the mother in the traditional home maker role, rather than too little, may pose the greater risk of harming the child's chances for self sufficiency (Tiler, 1971).
Working women without children and working mothers differ significantly on the difficulties faced with job related responsibilities, the amount of help regularly received from others and paid services used (Pomraning, 1983). The differences extend to sex-role preference and beliefs about criteria contributing to life satisfaction. Working mothers report more difficulty with all areas of home management and less life satisfaction. They have lower scores on sex-role inventory. Young children in the home increase difficulty of household management requiring arrangement for their care while older children present more difficulty in arranging family events and in meeting social responsibilities. The working women without children and working mothers do not differ from one another on self-esteem, reasons for working, or beliefs about criteria for job satisfaction. Economic reason is reported to be the primary motivation for employment by the women studied.

Women who are, and who are not career committed, do not differ from one another in terms of accomplishments by their husbands and levels of satisfaction for home making and volunteer acquaintances (Harmen, 1970). Another study reports that Athenian working women with high work commitment report more satisfaction with their marriages than non working women. Working women perceive themselves as
generally prevailing in decision making, as given in less often in disagreements with their husbands, and have more freedom of behaviour in and outside the home (Rothschild, 1970).

A few studies have focused on the possible differences between the career oriented and the non career oriented. A longitudinal study of career salient (oriented to career and marriage) and non-career oriented college women reveal influences of role model and reference group (Almquist and Angrist, 1971). Career salient had been found to have been exposed to occupational choices of male peers, have working mothers and a greater variety of work experience themselves, and feel to have been influenced by faculty members and occupational models in choosing an occupation. Non-career oriented tend to more often to be sorority members, get attached to a male and have a mother active in leisure pursuits, and to feel that family or peers influence them about their future roles. Another longitudinal study report that careerist (who decide to pursue an occupation in addition to family roles) and non-careerist remain constantly in their life style aspirations throughout the college years (Angrist, 1972). Careerist typically majors in the humanities, chooses a male dominated occupation, and do not join sorority. She is influenced by the example of a working mother, but does not try to
She views domesticity and child care as matters to be delegated to others, if necessary. The non-careerist intends to center her life totally on her family and to work only in case of financial need; she typically becomes engaged during her senior year.

That the ego strength differs between the career oriented and the non-career oriented has been reported in another study (Gump, 1972). Female university career oriented who plans to pursue a marriage and career has been found to have highest score on ego strength. The study also reveals that no difference in happiness or in relationships with men is found between women oriented to traditional sex-role and women primarily concerned with self-actualization and achievement. Career aspirations of college women show that those who choose non-sex typical occupations remain to be more autonomous, individualistic and motivated by self-imposed demands to perform to capacity (Tangri, 1972). They are also found to be having as many romantic and platonic relationships with men as had by the traditionally oriented individuals.

Another study reports adolescent females who have made non-traditional vocational choices to have higher self-esteem and career aspiration. However, they do not
differ from those who have made traditional vocational and choices in locus of control, role modeling. No relationship has been found among role modeling, locus of control and career aspirations. The results also suggest that the non-traditional choice group is more likely than their counterparts to have been influenced by a male rather than female family member in making occupational choice (Wesson, 1983).

Comparison of women in traditional and non-traditional occupations reveals that the non-traditional group has less sex-role attitudes and values (Beverly, 1981). The women choosing non-traditional trades have experienced socialization processes that encouraged them to become independent and self-sufficient at an early age which may well have been influencing their occupational choices. They also have an ability to identify with both masculine and feminine characteristics of their parents. They have more autonomous mother-daughter relationships. They regard the blue collar trades to be stimulating and financially rewarding.

Very few studies are available on women in higher level professions. Female managers admit that their attainment has been influenced by their parent's influences (Azimi Anarki, 1980). Majority of the female managers are satisfied with their managerial position and claim
to be motivated in their job. They feel that they are capable of handling their jobs like men and at the same time report that being woman seems to be a barrier in business.

Compared to women in traditional roles executive women are more extraverted, have more flexible outlook on life (Brittain, 1981). Executive women pick up such bipolar adjunctures in describing their thinking feeling as analyse, fairness, benefits, logic and thinking. The traditional role women pick up such adjunctives as sympathise, mercy, blessings, sentiment and feeling. The difference in perception of the two compared shows that the executive women schedule their lives and make lists to accomplish tasks seeing the environment as controllable while the women in traditional roles demonstrate a lack of scheduling and of letting environmental events to determine actions.

Self report of professional women in male dominated professions of Government, Law, Science, Medical Science and Business reveal that they perceive themselves as androgynous (Tashner, 1983). They are satisfied with their style of life they have chosen, married, in a dual career relationship and with children; or non married, probably having been in a dual career relationship at
some point of time and possibly being a single parent. They find their parents emotional and financially supportive of their career choice. They report positive and negative experiences with mentors. They experience stress, and cope up with it in physical and non physical ways. They report further that their greatest stress to be time and interpersonal conflicts. They seem to contribute to their stress by not allowing enough restorative time. Their economic sufficiency is reported to have a positive effect on their personality by increasing their self-esteem and self-confidence.

Another study has compared high economic success men and women with non economic success men and women (Britt, 1984). The four groups seem to remain homogenous with regard to life activity patterns in the areas of education, recreation, social, public, organizations, health, commercial/business, family/home, private and transit. The only area that differentiate the groups is found to be work.

Athenian working women with a low work commitment perceives a more egalitarian model of family dynamics, tending to compromise with their husbands in disagreements and to share family decision making. But, they have a restricted amount of personal freedom in or outside the home.
Adolescents with mother working and with intact families and employed father, have only slightly more household responsibilities when the mother is employed, and they do not differ from adolescent children of non-working mothers in degree of social participation. Parent-child disagreement are more common when the mother is employed. But, perceptions of parental interest, help with school and personal problems, and degree of closeness to parents are similar to both children of working and non-working mothers. Fewer sons of working women choose their father as an adult ideal than sons of non-working mothers (Propper, 1972).

Full-time maternal employment compared with work at home and part-time work, is found to be having a positive influence on a child's social adjustment and intelligence among lower class black community (Woods, 1972). Maternal quality, mother-child relationships, and maternal attitudes towards employment are found to be positive correlates of cognitive and personal development. Among these lower class families, full-time work is regarded as necessity rather than a personal choice and hence mother's work does not produce maternal conflict or feeling of rejection in mother and child as it might in the case of middle and upper middle class families (Woods, 1972).
More working mothers than non-working mothers express lack of confidence about their success in their mother role. But, not lack of adequacy of mothering. More non-working mothers who are dissatisfied with their employment status report difficulties in the areas of control, emotional satisfaction in relations with their children, and confidence in the mother role. They also have the lowest adequacy of mothering. Dissatisfied working mothers achieve certain valued family goals through their employment. In the high school educated group, children are more firmly controlled, given greater responsibility, and more strictly disciplined by their father in families where mother works than where she does not. More college educated working mothers report that they and their husbands plan and spend time in shared activities with their children than did non-working college mothers (Yarrow, 1962).

The notion that dissatisfaction and unfavourable conditions need not necessarily be associated with situations involving women receives support in another study (Gover, 1963).

Married women seek congruency among their role preferences, their actual roles and their perception of their husband's preferences for their roles (Arnott, 1972). When wives approve of their present roles and
perceived that their husbands also approve, they tend to plan to continue in the work roles. Similarly, when a husband and wife share a preference for a different role for the wife, the wife plans an eventual role change. When husbands and wives differ on their preference for the wife's role, women with higher female autonomy scores are more likely to select their preferred role over their husband's than are women with low autonomy scores, especially when preference differences are minimal. Different pattern of career has been distinguished for men and women in medical profession. At the time of graduation from medical school, females are more likely than males to defer marriage. Entrepreneurial features of medical practice, such as self-employment, independence in work, money incentives, and competitiveness are found to be of less importance to women. In every comparable medical position women work for a shorter time than men, and more accept part-time positions among women in the profession (Kosa and Coker, 1971).

Different pattern of orientation of the husbands and wives to family and career have different outcome with regard to marital satisfaction. In one study husbands were classified into two groups labeled family oriented and career oriented and wives were classified into three groups labeled Integrated (favouring careers and listing career as a source of satisfaction), traditional (not
favouring careers for married women and not deriving satisfaction from work outside home) and mixed (favouring career for women but not themselves deriving satisfaction from work). The ratio of traditional to integrated is found to be 2:1. Very few combinations of career oriented husbands with a career integrated wife term their marriage "very happy". The other possible combinations of husband-wife orientation are very similar with regard to the degree of marital happiness; one-half to two-third see their marriage as 'Happy'. Marital happiness in the conventional pattern (traditional wives married to career oriented husbands) is found to be associated with number of children, husband's job satisfaction, overlap of spouses' fields of work, income and ambition of husband, the husband's mother having worked during his childhood, and attitudes of social circle. In the coordinated pattern (career integrated wives married to family oriented husbands) marital happiness is found to be associated with wife's having household help, husband's income and ambition, and mother's work history. The findings emphasize that the husband's career family orientation is a vital determinant to marital happiness when a married women has a career (Bailyn, 1971).

Married working women's possible experience stresses in five major areas is found in a British study (Rappoport
and Rappaport, 1969). The stress may arise due to role overload, dilemmas between personal and social norms, dilemmas of identity, social net work dilemmas and role cycling dilemmas. Role overload is affected by the importance of children and family life to the couple, standard of living, the degree to which conjugal roles could be rearranged and how household duties are delegated. Deliberate provision of leisure time and assignment of non personal chores to outsiders may reduce the overload. Personal norms and the expectations of society vary according to family stages and occupational cycles. Birth of the first child is frequently found to be the time of stress for mothers committed to a career. Dilemmas of personal identity occurs when husband and wife attempt to maintain individual identities and persue personal development through the same channel, a career. Conciously separating spheres of work and family and establishing tacit limits to competition within work sphere could deal with rivalries and difficulties resulting from then in career families marital relations. Though the dual/have less active involvement with kith and kin than other professional middle class families they do have social net work dilemmas concerning time to be given to them. Role cycling dilemmas result from conflict among different stages in the husbands career, wives career and family life.
A developmental perspective of the influences contributing to women participation in the labour forces could be culled out from the studies reported by different investigators. Early and later influences in life combine in more complex ways in deciding the various patterns of married women participation in labour force in Britain (Rappaport, 1971).

American boys and girls aged 8 to 11 show a typical pattern of perception indicating girls to be contented with female activities and have little desire to perform traditional male activities (Hartley, 1961). The same trend is seen in another study on adolescent girls and boys (Entwisle and Greenberger, 1972).

That the role concepts and self concepts are related to vocational maturity among 16 year school girls has been reported in a study (Putnam and Hansen, 1972). The more liberal a girl's view of her own feminine role concept, the higher her level of vocational maturity. It is further found that girls tend somewhat vocationally immature in comparison with boys and have a lower self concept than the average individual. Another study reveals that 48 percent of women high school seniors expect to have a life time career and all the Ss expect to be home makers. Those who decide on career stress education over material ambitions while those who decide on home maker stress the
reverse. However, when the minimum acceptable husband's occupation is controlled there is no difference between these groups with regard to material ambition. The investigators interpret these results to mean that women accept to leave the extrinsic rewards to their husbands while seeking intrinsic satisfactions from career and education and that women who seek intrinsic rewards more highly are more likely to seek careers (Turner, 1964). Among college women 70 percent are oriented towards future employment and the majority intend to both marry and work (Siegel, 1963). Daughter's work orientation is related to mother's work orientation and the finding confirm the general view that role modelling within the family continue through generations. Another study reveals that the tendency to devalue feminine professional competence is associated with a non-working mother among college students. (Baruch, 1972). Daughters of working mothers evaluated women's competence highly regardless of any negative personal consequences of working experienced by their mothers. Maternal employment per se did not influence S's attitudes toward the dual role pattern. Whether a S favours this pattern depends on whether her mother endorses it and whether her working mother has successfully integrated the two roles. Another study discloses that parental identification has a bearing on pattern of vocational interest in college male and female
students (Heilbrun, 1969). Females identified with a masculine mother or feminine father had more primary occupational interests than females identified with sex-role-appropriate parents. Females with a feminine sex-role model (either parent) had fewer occupational interests. A feminine-mother identification is found to be associated with the most limited positive career interest development for both sexes. Among the women college students also the inclinations reveal that every woman would like to marry and half the women would desire career (Freedman, 1965). The findings further reveal that the women college seniors are not inclined to value conventional female characteristics or behaviour. Those who plan for a career are somewhat more intellectual, unconventional, independent and flexible in outlook, and more alienated socially. Those who have traditional views on women's role also have stereotyped racial views.

The notion that sex-role perceptions are affected by actual parental role behaviours and that the traditional conceptions of sex roles are not immutable gains currency in another study (Vogel, et al., 1970). College students who are sons and daughters of working mothers perceive significantly less differences between masculine and feminine roles than sons and daughters of home maker mothers. Mother's employment influences women's perceptions of sex roles more strongly than men's perception.
Career choices of college women are not random and unusual occupational preferences and usual occupational preferences of adolescent girls may be indicators of future vocational behavior (Harmon, 1971). A factor analytic study of work value items administered to college alumnae and seniors has identified significant factors among work-values (Eyde, 1962). The study reveals existence of one general factor and six work value factors among the value items studied. The six factors identified are Dominance-recognition, Economics, Independence, Interesting activity-variety, Mastery-achievement, and Social relations. The study also reveals that the extent to which the Ss believed that compromises have to be made in traditional home maker role to allow outside home employment is related to level of work motivation.

The life styles of young women are found to be related to their attitudes toward career and marriage, and that this relationship is modified by age as revealed in a cross sectional study (Mathews and Tiedeman, 1964). The majority of subjects at each developmental stage hope to be married and not involved in a career 10 years later, with the percentage increasing sharply from Junior high to senior high, then declining to an intermediate level for young adults. Attitudes also differ according to life plans, which are differentiated primarily by
attitude toward marriage and attitude toward feminine careers versus homemaking. The pattern of attitudes change with increasing age particularly in the direction of moving away from belief in one's inferiority to men.

The developmental tasks of adult women executives, hourly workers, university professors and home makers reveal complex process of psychosocial development involved in women becoming a whole person and gaining information from society (Cherry, 1981). Many women take a longer time to explore themselves and to form a sense of identity which is separated from their relationships with others. Women are likely to form an affiliative dream than they are to form an idealistic dream. Competence, individuality and autonomy remain to be important function for women.

The phases of development of adult life experiences of women following a career to traditional life pattern, one in which the S focussed on career in her twenties and switched her primary identity to home maker at about thirty has been traced in a study (Lankin, 1982). The findings reveal the fundamental structure of adulthood consist of a series of seven phases of development alternating between relatively orderly and stable. Phase 1 and 2 in the twenties are dominated by establishing
oneself in the world and achieving career competence. Phase 3 at about 30 years bring a shift in priority toward relationships and a decrease in the meaning of work. Phase 4, during thirties centers on the mother role and in fulfilling the parental dream. Phase 5 at about 40 years marks the stage wherein the S expand her world and begin to satisfy achievement needs beyond parenting. Phase 6 in the late fourties centers on establishing a life structure with self as more prominent and meeting achievement needs. Phase 7 in the early fifties is dominated by rebonding with husband, forming adult relationships with children and finding increasing satisfaction with self in the world. Themes not bound by time include a concern with weight, coping with the decline and/or loss of parents and, for several religious faith and therapy. The findings are comparable with data on men reported in Levinson (1978).
Jobs have meaning for women beyond the income they provide. In a large scale survey in the USA, the employment was identified as a source of self-esteem and social support and not as a stress. These positive effects are strongest among women with little education who presumably held low-skilled jobs. The study also observes, that housewives report a lower state of health than the employed women. It is impossible to say whether lack of job influenced health or the other way round (Nathnson, 1980).

A study done in West Germany reveals that married unemployed women often feel the financial problem less severe. 20% of the women report that they do not want to return to employment. Fewer women than men are found to blame their unemployment for family conflicts. Many more than men are finding it easy to talk to others about their situation. In the area of social contact, many more women than men feel that missing the social contacts employment provides as the psychological burden of unemployment (Brinkman, 1981).

A nationwide comprehensive West German study of unemployed women has analysed the data to examine the possibility that exists for large numbers of
unemployed women to return to their more traditional role as housewives. The women were interviewed twice with one-half-year in between. The women who were registered as unemployed at the time of the first interview are reported to identify themselves as housewives during the second interview (Heinemann et al., 1980).

The report provides data for comparing the psychological status of the unemployed with that of permanent housewives and with those who have changed into housewives. The data show that half of the interviewed housewives want jobs because they feel isolated and long to be with other people. The housewives who had previously been employed had the least structured time experience and the narrowest time perspective virtually unconcerned with the future. The unemployed in both periods as well as the women who had found employment again have considerably reduced their material demands on account of their jobs. This suggests that the retreat into the traditional female role is for them an undesirable choice. For many of the women without qualifications the role of housewives is found to be a positive choice implying a reduction of working hours and of double duties.
Housewives at both periods least often report family conflicts. More of those who were unemployed in both periods prior to who had returned to the traditional role indicate conflicts at home. These last two groups are also those who are engaged mostly in passive leisure activities while those who return to employment are engaged most frequently in active pursuits even though they appear to have less time for it.

Surveying the literature on employment and unemployment over the past half a century Jahoda (1982) observed that there are very many women in industrialised countries who by choice prefer to be housewives, not withstanding the change in the cultural climate in this respect. Even if women prefer to have a job, the burden of unemployment hits them less hard than men because an alternative is available to them in returning to the traditional role of housewife that provides some time structure, some sense of purpose, status and activity even though it offers little scope for wider social experiences (Jahoda, 1982).

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION:

The social cultural setting has a bearing on the pattern of participation of women in the labour force. Institutional beliefs regarding marriage and family seem to have a crucial role to play in determining the pattern of participation by women in the labour force. Career orientation seem to be construed by a number
of factors including social cultural conditioning, needs of the family and the early socialization among women. The review impresses that it is common among women to follow different styles of life. Participation in labour market or remaining in home need not be looked into in terms of values. Both contribute to the national economy and also family and social life in their own way. However, individual differences exist with regard to the option to participate in work outside the home or remain as a home maker. The sources of this difference could be traced to individual and cultural factors. Among individual factors personality characteristics seem to be important. The problem of the possible differences between housewives and career women and women entrepreneurs should be analyzed from the framework just cited.