Women in the Labour Force: A Study of the Factors That Influence Women's Labour Force Participation

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Abstract

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More than half of Canadian women work today. They work for social, personal, and economic reasons. Using data from the General Social Survey # 5 on Family and Friends, this study examines the main factors, as outlined in the literature, that influence the labour force participation of women. The findings in this study indicate that women are more likely to participate in the labour force if they receive childcare on a regular basis, if they have one or two children or no children, if they have older children and if they have high levels of education. The factors that influence the number of hours worked are childcare received on a regular basis, having young children and having high levels of education. The study also assessed the relationship between hours worked and satisfaction with balance between work and family life.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Dr. J. Smucker, Dr. W. Reimer and Dr. D. Gauvreau for the time, advice, and assistance, they gave me while preparing my thesis. I would also like to thank Concordia University and Statistics Canada for allowing me access to the General Social Survey.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In this thesis I am interested in looking at the topic of women in the labour force. Traditionally, men have been defined as the breadwinners and women as the homemakers and child raisers. A woman would be asked what her husband did for a living; now, increasingly men are being asked what their wives do. More and more women are looking for jobs outside the home, within the paid labour force, and moving away from the traditional stereotypes. This thesis is an inquiry into the causes for these changes.

GENERAL HISTORICAL INTERPRETATIONS:

The issue of women working in the labour force is not new. According to Krahn and Lowe (1993), a quick glance back into the past reveals that women have always performed a vital, if somewhat unacknowledged, economic role.

In the colonial period, women were indispensable to the fur trade. Women acted as interpreters, prepared food and cleaned pelts for the market. Their skills were essential for survival. They made moccasins, snowshoes, pemmican, gathered the gum necessary to make birch bark canoes and treated hides (Krahn and Lowe, 1993; Phillips and Phillips, 1993).

In the agrarian economy, where the family was the basic production unit, men worked the fields while women looked after domestic work associated with

childbearing, tended the livestock and garden, made clothes, soap and candles, and prepared food. The bearing and raising of children was essential to the survival of the family, as children were an economic asset contributing to family production. Women's work around the house was crucial to the family income. Housework kept the family in clothes and food.

Essentially, women's household labour fulfilled two functions in the 19th century. It generated family income by producing agricultural goods to sell in the local consumer market, and it performed the domestic chores necessary for the family's survival. Not all women worked in the home as farm wives. Some tended bars in taverns, acted as cooks in camps, took in washing, ran boarding houses, whereas others were midwives or nurses (Krahn and Lowe, 1993; Phillips and Phillips, 1993).

During the industrial period, women provided a steady supply of workers for the early factories. In fact, women were the first factory workers in the early 1800's. Women who had spun flax or wool, sewed, cooked and baked on the family farm, now were working in textile and biscuit factories. They were making money for the work they once did in the home for the family for free. Most of the women who worked in the factories were young and single and usually left the factories when they got married or when they were having children. While some women chose to remain in the labour force, others were forced to stay out of economic necessity. Many of the women who were

employed during this period were paid poorly in relation to men. Most of the wages women made were supplemental to the head of the household. They also tended to work incredibly long hours. In many industries, women were employed primarily as a flexible reserve of labour, hired only on a part year basis in peak seasons. Not all women's work that emerged from industrialization was menial, unskilled or directly related to domestic work. Women, at this time, were beginning to enter into occupations such as teachers, office workers and sales workers (Krahn and Lowe, 1993; Phillips and Phillips, 1993; Armstrong and Armstrong, 1978). During the two world wars, women replaced men at jobs in factories and business offices, and in general kept the nation working, fed, and clothed (Krahn and Lowe, 1993; Armstrong and Armstrong, 1978; Phillips and Phillips, 1993).

Since World War II, female labour force participation has been increasing. This trend has been especially rapid in Canada. In 1960, Canada had the lowest level of female employment (30%) compared to the U.S. (38%), Japan (53%), France (42%) and West Germany (41%) (Krahn and Lowe, 1993; Phillips and Phillips, 1993). Yet, the following three decades drew millions of Canadian women into employment. The most important factor leading to the spectacular increase in the number of employed women was the entry of wives into the labour market. Canada crossed an historic watershed, as it entered the 1980's: more than half of all adult women were working outside the home

for pay. Most of these women were usually married, between the ages of 25-44, and had a better education than their ancestors. By 1990, Canada's female labour force participation rate shot past all the advanced industrial nations except Sweden, where women's employment outside the home (84%) has been actively encouraged by State policies (Krahn and Lowe, 1993; Phillips and Phillips, 1993).

Today still more than half of Canadian women are employed. Six out of every ten women above the age of 15 are in the labour market. Female participation patterns (58%) are more and more approaching male participation patterns (67%) (Phillips and Phillips, 1993).

WOMEN'S OCCUPATIONS TODAY

The continued increase in women's labour force participation over the last decade has been accompanied by several shifts in the types of jobs they hold. Despite these changes, a large majority of women employed outside the home are still concentrated in occupations which women have traditionally held.

In 1993, 73% of working women were employed in just five occupational groups: teaching (6%), nursing or related health occupations (9%), clerical (31%), sales (10%) and service (17%). But women have also made gains in other occupations. In 1993, women accounted for 26% of all doctors, dentists and other health diagnosing and treating professionals: up from 18% in 1982

(Best, 1995; Shea, 1990; Statistics Canada Publications, 1991).

During the last decade, there was a dramatic increase in the employment of women in managerial and administrative positions. As a result, in 1993, 13% of working women were in these occupations: up from 5% in 1982. The managerial and administrative category has been the third largest occupational group for women. Women fill 42% of all managerial and administrative positions (Best, 1995; Shea, 1990; Statistics Canada Publications, 1991).

Participation of women also increased in several other professional occupational categories during the last decade. For example, between 1982 and 1991, the number of women employed in social science professions, excluding university teachers, rose 56%. There was also a substantial growth in women's share of employment among health professions such as doctors. In 1991, one in three people (33%) in these professions were female, compared with fewer than one in five (18%) in 1982. Women, however, still account for only about one in five people employed in natural sciences, engineering and mathematics. In 1991, 18% of people in these fields were women, although this was up from 16% in 1981 (Shea, 1990; Statistics Canada Publications, 1991).

Women continue to be significantly under-represented in what have been male dominated blue collar jobs. In 1991, women made up around 15% of all people employed in both primary occupations and manufacturing jobs such as

processing, machinery and product fabricating. In transportation and construction, women did make some gains. In 1991, 9% of the people who were employed in transportation and 2% of those employed in construction were women (Shea, 1990; Ghalam, 1993).

Women have, however, made some inroads into what have traditionally been male dominated positions, such as pharmacists, veterinarians, optometrists, lawyers etc. In fact, by 1986, the number of women employed in several of these occupations had grown such that the professions could no longer be considered male dominated. The number of women in these professions rose 42% between 1981 and 1986, from around 83,000 to just over 118,000. Meanwhile, the number of men in these professions increased just 9%. In 1986, women made up 23% of those employed in previously male dominated positions. This was up from 11% in 1971 and 19% in 1981. Between 1981 and 1986, women's share of employment increased in all but one of the male dominated professions (other university teaching and related occupations). In fact, in more than half of these male dominated professions, women account for the majority of employment growth and in several, almost all growth was attributed to women. This is illustrated in Table I. Women were responsible for all employment growth among veterinarians, sociologists and anthropologists, pharmacists, optometrists, managers in social sciences, biologists and administrators in teaching. In 1986, 35% of women were

veterinarians, 32% were optometrists, 58% managers in the social sciences, 48% sociologists and anthropologists, 50% pharmacists, 31% administrators in teaching and 37% biologists (Marshall, 1989). In 1986, women actually outnumbered men among both pharmacists and managers in the social sciences. Women also continued to make steady gains in the more high profile professions such as, medicine, dentistry, and law, accounting for close to half the employment growth in each between 1981 and 1986 (Marshall, 1989).

However, there are still a number of professions that continue to be heavily male dominated. In 1986, a particularly small portion of people employed in engineering were women (5%), women also made up only 9% of managers in the natural sciences, and 8% of physicists. In addition, in 1986, just over 10% of architects, meteorologists, geologists, ministers, judges and magistrates were women (Marshall, 1989).

TABLE I

WOMEN EMPLOYED IN PROFESSIONAL OCCUPATIONS 1971-1986

	Total Number of Women			Per centage increase	Women as a % of total growth in profession	Women as a % of total employment in profession	
	1971	1981	1986	1981 1986	1981-1986	1981	1986
Male dominated professions							
Management occupations, natural sciences and engineering	70	800	1225	53 1	23 8	6.6	8 8
Management occupations, social sciences and related fields	760	3805	6090	60 1	85 9	48.2	57.7
Administrators in teaching and related fields	6445	9120	12425	36 2	76.7	25 0	30
Chemists	895	1975	3080	55 9	63 5	20 4	27.0
Geologists	145	795	1005	26.4	35.6	10 3	12 1
Physicists	45	65	95	46.2		5.0	7 9
Meteorologists	40	90	120	33.3	24 0	9 0	10 7
Agriculturists and related scientists	330	1220	2420	98 4	37 6	13.2	19 5
Biologists and related sciences	830	2330	3000	28.8	80 7	1.9	35.9
Architects	125	560	850	51.8	48.7	7 7	10 8
Chemical engineers	65	340	560	64 7	62 9	5.9	9.2
Civil engineers	235	980	1490	52 0		3 0	4 6
Electrical engineers	205	1000	1655	65 5	14 1	3 7	5 2
Mechanical engineers	100	380	710	86.8	8.6	1 9	3 0
Metallurgical engineers	15	50	100	100 0		2 8	6 1
Mining engineers	20	105	155	26 7		1.1	6 5
Nuclear engineers		40	70	75.0		4 8	9.5
Other architects and engineers	140	1640	2640	61 0	36 8	12 2	16 3
Mathematicians, statisticians and actuaries	1010	2070	2305	11.4	54.0	34 7	36.0
Economists	640	2570	4345	69 1	62 2	20 5	28.3
Sociologists, anthropologists,related social scientists	170	540	685	26.9	290 0	39 0	47 7
Judges and magistrates	75	220	320	45.5	27 4	10 5	12 0
Lawyers and notaries	860	5390	9410	74 6	51 2	15 5	22.0
Ministers of religion	900	1785	2590	45 1	65 7	7.6	10 5
University teachers	5190	9785	1470	17.2	48 7	26 5	28 4
Other university teaching and related occupations	1525	6170	8640	40 0	44 1	45 8	45 3
Community college and vocational school teachers	3280	13770	16945	23.1	57 1	41.6	43 8
Physicians and surgeons	3150	7255	10175	40 2	47 3	17 4	21.2
Dentists	330	860	1670	94.2	44 1	8 1	13 5
Veterinarians	75	605	1510	149.6	114 6	17 2	35 1
Osteopaths and chiropractors	80	340	520	52 9	25 7	14 9	17 5
Pharmacists	2540	6090	8755	43.8	91 1	41 8	50 1
Optometrists	105	365	840	130.1	87 2	17 7	32 2
Total male dominated professions	**30410**	**83340**	**118155**	**41.8**	**52.1**	**18.6**	**22.9**
Other professions							
Psychologists	2035	4600	7075	53 8	79 6	52.6	59 7
Social workers	7230	21020	31005	47.5	78 5	63.5	67.7
Supervisors in library museum and archival sciences	600	1440	1700	18.1	85.2	62 1	64 8
Librarians and archivists	6120	13575	15315	12 8	80 6	80.9	80 9
Educational and vocational counsellors	1690	3050	4285	40.5	84.0	49 3	55 9
Elementary and kindergarten teachers	140500	152335	163505	7 3	79 0	81.5	81 3
Secondary school teachers	56615	63320	62745	-0.9		43.8	45 7
Postsecondary school teachers	5730	4445	3850	-13 4		63.9	74 1
Teachers of exceptional students	4420	15315	18710	22.2	97 7	72 1	75 7
Physiotherapists , occupational and other therapists	5895	12525	16855	34.6	86.0	85 0	85 2
Dieticians and nutritionists	2010	3280	4250	29 6	100 0	94.3	95 5
Translators and interpreters	1395	4340	5175	19.2	92.8	61.9	65 4
Total other professions	**234240**	**299250**	**334470**	**11.8**	**9.7**	**66.2**	**68.6**
Total all professions	**264650**	**382590**	**452610**	**18.3**	**68.5**	**42.5**	**45.1**

(SOURCE STATISTICS CANADA, CENSUS OF CANADA)

These changes are quite dramatic, but it is not entirely clear what accounts for them. The aim of this thesis is to identify those variables most strongly associated with labour force participation rates by females and to thereby establish some grounds for explaining this phenomenon.

Once I have established the factors that influence women's labour force participation, I will then look at the relationship between these factors and the number of hours women spend working. Finally, I will examine levels of satisfaction of employed women.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL APPROACH AND LITERATURE REVIEW

The critical question of this thesis is, "What are the factors that have influenced women to increase their labour force participation in the 1990's? Various authors have suggested different answers to this question. The reasons for women's participation in the labour force can be seen in terms of both push and pull effects.

Women are pulled into the labour market because the jobs available may be uniquely attractive to them. They are pushed to work when they have certain aspirations or obligations to fulfill. Although some of the research in the literature I reviewed was conducted in the United States, the reasons found were the same or similar to those reasons stated in Canadian literature.

"PULL FACTORS"

EXPANSION OF SERVICE SECTOR JOBS:

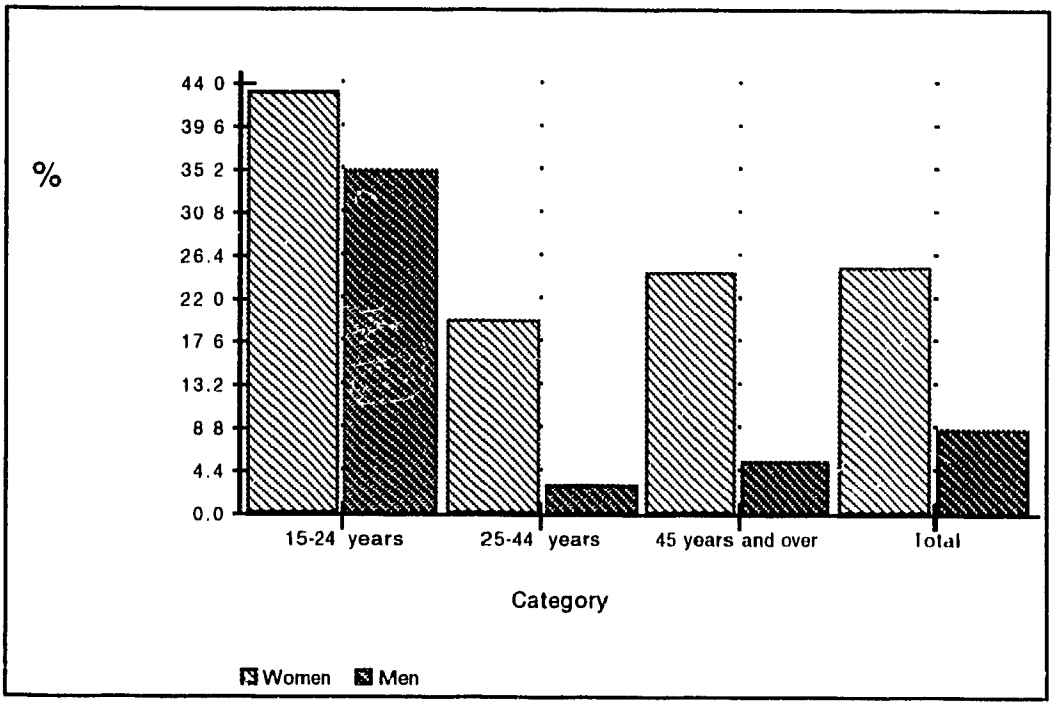
In their study of women's employment, Krahn and Lowe (1993) found that there is no single cause for the increase in female labour force participation. One reason for millions of Canadian women being drawn into employment was the tremendous expansion of white collar service sector jobs. The massive expansion of white collar service sector jobs, where many employers prefer women, was a major influence on the demand for female labour. With the growth of industrialization and the rise of corporate capitalism came the development of modern administration. Women, instead of men, were increasingly becoming the main supply of labour for the burgeoning offices of an industrializing Canada. The rapid expansion of office work was accompanied by a more fragmented division of labour and routinized jobs. As a result, a layer of new positions emerged at the bottom of office hierarchies, opening office doors to women. These clerical jobs were created with the express purpose of hiring women and with the expectation that there would be a high turnover rate. At the same time, rising education levels and plunging birth rates contributed to the ease by which women could seek employment (Davis, 1984; Lowe, 1987; Krahn and Lowe, 1993).

PART-TIME WORK:

A considerable proportion of the increase in women's employment is attributed to the growth in part-time work. In fact, the increase in the number of women working part-time accounted for about one-third of all growth in the employment of women from 1975 to 1988. In this period the number of women employed part-time doubled from 678,000 to 1.4 million. In 1991, 26% of employed women were working part-time compared to 9% of men. Women have consistently accounted for at least 70% of all part-time employment in Canada over the past fifteen years. As seen in Graph I, (Page 13), young women are the most likely to work part-time, although part-time employment is common among women of all ages. The incidence of part-time work among men is also highest for those aged 15-24. In contrast to women, though, part-time work is rare among men over age 25. In 1991, only 36% of the women working part-time indicated that they preferred to work part-time, that they did not want a full time job, while, 27% could only find part-time work, 22% were going to school, and 13% had personal or family responsibilities (Table II - Page 14). These percentages vary according to age (Statistics Canada Publications, 1991).

GRAPH I

PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYED WOMEN AND MEN WORKING PART-TIME, BY AGE, 1991



(SOURCE: STATISTICS CANADA, CATALOGUE 71-220)

TABLE II

REASONS FOR PART-TIME WORK, BY AGE, 1991

	WOMEN AGED				MEN AGED			
	15-24	25-44	45 AND OVER	TOTAL	15-24	25-44	45 AND OVER	TOTAL
				%				
PERSONAL/FAMILY RESPONSIBILITY	2.2	23.7	7.5	13.1				1.0
GOING TO SCHOOL	65.8	3.4		22.3	72.2	18.2		48.6
COULD ONLY FIND PART TIME WORK	22.5	31.0	24.6	26.9	20.3	61.8	30.1	29.8
DID NOT WANT FULL TIME WORK	9.2	40.0	64.6	36.3	6.7	11.8	58.4	17.4
OTHER REASONS		1.7	2.6	1.5		6.4	8.8	3.2
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
TOTAL (000S)	**448**	**632**	**345**	**1425**	**374**	**110**	**113**	**597**
%EMPLOYED PART TIME	43.4	19.9	24.9	25.5	35.2	3.0	5.6	8.8

(SOURCE: STATISTICS CANADA, CATALOGUE 71-220)

"PUSH FACTORS"

Among the push factors, the following appear to be significant in accounting for increased participation rates among women.

ECONOMIC NECESSITY:

Economic necessity has contributed to the increase in women's participation in the labour force. Some women do not have the choice whether to work or not. Their future well-being depends on their participation in the labour market. According to Fox and Biber's empirical findings (1984), economic necessity is a powerful motive that accounts for continued participation of women in the work force over time. Krahn and Lowe's (1993); Phillips and Phillips' (1993) research support this. They found that wives in low income families may be compelled to work to help meet basic expenses, whereas better educated women married to professional and managerial males have greater opportunity, and the luxury of choice with regard to employment.

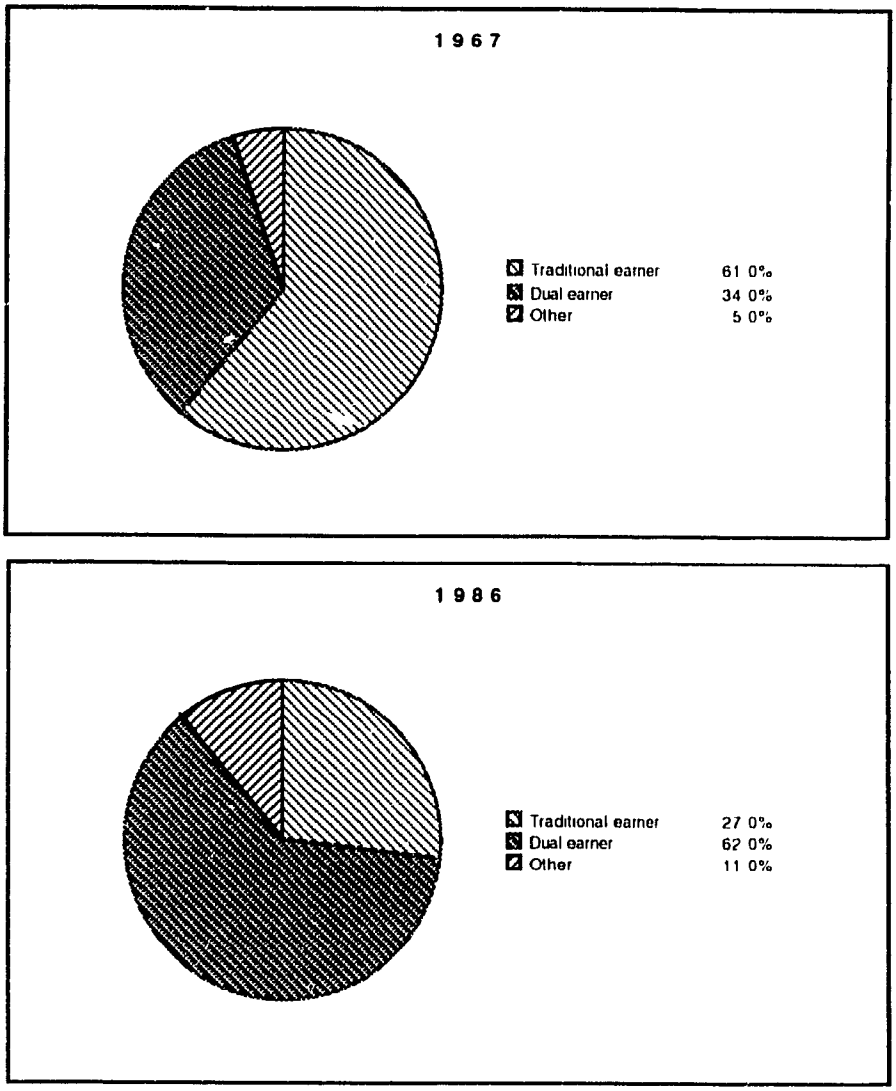
Using data from Statistics Canada, Moore (1990) found that women will often work if they have to meet chronic or temporary financial problems. They get jobs out of financial necessity to pay bills and debts, or to support aged relatives, etc. A woman, who is married, often will take a job if her husband loses a job, or is unable to work. A woman will also get a job if her husband's income is temporarily depressed, or if he works less than full time. The more

unstable the income, the more likely the woman is to look for work (Moore, 1990; Sweet, 1973).

However, not all researchers agree with the claim that the lower the husband's income, the more likely the wife is to enter the labour market. Rashid (1991) found in his empirical research using Statistics Canada data, that this traditional relationship has lost much of its strength and the dual earner family is already becoming the norm rather than the exception. This is shown in Graph II.

GRAPH II

DUAL AND TRADITIONAL-EARNER FAMILIES AS A PERCENTAGE OF ALL HUSBAND-WIFE FAMILIES, 1967 AND 1986



(SOURCE: STATISTICS CANADA, LABOUR AND HOUSEHOLD SURVEYS ANALYSIS DIVISION)

Rashid (1991) found that working wives augment family incomes and raise standards of living. Phillips and Phillips empirical research on Women's Employment (1993) support Rashid's research. They found that women need to enter the workforce to maintain the real income of the family, particularly in a period of steadily rising prices, falling real incomes and rising tax burdens, or to purchase goods considered necessities due to rising expectations or social pressures.

FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES:

Family responsibilities influence the participation of women in the labour force. Devereaux (1993), Waite (1980), Oppenheimer (1982), Kemp (1994) and Sweet (1973) found that women with children are less likely to work than women with no children and women with many children are less likely to work than those with few children. Their empirical findings show that younger children require more care than older children, thus depressing the probability of the employment of their mothers (The National Council on Welfare define children less than 13 as young children.) School age children are in school during much of the working day and thus, the mother is responsible for their care for a smaller portion of the time. The availability of adults in a household to provide care for such children after school and during the summer months can free the mother to work.

Devereaux's (1993), Waite's (1980), Oppenheimer's (1982), Kemp's (1994) and Sweet's (1973) empirical research on Women's Employment found that when families have more versus fewer very young children, the time demand factor outweighs the expense factors resulting in a substantial reduction in women's labour force participation. The younger the children are, the more time intensive they are, and as a result the harder it is for mothers to work. When the increased number of children present involve older, and hence more expensive, but less time consuming children, the woman is more likely to

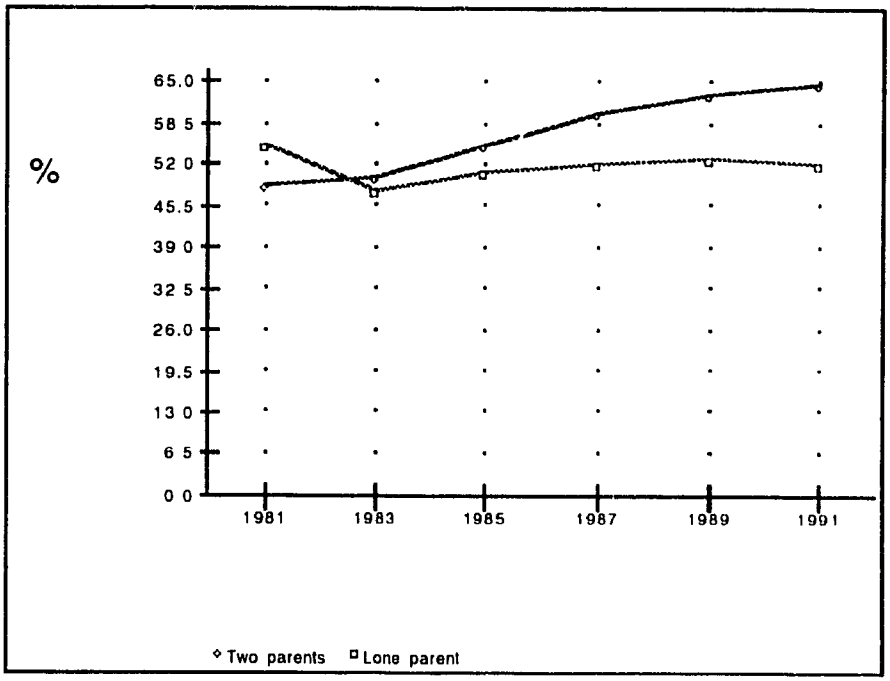
be participating in the work force.

Best (1995) disagrees with the above findings on younger children. She concluded in her 1995 research on Working Mother's, based on Statistics Canada data, that women with young children with a husband present have increased their labour force participation. She agrees that while previously employed wives who had young children dropped out of the labour market, at least temporarily, now this is no longer the case. She found that among the nation's wives, children seem to be less of a deterrent to employment. Logan and Belliveau (1995) found that 70% of all mothers living with their marital or common law partner were in the labour force: up from 52% in 1981.

However, this does not hold true for women parenting alone. Using Statistics Canada data, Devereaux (1993) found that women parenting alone are less likely to be in the labour force than are wives in two parent families. They have too many family responsibilities to hold down a steady job. This is shown in Graph III. In 1991, 52% of lone mothers with children less than age 16 were employed, compared with 65% of mothers in two parent families.

GRAPH III

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN EMPLOYED WITH CHILDREN, BY FAMILY STATUS, 1981-1991



(SOURCES: STATISTICS CANADA, CATALOGUES 71-001, 71-220 AND 71-529)

Fox and Biber concluded in their research that women are becoming more active in the labour force because couples are having fewer children or no children at all. Further, they found that even among those with children, couples can now expect to spend 13 years together after their last child has left them. Consequently, women are finding that they have more years to engage in activities beyond bearing children and this makes active participation in the labour force more appealing (Fox and Biber, 1984).

LEVEL OF EDUCATION:

A third push factor that influences women's employment is rising levels of education. Using Statistics Canada data, Parliament (1989) found that women with the highest levels of education are most likely to be employed. In 1991, 76% of women with a university degree, 68% with post secondary training, 59% of women with high school education and 19% with less than Grade 9 worked outside the home. This is shown in Table III.

TABLE III

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN AND MEN EMPLOYED, BY AGE AND EDUCATION. 1991

	People aged							
	15-24		25-44		45 and over		Total	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
Educational attainment								
Less than grade 9	22 6	33 3	41 9	60 6	14 5	34 5	19.0	38 9
Some secondary school	42 5	46 5	54 6	75 3	28 0	49 1	39 9	56 7
High school diploma	65 4	68 3	70 4	85 0	38 7	55 8	58 8	72 9
Some post-secondary	61 4	60 4	71 1	83 9	43.5	60 9	61 9	70 8
Post-secondary certificate or diploma	75 5	69 2	78.4	87 4	46 6	64 2	67.6	78.0
University degree	76 5	71.2	82 3	91 7	59 8	74 0	75 9	84 3

In their theoretical and empirical research on Women and Work, Fox and Biber (1984) concluded that the positive relationship between education and labour force participation was related to the greater benefit (that is, earning power) of employment derived by women with higher education. Their findings showed that education tends to have a positive effect on the employment of women. Younger women and those with higher education levels are more active in the labour force (Krahn and Lowe, 1993; Kemp, 1994; Sweet, 1973).

Waite's (1980) study on Working Wives and the Family Cycle concluded that education increases the likelihood of labour force participation about twice as much for childless wives and for mothers who expect more children as for those who completed childbearing. Women with high levels of formal schooling may be more likely than others to continue to work at their job while they are bearing children (Waite, 1980).

Niemi (1978) found in his empirical based research on The Impact of Children on Female Earnings that for many females with higher education attainment, it is more economical to enter the labour force. He found that it is more economical to put children in day care centers and return to the labour force as soon as possible.

Education is a push factor, in that the more education a woman has, the more likely she is to participate in the labour force. Yet it can also be seen as a pull factor, in that employers want and prefer to hire individuals who are

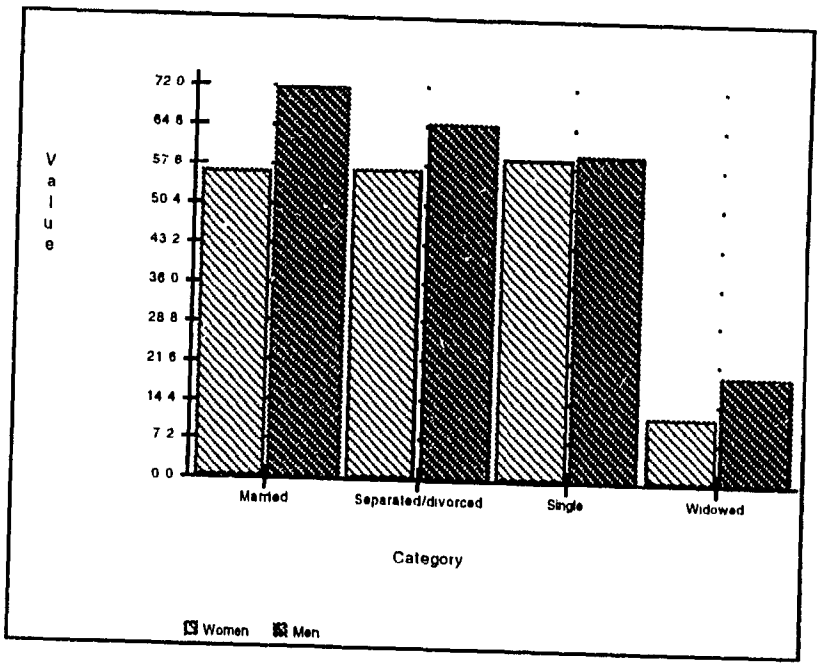
knowledgeable and qualified.

MARITAL STATUS:

Cain (1966), Sweet (1973), Oppenheimer (1982) and Krahn and Lowe (1993) found that marital status also influences female work patterns. Graph IV shows that single women have higher participation rates than married, widowed or divorced women. In 1991, 59% of single women had jobs compared to 56% of married women.

GRAPH IV

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN AND MEN EMPLOYED BY MARITAL STATUS, 1991



(SOURCE: STATISTICS CANADA, CATALOGUES, 71-001, 71-220, AND 71-529)

Oppenheimer's (1982) and Cain's (1966) empirical findings also show that women tend to increase their rates of labour force participation when they experience a marital disruption. Cain (1966) and Sweet (1973) argue that divorce increases wives' labour force participation, partly as a kind of insurance policy against the possibility of a future divorce, and partly because they are more likely to experience the major burden of child support in the event of a divorce.

Fox and Biber's empirical research on women's labour force participation (1984) found that as divorce rates continue to rise, divorce or separated women with young children are finding it economically necessary to enter the work force. Compared to wives in their first marriage, wives who have been divorced in the past are more likely to have economic obligations in the form of children from previous marriages. However, according to Oppenheimer's (1982) and Sweet's (1973) empirical findings, not all previously divorced wives will have such economic obligations. These economic responsibilities which sometimes, but not always, are a consequence of divorce, operate as an unmeasured intervening variable between a previous divorce and a remarried woman's labour force status (Oppenheimer, 1982; Sweet, 1973).

FEMINIST MOVEMENT:

A fifth push factor that has been mentioned by several authors, is the feminist movement. The growth of feminism contributed to more liberal social values regarding work roles. The influence of the women's movement in the late 1960's and 1970's had been a major factor in changing the attitudes of men and women towards their traditional roles. The movement heightened social consciousness by questioning the assumptions, values and images concerning a woman's place. As women became more educated, their occupational aspirations rose and made them become more competitive with men in the job market. Traditional stereotypes of women's work began crumbling (Davis, 1984; Fox and Biber, 1984; Krahn and Lowe, 1993).

PERSONAL REASONS:

Another factor that draws women into the labour force is personal reasons. Using census data, Niemi (1978) found that some females may not feel rewarded by home-life and they may want the freedom and independence associated with market employment. Many females may base their labour force participation decision on non-economic forces. Mott (1982) found that women work for the sheer pleasure of the work, which derives from characteristics intrinsic to the job itself, or other prestige or status dimensions associated with the employment. According to Malarkey, Bootsma and Vyn

(1989), women work, especially married women, out of personal need, satisfaction and growth. They found through in depth interviewing techniques that a large number of wives indicate that they become restless, lonely, depressed and bored remaining in the home. Working outside the home represents a badly needed outlet for them. Full time employment is an extremely positive factor in the wives mental and emotional-being and therefore, in their marriage.

The social contacts at work, a sense of being productive in a job, the enhancement of self-worth in being needed by an employer and collecting a pay cheque, were major factors mentioned as responsible for this personal satisfaction and growth (Malarkey, Bootsma and Vyn, 1989).

PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT:

Parental encouragement may also influence women's participation in the labour force. Mott (1982) found in his empirical based research that young women who receive considerable encouragement from their mothers, not only receive some educational advantage but, independent of this educational edge, are more likely to expect to be working as of age 35 and are more likely than their female counterparts to expect to be employed in less traditional occupations. Thus, parental encouragement can have a more generalized pay off in terms of a woman's adult life intentions (Mott, 1982).

HUSBAND'S SUPPORT:

Eshleman states in his 1991 theoretical based research that husbands' support influences the employment likelihood of women. He found that the relationship between the husband and wife seems to take precedence over financial considerations in determining the wife's employment. A married woman is more likely to work if she perceives her husband's attitude as favourable. However, it is equally plausible that the husband's more favourable attitude follows rather than precedes his wife's decision to work (Fox and Biber, 1984). Oppenheimer's study on work and family (1982) showed that attitudes toward a working wife changed more slowly than the actual increase in a wife's labour force participation.

WORK EXPERIENCE:

Another factor influencing whether women will work or not is work experience. Moore (1990), Sweet (1973) and Eshleman (1991) found that a woman will work if she has work experience and work skills. Their empirical research shows that a married woman is more likely to go out to work if she has some occupational skill. The more generalized the skill, the more likely she will be able to find work. If it is a specialized skill, the shorter the supply relative to the demand, the more likely she will be to find work. Work experience is seen as an intervening variable in that women are pushed to work because they

have something to offer. Yet, they are also pulled because employers look to hire people with some skill or experience.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

The literature indicates that changes in the labour market, personal characteristics, education, economic demands, marital status and family responsibilities are all factors that influence a woman's movement into the labour force. In this chapter, I will focus on the four factors that are most consistently and strongly related to labour market participation by women and that are available in the General Social Survey #5. These factors are education, economic demands, marital status and family responsibilities. The research question is how much each of these variables account for women's participation in the labour force.

PROPOSITIONS

1. The higher the education level, the more likely the woman is to participate in the labour force. Women with a bachelor degree or higher will be more likely to participate in the labour force. The argument here is that regardless of the meaning of the degree, whether it indicates desirable knowledge and skills or desired personal traits, having a degree offers greater employment opportunities for a woman.
2. The higher the financial demands, the more likely the woman is to

participate in the labour force. Women whose husbands are unemployed are more likely to work in order to pay bills, debts etc. than those women whose husbands have a job. Women whose total household income is less than $20,000 (with only one economic family in the household) are more likely to seek employment to meet economic demands than women whose total household income is more than $20,000.

3. Marital status will influence a woman's participation in the labour force. Slingle women will be more likely to participate in the labour force, followed by divorced/separated/widowed women. Married women would be least likely to participate in the labour force. Single women participate more because they are the only income earners, and they need money to survive.

4. The lower the family responsibilities, the more likely a woman is to participate in the labour force. Women with older children (13 and older) are more likely to participate in the labour force than women with young children (less than 13) because older children can care for themselves and older children tend to be more expensive than younger children.

To test these propositions and to see if these reasons still affect

women's employment today, I analyzed data obtained from the General Social Survey #5 on Family and Friends which was conducted by Statistics Canada in 1990 (the most recent data available). According to Statistics Canada's own descriptions, "The general social surveys gather a variety of different kinds of data to meet different kinds of unmet needs, many with different audiences and relevant periodicities. GSS has two principal objectives: first, to gather data on social trends in order to monitor changes in Canadian society over time, and secondly, to provide information on specific policy issues of current or emerging interests" (Statistics Canada, 1990).

The total sample size for GSS #5 was approximately 18,000 with 14,000 responding. It consisted of persons 15 years of age and older across 10 Canadian provinces. Residents of the Yukon and North West Territories, and full time residents of institutions were excluded (for more details on sampling procedure see Appendix A). I used the General Social Survey #5 because it provided me with a sufficiently large sample to tap into the issues that I wished to pursue and the questions used were relevant to my study.

I looked at specific questions in the survey that helped me to measure and operationalize my propositions. The questions I chose were not always ideal indices. They were sometimes a bit crude, but they were the best ones available and the easiest to measure. The selected questions provided the basis for my independent and dependent variables. Some of the variables were

recoded in order to enhance the analysis (Please see Appendix B for coding strategies). I also adjusted the weight on my sample in order to reflect the proportional representation of the larger original sample.

Since I am interested in women in the labour force, I selected only women and then focused on the question, "During the past 12 months, what best describes your main activity?" The answer to this question (which is my dependent variable) informed me whether the respondent was participating in the labour force or not. I cross-tabulated this question with questions representing: 1) educational level, 2) financial demands, 3) marital status and 4) family responsibilities. The question also helped me to find out exactly what types of jobs women occupied, where they were a majority, and where they were a minority in specific occupations. I took out students from my sample because it was difficult to determine if they were working or not while they were attending school. Unless specified, my sample focused on women between the ages 15-65.

For educational level, I looked at the question, "What is the highest level of education you have attained?" From the answers to this question, I developed Hypothesis 1:

- if a woman has a bachelor degree or higher, she will be more likely to work than a woman with less education.

I recoded education into three categories: high school or less, CEGEP/trade/some university and university degree or higher. I divided the

sample between women who had attained an education level of a bachelor's degree or more versus those who had less.

For financial demands, I looked at the question, "During the past 12 months, what best describes your spouse's main activity?" From the answers to this question I developed Hypothesis 2:

- if the husband is unemployed a woman will be more likely to participate in the labour force than if her husband is employed.

I recoded spouse's main activity into 2 categories: working and not working. I selected women with unemployed husbands because I assumed that the income is needed to pay bills and other financial obligations.

I also looked at the question, " What is your best estimate of the total income of all household members from all sources in 1989?" From the answers to this question, I developed Hypotheses 3:

- if a woman's household income is less than $20,000, (with only one economic family in the household), she will be more likely to seek employment than a woman whose total household income is greater than $20,000.

I recoded income into five categories: 1) less than $19,999 2) $20,000 to $39,999 3) $40,000 to $59,999 4) $60,000 to $79,999 5) $80,000 or more. I chose $20,000 as an arbitrary cut off point because I didn't know the number of dependents the couple has in the family. Also, $20,000 is close to the poverty level for single persons as established by Statistics Canada. If only one person in a married couple is earning $20,000, (presuming it is the husband),

then it would have a stronger influence on the wives' participation. $20,000 as a cut off point will highlight the effect of low income on labour force participation.

For marital status, I looked at the question, "What is your current legal marital status?" From the answers to this question, I developed Hypothesis 4:

- if a woman is single, she will be more likely to work outside the home than a married or divorced/separated/widowed woman.

I recoded marital status into 3 categories: single, married (which includes common law unions) and divorced/separated/widowed. I selected single women because they have one source of income, their own. Married women's husbands may be employed thus providing income. Divorced/ separated/widowed women may receive financial support from their former husbands or in the case of widowed women, from the estates of their deceased husbands.

For family responsibilities, I looked at the question, "Starting with the oldest, what is the first name and age of each child you have ever raised?" From the answers to this question, I developed Hypothesis 5:

- if a woman has older children (13 and older) she is more likely to participate in the labour force than a woman with young children (birth to 13).

I recoded child's age into 2 categories: children less than 13 years of age and children 13 years of age and older. A separate category of "no children" was

also included. I did not include households that consisted of children both younger and older than 13 years of age, because I presumed that the older children would take care of the younger children, making it easier for the mother to participate in the labour force.

I chose age 13 as my cutoff point because children less than 13 years of age are in elementary school and are too young to be left alone. Children greater than 13 are in high school and are more independent and can take on more responsibility.

I also developed from this question Hypothesis 6:

- if a woman has one or two children she is more likely to participate in the labour force than a woman with three or more children.

I recoded the number of children into 3 categories: no children, 1-2 children and 3 or more children. Obviously, women with no children have fewer time constraints than women with children. Women with 1-2 children, I assumed, are marginally more free to be employed than women with 3 or more children.

I also looked at the question, "During the past 12 months did any of these children receive child care on a regular basis? From the answers to this question, I developed Hypothesis 7:

- if a woman receives childcare on a regular basis, she is more likely to participate in the labour force than a woman who does not receive childcare on a regular basis.

I recoded childcare into 2 categories: Yes received childcare regularly, and No

childcare regularly. I selected women who received childcare regularly because childcare provides women with more free time to participate in the labour force.

Using SPSS, I created and analyzed crosstabulation and means tables with the variables I chose. The tables provided a preliminary analysis of the relationship of my principle independent variables with women's participation in the labour force. I then proceeded to assess the relative influence of each of the independent variables on women's participation by performing a regression analysis.

Finally, the data allowed me to examine two related issues: the factors that influence the amount of time women spend working, and the degree of satisfaction women are likely to have in their employment arrangements.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL:

I expected to find that women in general, with a Bachelor Degree or higher would be more likely to participate in the labour force than women with less education. This is either because of the symbolic value of the degree or because it actually represents knowledge and skills on demand. Table IV presents the results of my analysis based on this expectation.

TABLE IV

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN PARTICIPATING BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

PARTICIPATION IN LABOUR FORCE	EDUCATIONAL LEVEL		
	HIGH SCHOOL OR LESS	CEGEP/TRADE/ SOME UNIVERSITY	B.A. OR HIGHER
PARTICIPATING	51 %	73 %	80 %
NOT PARTICIPATING	49 %	27 %	20 %
ALL	(2208)	(2016)	(701)

X^2 = 308.84
SD = .21
P < .001

Table IV shows that my hypothesis was supported. The higher the educational level of a woman, the more likely she is to participate in the labour force. Women with university or higher degrees are more likely to be employed than women with lower educational levels. Even when I controlled for marital status, the same relationship exists. No matter whether women are married, divorced/separated/widowed or single, the higher their education the more likely they are to participate in the labour force.

My hypothesis was supported by both the data and the literature. Fox and Biber (1984) state that the positive relationship between education and labour force participation is related to the greater benefit (that is, earning power) of employment derived by women with higher education.

When I controlled for the number of children living in the household and by respondent's age, I expected to find that married women aged 45-54, with high levels of education and any number of children, were more likely to participate than any other married women in the prime age groups (25-34, 35-44, 45-54), with high educational levels and any number of children. These women are probably participating in the labour force due to the increasing costs in living and because their family responsibilities are less since their children are older. These women are probably in good positions because of their education, knowledge and skills. The results are shown in Table V.

TABLE V

PERCENTAGE OF MARRIED WOMEN PARTICIPATING BY EDUCATION LEVEL BY NUMBER OF CHILDREN BY AGE

	NUMBER OF CHILDREN		
	0 CHILDREN	1 - 2 CHILDREN	3+ CHILDREN
AGE 25 - 34			
High School or Less	62 % (2)	45 % (238)	29 % (81)
CEGEP/Trade/Some University	100 % (3)	59 % (233)	54 % (51)
B.A. or Higher		66 % (63)	28 % (14)
	X^2 = 1.19 P > .05 SD = .38	X^2 = 12.99 P ≤ .05 SD = .14	X^2 = 9.00 P < .05 SD = .14
AGE 35 - 44			
High School or Less	70 % (13)	61 % (225)	45 % (110)
CEGEP/Trade/Some University	70 % (14)	65 % (262)	56 % (109)
B.A. or Higher	100 % (1)	70 % (101)	61 % (36)
	X^2 = .38 P > .05 SD = .04	X^2 = 3.14 P > .05 SD = .06	X^2 = 4.08 P > .05 SD = .11
AGE 45 - 54			
High School or Less	51 % (114)	45 % (136)	43 % (35)
CEGEP/Trade/Some University	67 % (77)	63 % (119)	71 % (30)
B.A. or Higher	76 % (21)	93 % (47)	36 % (13)
	X^2 = 7.91 P ≤ .05 SD = .17	X^2 = 33.68 P > .001 SD = .27	X^2 = 6.68 P < .05 SD = .07

Generally, education is positively related to participation in the labour force, although a number of caveats need to be made. First, the number of married women without children at home is very small in the age groups 25-34 and 35-44. Thus the variations in these age groups are likely to be highly unstable. Second, the reduced rates of participation of married women having a B.A. degree among the youngest and oldest groups with 3 or more children at home suggests the possibility that younger women with extended years of education (having the B.A. degree) are just beginning to enter the labour force, while in the 45-54 age group with 3 children at home may be more likely to have left their earlier careers in order to care for their children.

FINANCIAL DEMANDS:

I expected to find that the higher the financial demands the more likely married women are to participate in the labour force. Women whose husbands are unemployed are more likely to participate in the labour force to pay bills, debts, etc. than those women whose husbands have a job. Sweet's (1973) and Moore's (1989) studies found that a woman will get a job if her husband loses a job or is unable to work. Moore (1990) states that if a husband continues to experience spells of unemployment, the woman will likely emerge as the primary breadwinner.

TABLE VI

PERCENTAGE OF MARRIED WOMEN PARTICIPATING

BY MAIN ACTIVITY OF SPOUSE

PARTICIPATION IN LABOUR FORCE	MAIN ACTIVITY OF SPOUSE	
	PARTICIPATING	NOT PARTICIPATING
PARTICIPATING	60%	33%
NOT PARTICIPATING	40%	67%
ALL	(2670)	(437)

$X^2 = 110.15$
$P < .001$

My data does not support my hypothesis. My results show that if the husband is employed, the woman is more likely to participate in the labour force. If the husband is unemployed, the wife is also unemployed. I presume that this might be explained by the fact that both husband and wife possess the skills necessary for employment or both lack the skills and education necessary for employment. When I controlled for education in Table VII, the original relationship disappeared for only those cases where the wife had a B.A. or more and the husband had attained highschool or less. It is not clear why wives' labour force participation is associated with the husband's employment status when their education levels are similar (See Appendix C for Tables showing further detail).

TABLE VII

PERCENTAGE OF MARRIED WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION BY SPOUSE'S PARTICIPATION BY MARRIED WOMEN'S EDUCATION BY SPOUSE'S EDUCATION

BOTH HIGH SCHOOL OR LESS EDUCATION		
	SPOUSE'S PARTICIPATION	
RESPONDENT	PARTICIPATING	NOT PARTICIPATING
PARTICIPATING	50 %	18 %
NOT PARTICIPATING	50 %	82 %
	(914)	(213)
X^2 = 72.16 P < .001		

WIFE B. A. OR MORE - HUSBAND HIGH SCHOOL OR LESS		
	SPOUSE'S PARTICIPATION	
RESPONDENT	PARTICIPATING	NOT PARTICIPATING
PARTICIPATING	62 %	62 %
NOT PARTICIPATING	38 %	38 %
	(71)	(17)
X^2 = .00 P > .05		

WIFE B. A. OR MORE - HUSBAND B. A. OR MORE		
	SPOUSE'S PARTICIPATION	
RESPONDENT	PARTICIPATING	NOT PARTICIPATING
PARTICIPATING	71 %	53 %
NOT PARTICIPATING	29 %	47 %
	(217)	(12)
X^2 = 1.76 P > .05		

My findings follow Rashid's results. Rashid (1991) found that the traditional relationship of a woman working only when her husband is unemployed has lost must of its strength and in fact, the dual earner family is already becoming the norm rather than the exception. Phillips and Phillips (1993) found that women need to enter the workforce in order to maintain the real income of the family, particularly in a period of steadily rising costs, falling real incomes and rising tax burdens, or to purchase goods considered necessities due to rising expectations or social pressures. In addition, with continuous high unemployment, more married women need to work in order to guarantee a measure of family income security.

Some support for this thesis could be established if one assumes that increased number of hours worked rather than being in a dual income family is the more important factor. Indeed, by comparing the mean number of hours husbands worked for the group of married women who were participating in the labour force with the mean number of hours husband worked for married women not in the labour force, husbands worked an average 45 hours a week for the latter group compared to an average of 44 hours for the former group. This is shown in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII

NUMBER OF HOURS SPOUSE WORKED PER WEEK BY MARRIED WOMEN'S LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION, AGES 25-55

	MEAN	STD DEVIATION	CASES
PARTICIPATING	44	9.56	1419
NOT PARTICIPATING	45	10.51	884

$t < .05$

As shown in Table VIII there is a small but significant negative relationship in number of hours spouse worked per week and the likelihood of the wife participating.

I also presumed that if the household income was less than $20,000, with only 1 wage earner in the household, married women would have to seek employment since the extra money would be needed to keep up with the increasing costs of living.

TABLE IX

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN WORKING BY TOTAL HOUSEHOLD INCOME

WORKING	< 19,999	20 - 39,999	40 - 59,999	60 - 79,999	80 +
WORKING	16 %	44 %	61 %	75 %	78 %
SEEKING WORK	2 %	3 %	1 %	1 %	
NOT WORKING	82 %	53 %	38 %	24 %	22 %
ALL	(222)	(706)	(692)	(389)	(208)

X^2 = 291.23
P < .001
SD = .24

My hypothesis was not supported by my data or by the literature. My findings showed that if the total household income was less than $19,999 the majority of women were not working and very few were seeking work. My table shows a direct and positive correlation between total household income and married women's participation. Oderkirk (1992) found that 23% of two parent families with low incomes received social assistance in 1990. She found that many families with low incomes must rely on assistance from individuals and organizations in their communities, such as food banks, to survive. My data did

support Chawla's (1992) findings that the proportion of wives who worked climbed as family incomes rose. The contribution of wives towards family income has been increasing so that in 1991 the earning of wives in dual-earner couples on average account for close to 30% of total family income. During times of rising incomes and prosperity, working wives augment family incomes and raise standards of living. On the other hand, during recession periods, the contribution of working wives absorbs some of the effects of the recession and helps maintain family living standards (Phillips and Phillips, 1993). Moore (1990) found that increasingly, wives are out earning their husbands. They are becoming the principal breadwinners in certain families.

MARITAL STATUS:

I expected to find that single women would be more likely to work outside the home than married or divorced/separated/widowed women. This is because single women are the only income earners, they need money to survive, and they are less likely to have family responsibilities. Table X presents the results of my analysis based on this expectation.

TABLE X

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN PARTICIPATING BY MARITAL STATUS

PARTICIPATION IN LABOUR FORCE	MARRIED	MARITAL STATUS DIVORCED/SEPARATED/ WIDOWED	SINGLE
PARTICIPATING	59 %	66 %	88 %
NOT PARTICIPATING	41 %	34 %	12 %
ALL	(3,586)	(597)	(737)

$X^2 = 225.98$
$P < .001$

My hypothesis that single women would be more likely to work outside the home than married or divorced/separated/widowed women was supported by the literature and the data. My data also supports the literature that divorced/separated/widowed women are the second most likely category to participate in the labour force. Fox and Biber (1984) believe that as divorce rates continue to rise, divorced or separated women are finding it economically necessary to enter the workforce especially if they have children.

I then controlled for age, focusing on the prime age groups (25-34, 35-44 and 45-54) because I presumed age affected women's labour force participation. I presumed that single women in all age groups would participate more in the labour force than married and divorced/separated/widowed women, because they are the only income earners.

TABLE XI

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN PARTICIPATING BY MARITAL STATUS, BY AGES 25-54

MARITAL STATUS	AGE					
	25 - 34		35 - 44		45 - 54	
MARRIED	64 %	(1106)	64 %	(1016)	60 %	(675)
DIVORCED/ SEPARATED/ WIDOWED	80 %	(82)	83 %	(158)	71 %	(177)
SINGLE	91 %	(258)	86 %	(107)	90 %	(34)

X^2	=	76.74	X^2	=	39.44	X^2	=	17.51
P	<	.001	P	<	.001	P	<	.001
SD	=	.24	SD	=	.19	SD	=	.14

Table XI supports my hypothesis. Single women in all age categories participate more in the labour force than married or divorced/separated/widowed women.

FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES:

I expected to find that women in all age groups who have more children are less likely to participate in the labour force than women who have fewer children. This is because the more children a woman has, the less time she has to work outside the home. Table XII presents the results of my data.

TABLE XII

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN PARTICIPATING BY NUMBER OF CHILDREN BY MARITAL STATUS

MARITAL STATUS	NUMBER OF RESPONDENT'S CHILDREN					
	0 CHILDREN		1-2 CHILDREN		3 OR MORE	
MARRIED	44 %	(665)	58 %	(1782)	47 %	(526)
DIVORCED/ SEPARATED/ WIDOWED	56 %	(200)	74 %	(277)	37 %	(46)
SINGLE	89 %	(14)	60 %	(83)	47 %	(5)

X^2 = 46.99
P < .001
SD = .03

X^2 = 31.73
P < .001
SD = .05

X^2 = 5.24
P > .05
SD = -.26

Table XII shows that if women (in all age groups) have children, regardless of their marital status, those with one or two children are more likely to be in the labour force than those with three or more children. But a smaller percentage of married women without children are likely to be in the labour force than those with children. Waite (1980) and Oppenheimer (1982) found that women with many children are less likely to work than women with fewer children. My data supports this. However, the data does not support Waite (1980) or Oppenheimer (1982) in their findings that women with children are less likely to work than women with no children. Only single women with no

children support their finding. This association is low and negative. It is likely the reason for this finding is because of the inclusion of the very young women, 15-24 and the older women 55 and over. When we look at women in the prime working age categories the findings are more consistent with Waite's and Oppenheimer's findings. This is shown in Table XIII. I found that all women with 1-2 children participate more than those with 3 or more children.

TABLE XIII

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN PARTICIPATING BY NUMBER OF CHILDREN

BY MARITAL STATUS BY AGE

		NUMBER OF CHILDREN			
		1 - 2 CHILDREN		3 OR MORE CHILDREN	
MARRIED					
AGE	25 - 34	55 %	(608)	38 %	(161)
	35 - 44	64 %	(624)	54 %	(264)
	45 - 55	61 %	(321)	53 %	(78)
DIVORCED/SEPARATED/WIDOWED					
AGE	25 - 34	82 %	(53)	41 %	(9)
	35 - 44	88 %	(88)	47 %	(21)
	45 - 54	74 %	(86)	28 %	(10)
SINGLE					
AGE	25 - 34	67 %	(33)	42 %	(3)
	35 - 44	87 %	(9)		
	45 - 54	100 %	(3)		

Kemp (1994) notes that it is difficult to discern whether being in the labour force reduces the number of children a woman has (because she is working she has 1 or 2 children), or whether having a lot of children keeps a woman from participating. Kemp believes part of the difficulty with the question lies in the fact that being in the labour force is a dynamic process not a single event. Individual women may go in and out of the labour force many times across their lives. In addition, although having a child is a single event, the negative effect of the child's presence in the household on the potential labour market participation of the mother remains high for the pre-school years and continues through the early teenage years.

Fox and Biber (1984) conclude that women are becoming more active in the labour force because couples are having fewer children or no children at all. Further, they found that even among those with children, couples can now expect to spend 13 years together after the last child has left them. Consequently, women are finding that they have more years to engage in activities beyond bearing children and this makes active participation in the labour force more appealing.

It is possible that even more dramatic differences appear between having no children or some children. Thus, I compared these two groups. This is shown in Table XIV. I found that women in all age groups, regardless of their marital status, who had no children, participate more, than those with any number of children. My data supports Slotzenberg's and Waite's (1984) findings that the number and age of children are powerful determinants of whether or not a mother works for pay or seeks to do so.

TABLE XIV

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN PARTICIPATING BY NUMBER

OF CHILDREN BY MARITAL STATUS BY AGE

		NUMBER OF CHILDREN			
		NO CHILDREN		CHILDREN	
MARRIED					
AGE	25 - 34	96 %	(73)	52 %	(769)
	35 - 44	72 %	(43)	61 %	(888)
	45 - 54	61 %	(230)	59 %	(399)
DIVORCED/SEPARATED/WIDOWED					
AGE	25 - 34	90 %	(4)	76 %	(63)
	35 - 44	81 %	(21)	81 %	(109)
	45 - 54	70 %	(67)	69 %	(96)
SINGLE					
AGE	25 - 34	100 %	(3)	65 %	(36)
	35 - 44	87 %	(4)	83 %	(10)
	45 - 54	100 %	(2)	100 %	(3)

I also presumed that the lower the family demands, the more likely a woman is to participate in the labour force. Women with older children (13 and over) are more likely to work than women with young children (less than 13) because older children can care for themselves and the cost of raising older children is greater than that of younger children.

TABLE XV

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN PARTICIPATING BY AGE

OF CHILDREN BY MARITAL STATUS

MARITAL STATUS	RESPONDENT'S CHILDREN IN HOUSEHOLD BY AGE					
	NONE		LESS THAN 13 YEARS OLD		GREATER THAN 13 YEARS OLD	
MARRIED	65 %	(1270)	51 %	(1097)	68 %	(190)
DIVORCED/SEPARATED WIDOWED	64 %	(273)	70 %	(81)	84 %	(36)
SINGLE	92 %	(648)	53 %	(77)	100 %	(9)

MARRIED	DIVORCED/SEPARATED/WIDOWED	SINGLE
^{2} = 53.31	X^2 = 6.33	X^2 = 97.40
P < .001	P < .05	P < .001
SD = -.08	SD = .12	SD = -.32

Table XV shows that women, regardless of their marital status, with children older than 13 are more likely to work than women with children less than 13 years of age. Divorced/separated/widowed women, with children less than 13 or greater than 13 are more likely than married women to participate in the labour force. Divorced/separated/widowed women with no children are the least likely of all marital groups to participate in the labour force. My hypothesis was supported by both the literature and the data.

Deveraux (1993) and Oppenheimer (1982) found that the younger the children, the more time intensive they are, and the harder it is for the mother to work. Older children are less time consuming and more expensive, resulting in

women working. Logan and Belliveau (1995) agree. However, their research went further and found that although mothers with young children are less likely than other women to be employed full time, they spend considerably more time on unpaid work (domestic chores and family care). Consequently, they tend to work longer hours when one includes paid and unpaid work, than do women with older children or no children at home.

When I controlled for age of the respondent, focusing on the prime age categories (25-34, 35-44 and 45-54 - Table XVI), I found that older women with children less than 13 participated more and older women with children greater than 13 participated less. The literature does not provide any explanation for this relationship. A possible rational could be that as women and their children age, children often provide for some of their needs through part time work or it might be more plausible to presume that these women were in the labour force at good jobs before they had children.

TABLE XVI

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN PARTICIPATING BY CHILD'S AGE

BY MARITAL STATUS BY AGE

MARITAL STATUS		CHILD'S AGE					
		NONE		LESS THAN 13 YEARS OLD		GREATER THAN 13 YEARS OLD	
MARRIED							
AGE	25 - 34	93 %	(335)	51 %	(681)	80 %	(11)
	35 - 44	85 %	(126)	55 %	(322)	69 %	(136)
	45 - 54	62 %	(275)	81 %	(10)	53 %	(37)
DIVORCED/SEPARATED/WIDOWED							
AGE	25 - 34	95 %	(19)	73 %	(47)	100 %	(4)
	35 - 44	89 %	(49)	81 %	(25)	85 %	(24)
	45 - 54	73 %	(81)			72 %	(8)
SINGLE							
AGE	25 - 34	96 %	(222)	60 %	(31)	100 %	(4)
	35 - 44	87 %	(97)	79 %	(6)	100 %	(2)
	45 - 54	88 %	(30)	100 %	(1)	100 %	(3)

I expected to find that a woman who has childcare is more likely to participate in the labour force than a woman with no childcare available.

TABLE XVII

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN PARTICIPATING BY CHILDCARE

RECEIVED ON A REGULAR BASIS BY MARITAL BASIS

MARITAL STATUS	CHILDCARE ON A REGULAR BASIS	
	YES	NO
MARRIED	79 % (484)	42 % (1108)
DIVORCED/SEPARATED/WIDOWED	87 % (60)	63 % (95)
SINGLE	85 % (35)	34 % (46)

MARRIED	DIVORCED/SEPARATED/WIDOWED	SINGLE
X^2 = 185.22	X^2 = 11.05	X^2 = 21
P < .001	P < .001	P < .001
SD = .37	SD = .25	SD = .51

TABLE XVII shows that women, regardless of their marital status, with childcare received on a regular basis are more likely to work than women with no childcare. Even when I controlled for age of respondent (Table XVIII) the same relationship existed. Women, no matter what age or marital status, who receive child care on a regular basis participate more. My hypothesis was supported by both the literature and my data. While the hypothesis is supported, it is unclear which is the cause and which is the effect. The presence of childcare releases women to work but working women require childcare.

TABLE XVIII

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN PARTICIPATING BY CHILDCARE BY MARITAL STATUS BY AGE

		CHILDCARE RECEIVED ON A REGULAR BASIS			
		YES		NO	
MARRIED					
AGE	25 - 34	77 %	(308)	33 %	(439)
	35 - 44	87 %	(138)	50 %	(530)
	45 - 54	100 %	(8)	52 %	(84)
DIVORCED/SEPARATED/WIDOWED					
AGE	25 - 34	92 %	(34)	53 %	(27)
	35 - 44	82 %	(22)	75 %	(55)
	45 - 54			50 %	(8)
SINGLE					
AGE	25 - 34	90 %	(14)	46 %	(19)
	35 - 44	86 %	(6)	58 %	(2)
	45 - 54			100 %	(1)

FINDINGS FROM MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

After looking at educational level, financial demands, marital status and family responsibilities individually, I examined the association of each of these factors on labour force participation while controlling for the remaining variables. These effects can be determined by using multiple regression analysis. The crosstabulation analysis represented a crude approximation, whereas the regression analysis is a refinement. Regression analysis allows me to see the relative effects of the different variables and say something about how these variables interact. More specifically, regression analysis allows me to see which variable has the strongest impact on women's participation in the labour force.

My variables (family responsibilities, financial demands, marital status and education) were recoded for the regression analysis. When possible I left the variables continuous, but when they were not interval scales, I converted them into dummy variables. Variables for family responsibilities, number of children (1-2 Child , Many Child), age of children (Old Child, Young Child) and childcare were recoded into dummy variables. Marital status (Divorced/Separated/Widowed) as well as one of my variables for financial demands, husbands main activity (Husband Works), were also recoded into dummy variables. My other variable for financial demands, total household income (House Income), was left as a continuous variable as was education and age. I also created and included new variables in the regression when I saw in

the crosstab analysis that certain variables interacted with one another. (See Appendix B for scoring of variables) In my regression I only looked at women aged 25-54. I left out the very young 15-24, and the very old 55-64, since they are the least likely to be affected by issues related to childcare.

Before running the regression, I ran a collinearity test to see if any of the variables were highly correlated with one another.

Table XIX shows that there are no variables that are highly correlated with each other (over .50). The highest correlation is -.43 which is between the variables respondent's age and young children. It is then followed by a correlation of .42 between the variables 1 or 2 children and young children, .34 between the variables childcare and women's participation, and childcare and young children.

TABLE XIX

CORRELATION MATRIX

	Participate	House	Education	Divorced Separated Widowed	Husband Works	Young Child	Old Child	Childcare	Age	D/S/W Young Child	Single Many Child	Many Child	1 2 Child
Participate	1 00	05	- 21	0 07	0 04	0 19	0 02	0 34	0 07		0 01	0 18	0 10
House Income		1.00	0.24	-0 00	-0 01	0.06	0 04	0 08	0 09		0 00	0 02	0 00
Education			1 00	-0 01	-0 07	0 03	0 01	0 04	0 08		0 07	0 08	0 02
D/S/W				1 00		0 10	0 03	0 05	0 17		0 04	0 06	0 03
Husband Works					1 00	0 10	0 03	0 07	0 19			0 04	0 05
Yound Child						1 00	0 17	0 34	0 43		0 11	0 05	0 42
Old Child							1 00	-0 16	0 09		0 05	0 07	0 23
Childcare								1 00	0 24		0 05	0 14	0 14
Age									1 00		0 07	0 01	0 02
D/S/W Young Child										1 00			
Single Many Child											1 00	0 03	0 10
Many Child												1 00	0 41
1 2 Child													1 00

I then proceeded to run stepwise regression using the forward method. In the regression all the variables for family responsibilities - number of children, (Many Child), age of children (Young Child) and childcare, came out as important factors influencing a woman's participation in the labour force. Education level and age were also significant. The variables for financial demands - husband's main activity (Husband Works) and total household income (House Income), as well as marital status (Divorced/Separated/Widowed women) were not important. This is shown in Table XX.

TABLE XX

REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS

VARIABLES	BETA	SIGNIFICANCE
CHILDCARE	.42	000
YOUNG CHILD (CHILDREN < 13 YEARS OLD)	-.39	.000
EDUCATION	-.19	000
AGE	-.12	.000
MANY CHILD (3 CHILDREN OR MORE IN HOUSE)	-.08	.000
HOUSE INCOME (TOTAL HOUSEHOLD INCOME)		
D/S/W (DIVORCED/SEPARATED/WIDOWED WOMEN)		
OLD CHILD (CHILDREN AGE 13 AND OVER)		
1-2 CHILD (ONE OR TWO CHILDREN IN HOUSEHOLD)		
SINGLE MANY CHILD (SINGLE WOMEN WITH MANY CHILDREN)		
R^2 = .28		

Receiving childcare on a regular basis was the most important variable in influencing whether a woman participated in the labour force (Beta = .42). As the crosstabulation analysis showed, having young children influences a woman's labour force participating negatively (Beta = -.39) as does having many children (Beta = -.08). My findings support Oppenheimer's research that younger children are more time intensive, making it harder for women to participate, and women with many children are less likely to participate than women with fewer children. Both my regression analysis and crosstabulation analysis support Slotzenberg's and Waites' (1984) findings, that the number and age of children are powerful determinents of whether or not a mother works for pay or seeks to do so.

Regression analysis also revealed that the higher the education the more likely a woman is to participate in the labour force. As the literature and crosstabulation analysis point out, education has a positive effect on the employment of women.

I also found that the older the woman gets, the less likely she is to participate in the labour force. Family responsibilities are the most important reason why women participate or not in the labour force. Receiving childcare on a regular basis was the most important variable used to measure family responsibilities. Receiving childcare and having young children have close beta weights. Receiving childcare has a positive relationship on women's participation

and having young children has a negative relationship on women's participation. It remains unclear whether women work because childcare is available or working women seek childcare. What is clear is that working women require childcare as suggested on page 65.

The R^2 for this regression was .28 which means 28% of the variance was explained by all the variables I chose, leaving 62% of the variance to be explained by other reasons why women participate in the labour force. These may include personal reasons, parental encouragement, availability of part-time work, husband's support etc. It is understandable that there are still more reasons left to explain why women participate in the labour force, since there are many different social and personal reasons that affect a woman's labour force participation.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS FROM REGRESSION REGARDING THE NUMBER OF HOURS WOMEN WORK

Now that I have identified the major reasons why women participate in the labour force, my data base allows me to look at the effects of my variables - family demands, marital status, education and financial demands on the number of hours women work.

Schor (1991) states that especially in the last twenty years the amount of time Americans have spent at their jobs has risen steadily. She found that the rise in the number of hours worked is not confined to a few selective groups. Hours have risen for men as well as women, for those in the working class as well as professionals. The increase in hours also spans over a wide range of industries and has grown for all marital status and income groups.

Schor (1991) and Cohen (1992) both found in their empirical research that women increase their work hours for various reasons. These include financial reasons, expectations from their work environment or a requirement of their job, or they choose to put in more hours to keep up with the competition. Schor (1991) found that women now take less time off for the birth of a child and are not as likely to stop working during the summer vacation in order to care for children. More women are now holding down a job while bringing up their children. She states that the pattern of women's employment is getting to

look more and more like men's. Each additional hour a woman puts into her paid job reduces her household work by nearly half an hour. She spends less time with her children, cooks fewer meals and does less cleaning.

However, Marshall (1994) notes that although women with children may be working more, compared to women without children, the employed mothers with children at home spend fewer hours and days per week engaged in paid work. They are also more likely to work irregular schedules, varied days, and weekends. These arrangements are most common among mothers of pre-schoolers.

Financial demands affect the number of hours worked. Schor (1991) believes men and women are working more hours because of financial demands. She argues that because people need money to meet regular household expenses and pay off debts, many are moonlighting or working overtime. As it is no longer possible for families to make it on a single income. Schor states that by adding a second income, or increasing the woman's hours, many families have averted a real decline in their material standard of living. Kenny (1993) also found that the main reason women are going back to work and working more hours is because of economic necessity.

I ran a second collinearity test to see if any variables were highly correlated with the hours worked (over .50). Table XXI shows that there are no variables highly correlated with each other. As before, the highest

correlations are between the variables childcare received and young children (.50), followed by the variables one or two children in household and young children less than thirteen (.48) and the variables age of respondent and childcare received on a regular basis. (-.36)

TABLE XXI

CORRELATION MATRIX

	Number Hours	House Income	Education	Divorced Separated Widowed	Husband Works	Young Child	Old Child	Childcare	Age	Divorced Separated Widowed Young Child	Single Many Child	1 2 Child	Many Child
Number Hours	1 00	0 4	09	05	02	06	07	13	04		00	08	05
House Income		1 00	07	01	03	03	05	07	06		02	02	01
Education			1 00	05	04	03	02	13	09		02	07	05
Divorced Separated Widowed				' 00		07	04	02	19		04	07	07
Husband Works					1 00	06	02	11	16			02	01
Young Child						1 00	16	50	32		12	48	07
Old Child							1 00	25	10		10	26	06
Childcare								1 00	36		06	14	14
Age													
Divorced Separated Widowed Young Child													
Single Many Child													
1 2 Child													
Many Child													

Then I ran a stepwise regression analysis using the forward method to test which variables - family responsibilities, financial demands, marital status or education, influence the number of hours a woman works and to see what variables have the greatest influence on the number of hours she works. My variables were all coded in the same fashion as in my first regression on women's participation. The variables were left as continuous when possible and when not possible, they were recoded into dummy variables (See Appendix B). For this regression I selected women in the prime employment age categories (25-34, 35-44 and 45-54) who worked. I excluded those who were not working. To determine the number of hours a woman worked, (now my dependent variable), I multiplied the number of weeks respondent worked at a job during the past 12 months by the number of hours per week the respondent worked.

Table XXII indicates my results. Once again, the variables chosen to represent family demands - childcare, and age of children (Young Child) came out as important factors in influencing the number of hours a woman works. Education was also significant. The most important factor influencing the number of hours a woman works was childcare. Having young children and low educational levels both affect the number of hours a woman works negatively. Marital status (Divorced/Separated/Widowed women) and financial demands (Husband Works and House Income) did not prove to be important in influencing the number of hours a woman works.

TABLE XXII

REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS

VARIABLES	BETA	SIGNIFICANCE
CHILDCARE	.20	000
YOUNG CHILD (CHILDREN LESS THAN 13)	-.16	.000
EDUCATION	-.08	.038
HOUSE INCOME (TOTAL HOUSEHOLD INCOME)		
D/S/W (DIVORCED/SEPARATED/WIDOWED WOMEN)		
1-2 CHILD (ONE OR TWO CHILDREN IN HOUSEHOLD)		
MANY CHILD (THREE OR MORE CHILDREN IN HOUSEHOLD)		
AGE		
SINGLE MANY CHILD (SINGLE AND MANY CHILDREN IN HOUSE)		
R^2 = .04		

The R^2 for this regression was .04. Four percent of the variance is explained by all the variables I chose, leaving 96% of the variance to be explained by other factors that influence the number of hours a woman works.

Most of the variable that are important in determining why women participate in the labour force, also came out as important in determining the number of hours women work. The only difference was in terms of age and having many children (3+). Age and having many children influence women's labour force participation but do not play an important role in influencing the number of hours a woman works.

More of the variance can be explained in accounting for labour force participation (R^2 = .28) than for hours worked (R^2 = .04).

FINDINGS ON SATISFACTION LEVELS OF WORKING WOMEN

What are the consequences of women working? In my study I found that the more hours women worked the more dissatisfied they were with the balance between family and work. Comparing dissatisfied with satisfied women, the former worked an average of 40 hours or more. It seems that although more women are entering the labour force, if they work too many hours and cannot balance both home and career life, they become unhappy with life in general. This finding is shown in Table XXIII. I selected a variable from the questionnaire measuring the extent to which there is satisfaction in balancing work and family life ("Are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the balance between your job, family and home life?") and ran it against the number of hours a woman worked. The variable was recoded in two categories: satisfied or dissatisfied. I selected for working women only.

TABLE XXIII

NUMBER OF HOURS WORKED PER WEEK BY SATISFACTION WITH BALANCE BETWEEN JOB AND FAMILY BY MARITAL STATUS

	MEAN HOURS WORKED	STANDARD DEVIATION	CASES
MARRIED			
DISSATISFIED	40	8.06	235
SATISFIED	36	10.32	1194
T < .001			
DIVORCED/SEPARATED/WIDOWED			
DISSATISFIED	43	8.52	49
SATISFIED	38	8.38	213
T < .001			
SINGLE			
DISSATISFIED	43	11.06	43
SATISFIED	39	9.39	283
T < .01			

Table XXIII indicates that dissatisfied women in each marital group worked more hours than the satisfied women. For each marital status group the difference between satisfied and dissatisfied women in the mean number of hours worked is statistically significant.

TABLE XXIV

NUMBER OF HOURS WORKED PER WEEK BY SATISFACTION WITH BALANCE BETWEEN JOB AND FAMILY BY MARITAL STATUS BY NUMBER OF CHILDREN

	MEAN HOURS WORKED	STANDARD DEVIATION	CASES
MARRIED			
DISSATISFIED			
NO CHILDREN	42	8.08	8
CHILDREN	39	8.04	164
SATISFIED			
NO CHILDREN	35	12.21	130
CHILDREN	36	10.63	864
NOT MARRIED			
DISSATISFIED			
NO CHILDREN	47	8.88	2
CHILDREN	42	7.64	23
SATISFIED			
NO CHILDREN	38	6.76	31
CHILDREN	37	8.14	73

$t < .001$

Table XXIV indicates that the effects of childcare on the relationship between satisfaction and the mean hours worked. As might be expected, the likelihood of women with children becoming dissatisfied occurs at a slightly less number of hours worked per week than those with no children. For those who are satisfied the relationship between hours worked and having children is less clear. The availability of childcare may play a role in these relationships.

Schor supports my findings on the difficulty of women balancing their home and career lives. Schor (1991) found that stress is on the rise, partly owing to the balancing act of reconciling the demands of work and family life. Many women feel that when they are at home they are trying to make up to their families for being away at work and as a result rarely have time for anything else. This stress has placed tremendous burdens on marriages.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

Several factors influence women's labour force participation. The factors I examined were educational level, financial demands, marital status and family responsibilities.

I found that women with high educational levels regardless of their marital status are more likely to participate in the labour force. In the prime age categories 25-34, 35-44 and 45-54, married women aged 45-54 with high levels of education and any number of children are more likely to participate than any other married women. Education has a strong effect moderated by the presence of children.

When I examined financial demands, I found that some literature indicated women worked because their husbands were unemployed. My data did not support this. Rather, my findings supported the research on dual earning families. More women are working when their husbands are working and more women are working when their total household income is greater than $40,000. The literature indicated that women work to maintain the real income of the family and to purchase goods considered necessities due to rising expectations or social pressures. I found that there is a good correspondence between the education and working status of both spouses: if the husband works, the wife is more likely to do so; but if one spouse is not

working, very often the other one is not either. The dual earner couple exists but my research also shows that there is a counterpart, the dual non-working couple. The consequence in this case seems to be a concentration of poverty and a situation where one spouse can hardly count on the other to improve the family situation, and this is an area where further research should be conducted.

The third factor I studied was marital status. My findings support the literature that single women are more likely than married or divorced/separated/widowed women to participate in the labour force and that divorced/separated/widowed women are the second group most likely to participate in the labour force. When I controlled for age I found that single women in all the prime age categories (25-34, 35-44 and 45-54), participated more in the labour force than married or divorced/separated/widowed women.

The last factor I looked at was family responsibilities. I assumed that the lower the family responsibilities, the more likely a woman was to participate in the labour force. Women, regardless of their marital status, do participate more when they have older children (age 13+), and they also participate more when they have fewer children than many children. I found that regardless of their marital status older women with children less than 13 participate more and older women with children older than 13 participate less in the labour force. Women in all the prime age categories, regardless of their marital

status, with no children, participate more than those with any number of children. Women will also be more likely to participate in the labour force when childcare is received on a regular basis.

Of all the factors I looked at, family responsibilities was the most important factor influencing women's labour force participation. The age of children, the number of children and especially receiving childcare on a regular basis are important aspects in influencing women's labour force participation. Education and the age of women were significant factors. Marital status was not an important factor. In my results, financial demands was not as important as the literature indicated. In my regression, I measured financial demands through husband's main activity and total household income. Perhaps if there were a better way to measure the income of the husband the results would have been different.

I found that the reasons that influence women's labour force participation are similar to the reasons that influence the number of hours women work. However, I can explain more of the variance in the reasons why women participate in the labour force (R^2 =.28), than for the number of hours women work (R^2 =.04). I also found that if married women worked 40 hours or more, they were more likely to be dissatisfied with the balance between their family and career life. Single and divorced/separated/widowed women were dissatisfied when they worked 43 hours or more. Having children also affects

the number of hours a woman works and here degree of satisfaction between her family and career life. This balancing act between family and career results in women developing stress. Further research should look into a way of helping women deal with both aspects of their lives.

As I reviewed the literature, I found that no researcher did a complete study on all the reasons why women work. Often the research that was done on a particular reason, such as personal or social reasons, was not complete. Too many researchers focused on a single reason such as financial factors. A complete and balanced study would have given a more accurate view of women in the workforce. Locating the reasons in the literature was difficult because the information was scattered in different texts and written during different time periods. There was no comparisons made of the different decades. Had the information been combined, a reader could have easily compared the reasons of the 90's with earlier decades.

A listing or rank order of reasons was not given in any of the literature that I reviewed. I found no study indicating which reasons were more important relative to others, nor how one reason may have affected or influenced another, nor did I find any report of case studies or personal interviews being conducted. Such research would have provided a more realistic view of women's situations in the labour force.

There are a few areas where I would like research to be conducted. One

area is a woman's desire for power and how it affects the type of job or career she wants to follow. I think women with a strong desire for power would look for employment in administrative positions that are more demanding and that require a lot of decision making. I would like to see a comparison between male and female reasons for working, for example, do males and females work for the same reasons? In addition, research could be done on how the reasons have changed over the years. In the past, the husband was the main income earner in the household. He worked to support his family. Today, with the high cost of living both husband and wife need to work to provide for the family's needs and wants. A study could also be done on how many daughters are taking over the family business as opposed to the sons. This study would give us an idea of the changing attitudes towards women.

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APPENDIX A

SAMPLING PROCEDURES

The sample for the General Social Survey was selected using two random digit dialing techniques (The Elimination of Non-working Banks Method and the Waksberg Method). In order to carry out sampling, each of the ten provinces were divided into stratas or geographic areas. Generally for each province, one represented the Census Metropolitan areas of the province, and the other the non-census Metropolitan areas. For this cycle of GSS, #5, there were two supplementary samples: the Department of Health and Welfare sponsored a supplementary sample of the elderly (aged 65+) and the province of Ontario sponsored an increase in the sample in that province, including an increase in the supplementary sample of the elderly (Statistics Canada, 1990).

The combined effect of these was to roughly double the size of the samples of elderly persons outside of Ontario, double the sample size in Ontario of persons aged 15-64 and quadruple the sample size of the elderly in Ontario. Two questionnaires were used to conduct the interviews: the control Form GSS 5-I and the main questionnaires GSS5-2. Respondents were interviewed in the official language of their choice. The telephone data collection took place during the period January to March 1990 (Statistics Canada, 1990).

All telephone interviewing took place from centralized telephone facilities in Statistics Canada's regional offices with calls being made from approximately 9:00 a.m. until 9:30 p.m. Interviewers were trained by Statistics Canada staff

in telephone interviewing techniques, survey concepts and procedures in a three and a half day classroom training session. The majority of interviewers had previous telephone interviewing experience (Statistics Canada, 1990).

Data from the survey questionnaire was entered directly into mini-computers in Statistics Canada's regional offices and transmitted to Ottawa. The data capture program allowed for a valid range of codes from each question and automatically followed the flow of the questionnaire. All survey records were subjected to an exhaustive computer edit to identify and correct invalid or inconsistent information on the questionnaires. Records with missing or incorrect information were assigned non-response codes or corrected from other information from the respondent's questionnaire (Statistics Canada, 1990).

In most cases editing was "bottom-up", meaning that specific related information following a question with a branching pattern was employed to ensure the branching was correct. The data for all questions that allowed for write-in responses were coded into categories. Where possible, the coding followed standard classification systems as used in the census of population. In other cases, the write-in responses were examined and then coded into distinct categories which seemed to be similar. In a few cases, some of the write-in categories were coded back to categories listed on the questionnaire. A number of questions allowed for multiple responses and all responses were

retained with each option shown as a separate variable on the data file (Statistics Canada, 1990). I adjusted the weight on my sample so I could apply statistical measures and generalize my results. I looked at specific questions in the survey that helped me measure and operationalize the answers to my research question.

APPENDIX B

VARIABLES RECODED

DVSEX (Sex of Respondent)
Select if DVSEX = 2 (Female)

AGE: was continuous
Recoded age into
1 15-24
2 25-34
3 35-44
4 45-54
5 55-64

In certain cases age was recoded into
1 25-34
2 35-44
3 45-54

Recoded for regression: left as continuous (25-54).

DVCURMS4 (Respondent's Marital Status)
1 Married
2 Common Law
3 Divorced
4 Separated
5 Widowed
6 Single
9 Missing Values

Recoded for crosstab tables into
1 Married (Common-Law)
2 Divorced/Separated/Widowed
6 Single
9 Missing Values

Recoded DVCURMS4 for regression into DUMMY VARIABLES
Recode DVCURMS4 (2 = 1) (else = 0) into Divorced/Separated Widowed
Recode DVCURMS4 (6 =1) (else =0) into Single

CHILDIN (Number of Respondent's Children Living in Household)

0 No children
1 1 Child

2 2 Children
3 3 Children
4 4 Children
5 5 or More Children
7-9 Missing Values

Recoded for crosstab tables into
0 No Children
1 1-2 Children
2 3 or More Children

In certain cases recoded into
0 No Children
1 Children

Recoded for regression into DUMMY VARIABLE
Recode Childin (1 = 1) (else =0) into 1-2 Child
Recode Childin (2 = 1) (else = 0) into Many Child

CHILDAGE (Respondent's Children in Household by Age)

0 No Children
1 No Children < 19 in Household
2 All Children < 5 in Household
3 All Children > 4 and < 13
4 All Children > 12 and < 19
5 All Children < 13
6 All Children > 4 and < 19
7 At least one < 5 but not all
8-9 Missing Values

Recoded for crosstab tables into
0 No Children
1 Children < 13
2 Children > 13

Recoded for regression into DUMMY VARIABLE
Recode Childage (1 = 1) (else =0) into Young Child
Recode Childage (2 = 1) (else =0) into Old Child

CIOA (Childcare Received on a Regular Basis)
1 YES
2 NO

9,0 Missing Values

Recoded for crosstab tables and regression into

0 NO
1 YES

DVSATBAL (Satisfaction with Balance Between Job and Family)

1 Very Dissatisfied
2 Somewhat Dissatisfied
3 Somewhat Satisfied
4 Very Satisfied
5 Satisfied
6 Dissatisfied
7,9 Missing Values

Recoded for crosstab tables into

0 Dissatisfied
1 Satisfied

DVC10 (Number of Children in Household < 15 years of age)

1 1 Child
2 2 Children
3 3 Children
4 4 Children
5 5 or More Children
9,0 Missing Values

Recoded for crosstab tables and regression into

0 3 or More Children
1 1-2 Children

DVEDUCR 1 (Respondents Highest Level of Education Attained)

1 Masters or earned Doctorate
2 Bachelor
3 Diploma from CEGEP
4 Diploma from Trade School
5 Some University
6 Some College/CEGEP
7 Some Trade/Technical School
8 Secondary School Graduation

9 Some Secondary School
10 Elementary School
11 No Schooling
12,99 Missing Values

Recoded for crosstab tables into

1 High School or less
2 CEGEP/Trade/Some University
3 B.A. or higher

Recoded for regression: left as continuous

L26 (Respondent's Main Activity)

1 Working at a Job
2 Looking for Work
3 A Student
4 Keeping House
5 Retired
6 Disabled
7 Other
9,0 Missing Values

Recoded for crosstab tables and regression into

Select if (L26 NE 3)
0 Not Participating
1 Participating

DVSOC (Group Standard Occupation Code)

Recoded for crosstab tables into

1 Professional
2 Clerical
3 Sales
4 Primary
5 Manufacturing

L 38 (Spouse's Main Activity)

1 Working

2 Looking for Work
3 A Student
4 Keeping House
5 Retired
6 Disabled
7,9,0 Missing Values

Recoded for crosstab tables and regression into

Select if (L38 NE 3)
0 Not Working
1 Working

L45 (Spouse Highest Level of Education)

1 Masters or earned Doctorate
2 Bachelor
3 Diploma from CEGEP
4 Diploma from Trade School
5 Some University
6 Some College/CEGEP
7 Some Trade/Technical School
8 Secondary School Graduation
9 Some Secondary School
10 Elementary School
11 No Schooling
99 Missing Values

Recoded for crosstab tables into

1 High School or less
2 CEGEP/Trade/Some University
3 B.A. or higher

L50 (Respondents Total Household Income)

9 Less than $ 5,000
10 $ 5,000 - $ 9,999
11 $10,000 - $14,999
12 $15,000 - $19,999
13 $20,000 - $29,999
14 $30,000 - $39,999
15 $40,000 - $59,999

16 $60,000 - $79,999
17 $80,000 and more
98,99 Missing Values.

Recoded for crosstab tables into

1 less than $19,999
2 $20,000 - $39,999
3 $40,000 - $59,999
4 $60,000 - $79,999
5 $80,000 or more.

Recoded for regression: left as continuous

COMPUTE N HOURS = 129 X 130
COMPUTE DSWYG = 0
If (DSW EQ 1 and Age LT 25) DSWYG = 1
If (DVCURMS4 EQ -9) DSWYG = -9
Missing values DSWYG (-9)

COMPUTE SINGMO
If (SINGLE EQ 1 and CHILDREN GT 0) SINGMO = 1
If (DVCURMS4 EQ -9 or CHILDIN EQ -9) SINGMO = -9
Missing values SINGMO (-9)

All variables that had "don't know" or "not stated" as answers were put into missing values.

APPENDIX C

TABLE VII (Continued)
PERCENTAGE OF MARRIED WOMEN PARTICIPATING BY SPOUSE'S PARTICIPATION BY MARRIED WOMEN'S EDUCATION BY SPOUSE'S EDUCATION

WIFE CEGEP/TRADE/SOME UNIVERSITY - HUSBAND HIGH SCHOOL OR LESS		
	SPOUSE'S PARTICIPATION	
RESPONDENT	PARTICIPATING	NOT PARTICIPATING
PARTICIPATING	70 %	60 %
NOT PARTICIPATING	30 %	40 %
	(521)	(43)
X^2 = 2.04		
P > .05		

WIFE HIGH SCHOOL OR LESS - HUSBAND CEGEP/TRADE/SOME UNIVERSITY		
	SPOUSE'S PARTICIPATION	
RESPONDENT	PARTICIPATING	NOT PARTICIPATING
PARTICIPATING	46 %	28 %
NOT PARTICIPATING	54 %	72 %
	(212)	(18)
X^2 = 2.24		
P > .05		

WIFE CEGEP/TRADE/SOME UNIVERSITY - HUSBAND CEGEP/TRADE/SOME UNIVERSITY		
	SPOUSE'S PARTICIPATION	
RESPONDENT	PARTICIPATING	NOT PARTICIPATING
PARTICIPATING	65 %	55 %
NOT PARTICIPATING	35 %	45 %
	(445)	(23)
X^2 = .99		
P > .05		

WIFE B.A. OR MORE - HUSBAND CEGEP/TRADE/SOME UNIVERSITY

	SPOUSE'S PARTICIPATION	
RESPONDENT	PARTICIPATING	NOT PARTICIPATING
PARTICIPATING	75 %	46 %
NOT PARTICIPATING	28 %	54 %
	(86)	(4)

$X^2 = 1.77$
$P > .05$

WIFE HIGH SCHOOL OR LESS - HUSBAND B.A. OR MORE

	SPOUSE'S PARTICIPATION	
RESPONDENT	PARTICIPATING	NOT PARTICIPATING
PARTICIPATING	48 %	51 %
NOT PARTICIPATING	52 %	49 %
	(68)	(7)

$X^2 = .02$
$P > .05$

WIFE CEGEP/TRADE/SOME UNIVERSITY - HUSBAND B A. OR MORE

	SPOUSE'S PARTICIPATION	
RESPONDENT	PARTICIPATING	NOT PARTICIPATING
PARTICIPATING	59 %	16 %
NOT PARTICIPATING	41 %	84 %
	(194)	(8)

$X^2 = 5.98$
$P \leq .05$