

UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA
Faculty of Graduate Studies
School of Social Work

Social Work and Middle-Aged Women:
Epistemological Issues

A thesis submitted in partial satisfaction of
the requirements for the degree of
Master of Social Work

by

Susan Satenstein Kahn

Committee in charge:

Dr. Joseph Kuypers, Chairman

Dr. N. Chapell

Dr. J. Brickman

1979

SOCIAL WORK AND MIDDLE-AGED WOMEN:
EPISTEMOLOGICAL ISSUES

BY

SUSAN SATENSTEIN KAHN

A dissertation submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of
the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements
of the degree of

MASTER OF SOCIAL WORK

© 1979

Permission has been granted to the LIBRARY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA to lend or sell copies of this dissertation, to the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this dissertation and to lend or sell copies of the film, and UNIVERSITY MICROFILMS to publish an abstract of this dissertation.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the dissertation nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter		Page
I.	INTRODUCTION TO SUBJECT AREA	1
	Introduction	1
	Characteristics of Population Being Discussed	12
	i Return to Labour Force	17
	ii Childbearing	18
	iii Education	19
	iv Magnitude	21
	Guideline for Defining the Problem	22
II.	SOCIAL ACTUALITY OF MIDDLE-AGED WOMEN	28
	i Suicide	28
	ii Alcoholism	29
	iii Use of Psychotropic Drugs	33
	iv Depression	34
	v Usefulness	37
	vi Self-Esteem and Role	39
	vii Age and Value	41
	viii Marital Dissatisfaction	45

Chapter	Page
Summary	46
Conclusions	48
Descriptive and Analytical Material: Suggestions on the Dynamics of the Problem	49
Summary of Chapter Two	76
III SOCIAL STANDARDS	82
Introduction	82
The Female Role	86
i Wives and Mothers	86
ii The General View	90
iii Basic Distinctions: The Social Science Perspective	92
iv Implications	98
The Importance of Physiology	99
Menopausal Anxiety	103
Summary	104
Implications for Social Work Theory	107
i Scope	113
ii Historical Precedent	114
iii Recent Approaches to Treatment	116

Chapter		Page
	The Model for Marriages	119
	Conclusions	124
	Role Conflict and the Workplace	125
	The Theoretical Predicament	130
	Conclusions	134
IV	THE SOCIAL ACTUALITY: ALTERNATIVE VIEWS	136
	Achievement in Women	137
	i Identifying the Role Characteristics	143
	ii Persistence of Traditional Framework	146
	The Double Standard and Its Effect on the Profession	148
	Conclusions	156
V	THE CONTEXT OF DISCOVERY	159
	Conclusion and Closing Remarks	169
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	181

CHAPTER I

Introduction

"Being in the middle" can have several meanings. In the most simple sense, it means being in a position that is neither at one edge or the other, or being among or in the midst of objects or events. "To be in the middle" commonly represents the mean, the average case, to be in the centre or to be a base for actions or objects above or below the centre. (Websters, 1977, pg. 728)

Many religious mythologies contain a middle place that symbolizes the principle of "neutralization". The middle is the place where all rules and laws no longer exist and one floats in a limbo. "Being in the middle" also symbolized the perfect centre where one "finds oneself" and can place everything around in perspective. "Being in the middle" has also suggested a position at a crossroads caught between ambivalent forces. In western cultures, the epitome of the "middle place" is purgatory or limbo. (Cirlot, 1962, pp. 39-40, pg. 200)

"Being in the middle" can be a point of confluence where all forces and acting principles meet - hence a creative location. (Cirlot, 1962, pg. 68)

According to Jung, women as mothers are associated with "where the roads cross and enter into one another ... there is the mother, the object and epitome of all union". (Jung, 1955, pg. 132)

Finally, there is the colloquial sense of "being in the middle", being caught as a victim of opposing forces, without the capability of resolving the situation. It may also mean being the object of blame or sanction for acts beyond one's control.

All these meanings are relevant to the experience of middle-aged women. The literature on middle-aged women is certainly not unanimous in its interpretation of what living through middle age means for North American women. This stage of life has been variously described. To some it is a time of consolidation - of being able to put the conflicts of young adulthood in perspective, to sort priorities and to continue on with renewed creativity and purpose. The consequences of the middle stage of life have also

been related to a deep sense of impotence, worthlessness and an absence of any satisfactory options. The middle-aged woman is sometimes referred to as a point of confluence or as an exemplar case of the changes that have occurred in the family, in the labour force and in the relationship between the sexes. There is strong disagreement as to the nature of the social impact of these changes.

Most middle-aged women in North America are married and have at least two children. (Boyd, 1976, pg. 17, pg. 36) It is these women who are the topic of this thesis. The developmental stages of women who do not marry and, to a lesser extent, of those who choose not to have children if they are married, have been found to more closely parallel the "career" of men their own age than that of married women with children in most aspects. (Mayer, 1969, pg. 101; Back, 1971, pp. 296-304) The following essay, it is hoped, will make it clear that there is a necessary and inextricable relationship in our culture between the experience of middle age for women and the facts of motherhood and marriage.

Fiske-Lowenthal et. al. , in their study of four stages of the life cycle state, " It is at this stage [middle age] that the greatest difference occurs between men and women." (Fiske-Lowenthal et. al., 1975, pg. 23) This is one fact about middle age that is agreed upon in the literature. Middle age means different things to men and women. This difference can, in large part, be attributed to the structures of family and occupational careers which, by and large, do not have the same consequences for the two sexes. It has also been widely accepted that the meaning middle age has for women is a function of how they and others view the roles of wives and mothers. The interpretations of these roles and their relative power in building or destroying ego strength are powerful predictors of success or problems in the transition to middle age. Because this relationship is so often proposed in the literature, a large part of this essay will deal with how these roles can affect the psychological development of women and how the conceptions of these roles by academics and practitioners can help or hinder women in successful adaptation to

middle age.

The classic definition of knowledge in philosophy is "the conformity between object and intellect." The issue of how this "conformity" is reached and justified in interpreting the behavior and experience of women and middle-aged women in particular, therefore, would appear to be essential in any analytic presentation of the relevant knowledge base. When middle-aged women can be considered a problem, from what theoretical and political contexts current knowledge is derived, who the individuals are who write about them and whose values establish the definition of functional or dysfunctional in their case will, it is clear, affect what is believed to be true about them.

Current social science may be seen to contain two basic views of what is functional behavior in women. The first view assumes a necessary and fixed relationship between the physiology of women and their development which is universally applicable. Maturity and success are defined differently for men and women due to their different developmental needs. Specifically, the achievement of feminine maturity is characterized

by accepting the needs of others, especially husbands and children, as the primary focus of adult life. In the wider context, this developmental model represents a social role necessary to the continued stability and functioning of a society that also operates according to fixed laws of human nature. In this context, it becomes crucial to prescribe and maintain a rigid sex-differentiated model of adult functioning.

The second view assumes the criteria for mental health and social responsibility for men and women are essentially the same. The continued functioning and stability of society depend, in large part, on providing and creating multiple roles that fill various types of needs in the individual. In this context, the primary focus of adult life is expected to change with time and circumstance. Functioning is basically evaluated and understood in terms of the ability to create new satisfactory and productive roles as these change.

There is atleast an equal amount of evidence to support both views.

Later in this essay, the observation that the social work literature overwhelmingly reflects the first view to the virtual exclusion of the other will be discussed at length. The treatment of women by the profession, it is clear, will be directly related to its choice of conceptual framework.

A critical examination of its knowledge base may be especially important when producing a work for a social work audience for two basic reasons. The first is that the social work profession, to a great degree, operates from a reactive position. It derives its definition of the desirable and formulates practice methods on the basis of theoretical and political justification from other sectors of society and academic disciplines. This can mean that significant beliefs from other fields and the mandates they imply are often accepted at face value. The assumptions underlying these ideas and their consequences are not always fully appreciated by social workers. * Thus, it can be proposed that

* A historical overview of the interaction between the development of social work goals and dominant political and social thinking is presented in "The Influence of Political Power in Determining the Theoretical Develop-

examining the political and theoretical derivations of current practice literature will constitute an addition to social work knowledge. Secondly, it has been noted in the literature that social work has generated very little in the way of descriptive-analytical studies of the family, women and the forces that affect them . (Maas,1971,pp.123 ff.;Johnson 1976, pg.531) One writer relates this observation to the increasing evidence of the ineffectiveness of standard social work practices which he attributes to a lack of conceptual rigour in the formulation of practice policy. The specific criticisms put forward in this

* cont. - - ment of Social Work" by Reuben Bitensky. (Jour. of Social Policy Vol. II, No. 2 (Apr. '73,119-30)) Bitensky elaborates, documents and defends the thesis that the social work profession has tended to react to political influences by co-opting them into its own structure. This has not been done in a self-aware manner, and, so, the professsion has found itself forwarding objectives whose implications are not fully understood. He relates this trend to what he perceives to be a pervasive pre-occupation with methodological concerns and a narrowing of the ambit of professional concerns. Joseph L. Vigilante (" Between Values and Science: Education for the Profession During a Moral Crisis- Is Proof Truth?", Jour. of Education for Social Work,VOL.X, no. 3, Wint. '76, 10-6) proposes the profession has accepted the scientific logical-posivist model to the extent it considers value as a species of fact.He believes this has resulted in a neglect to acknowledge
cont.

regard are that there has been a trend to narrowing the perspectives used to evaluate social situations and to intellectual isolation from new relevant work in other fields in an effort to clearly delineate an identifiable area of social work expertise.

It has been suggested that social work practice with women in particular suffers from a lack of conceptual clarity in distinguishing fact from value and in exercising any kind of critical sense about the consequences of the theoretical frameworks commonly used as a basis of practice with women. (Wetzel, 1976 b; Meisel and Friedman, 1974; Schwartz, 1973; Berlin, 1976) In addition, in simple language, there is evidence that most social workers do not know very much about women,

* cont. - - the instrumental role values and context play in the construction of social science theory and practice decision making.

Janice Wetzel (" Social Adjustment as a Social Work Principle", Frontiers, VOL. I, No. 3, Wint. '76, 17-25) defends similar arguments in her review of the work of major social work theorists. In another article, (" Interaction of Feminism and Social Work in America", Social Casework, Apr. '76, 227-36), she pursues the theme of the unconscious interaction between the "value climate" and the social work profession in terms of women as clients and workers.

have not read even rudimentary texts about the sociological and psychological forces that affect women and most social work curricula do not address these issues. (Meisel and Friedman, 1974; Berlin, 1976; Johnson, 1976; Kravetz, 1976; Smith and Cummings, 1976) Some recent content analyses of various professional journals and books suggest that these issues do not receive substantive attention in these publications. (Rosenblatt, et. al., 1973; Kravetz, 1976) In the light of these observations, it would seem reasonable to examine where "intellect and object conform" in social work knowledge and in the formation of practice goals for women and then to analyse these goals in the light of knowledge available from other fields. Several authors have engaged in critical examination of the derivation and consequences of current conceptions of norms for women in fields allied to social work, especially psychology and sociology. Part of this thesis will present this material in an endeavour to enrich the current social work practice context.

The goal of this thesis is to compile a

"working paper" for social work practice with married middle-aged women who have children. It is a library thesis and, as such, contains no primary data or findings from original research. It has been conceived as an attempt to provide a sensible and appropriate context for practice decisions. It is based on the assumption that, though relevant and useful information exists on this subject, it has not been structured in a form that is easily accessible to social workers. Therefore, a good deal of the analysis presented here is not the result of original interpretation for the purposes of this thesis, but represents the insight of the authors that were consulted in compiling this paper. The task undertaken was to form connections between various analytical and critical works and to suggest what relevance they might have in practice with middle-aged women. A secondary goal of this thesis is to use the situation of middle-aged women as an exemplar case of how the various ways social workers understand women can affect the ways we can serve them professionally. This question revolves around issues

in the "epistemology" of social work knowledge - the examination of "its nature and grounds with reference to its limits and validity". (Baldwin, 1940)

Characteristics of the Population being Discussed

Middle age is a relatively new mass phenomenon (Vedder, 1965, pp. 4 ff.) In prehistoric times, the average life span was 18 years. Fossil remains indicate that few lived beyond forty. As recently as 1900, the average life expectancy in America was 45 years and only 10% of the population was middle-aged. In 1965, 80% of the population survived to 60 and the average adult in the labour force was 45 years of age. While the total population of the United States increased 98% between 1915 and 1965, the total number of middle-aged increased by 200%.

There is, however, considerable disagreement as to when exactly middle age begins and ends. Several authors have reported difficulty in establishing guidelines for their own research. Bart (1967) uses

the limits of 40-60 but she notes the 45-70 might be equally appropriate for other types of research. General standards in the field of demography delineate the years between 45 to 64, yet a large number of human development and social science textbooks refer to the period between 30 and 60. (Vedder, 1965, pp. ix-xii) Other experts (Levine, 1957; Leighton 1952; Thompson 1955) have calculated the middle allocation, based on the average age of onset of biological or psychological changes marking the end of youth, as the ages from 36 to 55. Studies of middle-aged women tend to favour the lower ends of these ranges. (Lloyd-Jones, 1956; Self, 1969; Klass and Redfern, 1977; Dulude, 1978)

Identifying the boundaries of middle age for women is no easier. Though there is a temporal relationship between the physiological changes associated with middle age, there is no hard evidence establishing a necessary or causal relationship between the biological events of menopause and the social and psychological phenomena associated with

middle age. Furthermore, middle-aged women cannot be readily identified by a wide variety of features of ascribed status and prescribed age roles. (Neugarten, 1968a; Bart, 1969; Turner, 1970, pg. 369) Middle age is a stage more distinguished by a lack of such definitions.

The overwhelming majority of middle-aged women in Canada are married and have children. (Boyd, 1976, pg. 17, pg. 36) In the case of married women with children, a starting point in developing a definition of middle age seems to be the age and status of the last child. (Neugarten, 1961, pp. 364-6; Bart, 1967, pp. 150 ff.; Neugarten, 1968b, pg. 95; Mayer, 1969, pg. 101; Harris, 1975, chap. 4; Glick, 1977, pg. 11) It has variously been described as the point at which the youngest child begins schooling, the point at which he turns eighteen or the point at which he marries. The chronological age that would correlate with these events ranges from 32 to 64 years of age. The end point of middle age is usually identified as the time at which a woman's husband retires, which is usually age 65 for men and

so would, in most cases, apply to women in their late fifties and early sixties.

Lloyd Jones (1956) emphasized that middle age for women, whatever its exact boundaries, was emerging as a longer period of the life cycle, beginning earlier and ending later. Her research findings have indicated that earlier marriage ages and compressed childbearing spans for women have resulted in an earlier age at which the youngest child enters school. She calculated the average American woman reached this stage at age 46 in 1940 and at age 32 in 1955. At this point, Lloyd Jones notes, "the very definite objectives every girl has clearly in mind - getting married and having children-have been realized. Women at 32 enter into the fairly uncharted and vague business of trying to 'live happily ever after'." (Lloyd-Jones 1956, pg. 21)

The evidence that middle age is becoming the major span in the life cycle of women has been supported by other researchers. There is widespread agreement that there have been basic shifts in the timing of major life

events, especially for women. "The much longer empty nest period now than formerly is perhaps the most dramatic change that has occurred in the pattern of the typical family life cycle. The increase from two years to thirt-
een years for this stage... has a multitude of social, economic and psychological implications." (Glick, 1977, pg. 11)**

Studies in Canada (Boyd, 1976, pg. 28) have concluded that there is an increasing tendency for Canadian women to compress their childbearing into a shorter time span. A large proportion of women do not make a 'career' of childrearing but return to work when or shortly after the youngest child enters school. (Gunderson, 1976, pg. 96) Given the average age of the mother at the birth of the last child, 29.5 years, (Boyd, 1976, pg. 34) the majority of married

** Paul C. Glick ("Updating the Family Lifecycle", Jour. of Marriage and the Family, VOL. XXXIX, No. 5, Aug. '77, 5-13) bases this calculation on the average time between the marriage of the last child and the death of one the spouses. He himself notes (pg. 8) that these figures do not realistically reflect the length of the post-parental stage because they do not take into account the increasingly younger age of women at the end of childbearing or children who have left for college or established separate households on their own.

women with children in Canada will experience a relatively short span of time in the exclusive wife-mother role and can expect to re-enter the labour force some time before their thirty-fifth birthday.

i Return to the Labour Force

Boyd notes that unmarried women have always worked due to a lack of an alternative source of income; the rise in labour force participation rates for women in recent years has been due to the influx of married women. (Boyd, 1976, pg. 27) However, she cautions against using these figures to exaggerate, overstate or magnify any implications for changes in the norms for the behavior of married women or to any major changes within the family. Many married women work because of simple financial need. Level of spouses' income is a potent predictor of labour force involvement of wives. The lower the family income, the more likely it is the wife will work. (Gunderson, 1976, pg. 99)

ii Childbearing

The fertility rates of Canadian women have been dropping. Older women tend to have more children than younger women. (Boyd, 1976, pg. 34) A woman whose youngest child entered school in 1977 has spent less time in the exclusive role of childrearing than a woman in the same situation in 1967 or 1971. As previously stated, there has been an increasing tendency to compress the space between children and complete families in a much shorter period of time.

Most ever-married middle-aged women in Canada in 1971 did, however, have children. Women in the five-year age categories (35-9, 40-4 etc.) between 35 and 59 had at least three children on average. (3.1 to 3.4) (Boyd, 1976, pg. 36, pg. 45) The figures for percentage of childlessness, adjusted for assumed rates of biological sterility, indicate a trend to voluntary childlessness among young women. However the rates for women between 35 and 59 decreased between 1961 and 1971. In 1971, over 90% of married women in Canada between 35 and 49 and a slightly lower percentage of women between 50

and 59 had children. However, a study has found that "for all age groups, the data on labour force experience show that fertility is highest for women who have never worked in the labour force. Women who are in the labour force in 1971 have (sic) on average one child less than women who have been full-time housewives since marriage. This relationship holds when age, age at marriage and education are controlled." (Boyd, 1976, pg. 41) A causal explanation of this correlation is not offered by the researchers because it was not clear to them in their manipulation of the variables whether women who have more children do so rather than enter the labour force or whether this correlation reflects the difficulty of working and caring for a larger family. (Boyd, 1976, pg. 43)

iii Education

With regards to education, figures for women over 35 indicate that in 1971 approximately 55% of English-speaking Canadian women between 35 and 45 and 60% of those between 45 and 55 had not completed high school. A small proportion, 5%, had completed university. (Robb and Spencer, 1976, pg. 68) About 25-30% of French-speaking women between 35 and 55 had completed high

school in 1971 and approximately 3% of this group had completed university. An additional 20% of women in both these groups had completed vocational training or non-university post-secondary training mainly in normal schools, nursing colleges and secretarial schools. (Robb and Spencer, 1976, pp. 66-9) Demand in these occupational groups has been steadily decreasing in recent years. (Dulude, 1978, pg. 10) It should be noted that enrolment in adult education programmes quadrupled between 1959 and 1973 and figures available for selected years indicate a male/female ratio of 3:1. However, age breakdowns are not available in relation to these programmes. (Robb and Spencer, 1976, pg. 63) The number of females per 100,00 in the labour force in Manpower training courses for 1971-1974 is roughly equal to the ratio of males per 100,000 enrolled in these programmes. (Robb and Spencer, 1976, pg. 64)

It would be reasonable to assume that a large part of the female enrolment in adult education programmes and Manpower training courses is over 35 years of age; however, a report prepared for International Womens' Year on woman and education notes that

documentation is incomplete and unavailable on these kinds of programmes. (Robb and Spencer, 1976,pg.62)

In summary, these figures show that middle-aged women have attained a relatively low level of education on average in Canada. Moreover, there is an ever-decreasing demand for the vocational skills a large number of them possess. The figures on enrolment in continuing education or upgrading courses may suggest that a large number of these women perceive a need to enhance their preparation for changing demands at work or in the community.

iv Magnitude

Finally, let us consider the group in terms of magnitude. In this year, 1979, there will be 1,372,800 women between 35-44, 1,240,300 women between 45 and 54 and 595,800 women between 54 and 59 for a total of 3,208,900. Thus middle-aged women represent over a quarter of the females in Canada (28.5%) and almost 15% of the total Canadian population. (Statistics Canada, Population Projections,1976) The situation of a group this size, it is clear, cannot be considered inconsequential.

Guidelines for Defining the Problem

The underlying assumption behind providing a context for social work practice is that the group has problems. Service to middle-aged women can be considered a legitimate social work field of practice only if this is the case.

Attempts to define what identifies a social work field of practice often have not clearly stated the question of how and when the profession decides a situation is a problem. A legitimate field of practice or concern is generally identified as one which is perceived as problematic according to social work values. (Bartlett, 1970) This definition may amount to no more than the tautology - 'a social problem for social workers is what social workers see as a problem'.

The Encyclopedia of Social Work states that a legitimate field of Social work practice "centres around some major human need or social problem as part of the services organized to meet the need or the problem. Both the overall services and the specific social work practice are visible, identified and recognized by societal sanction. (my own emphasis) (Bartlett, +E.S.W., 1971, pg. 1480) The

+ From here on the Encyclopedia of Social Work will be represented by the letters "E.S.W." in textual citations.

above statement implies that recognition of a human need or social problem is derivative. The power of societal sanction has been generally located in government agencies, professional organizations of social workers and schools of social work. (Dudley, 1978, pg. 40) These formal societal organizations identify the problem; social work then determines its arena for action and area of concern in terms of the rationale and mandate to intervene provided.

One assumption of this essay is that the theoretical basis of social work's analyses of social situation or human need relies upon the knowledge and value base of other social sciences in general and psychology and sociology in particular. This reliance has been widely recognized. (Perlman, 1960, pg. 537; Lucas, E.S.W., 1971; Wetzel 1976a, pp. 232-5; Wetzel, 1976b, pp. 11-5; Levine, 1976, pp. 27-9) An examination of how general social science theory concerning social problems relevant to the situation of middle-aged women is therefore crucial.

Extensive and lengthy documentation (Bernard, 1957, chap. 5; Davis, 1970; Merton, 1971; Henshel and Henshel, 1973; Siporin, 1975, sec. I, sec. II) established that current theoretical criteria for defining a 'problem' rely heavily on:

- a) whether a social situation is seen to conflict with a pervasive consensual standard
- b) whether it is a situation undesirable to a functionally significant group in society
- c) whether its solution is seen as ethically imperative

The existence of a "vexing or deplorable social situation" or a "wide discrepancy between social goals and the social actuality" is merely a "latent" problem until it becomes defined as a societal concern. Social scientists are seen as central to the process of legitimizing such situations as areas for collective action. (Merton, 1971, pp. 805-8) The legitimacy, then, of the problem group is dependent on whether or not dominant groups which endorse pervasive consensual standards see the amelioration of the problem group's situation as a higher good. Social scientists' interpretation of the consequences of

various courses of action are especially important to the way a group's needs will be understood.

When the problems of a group are not viewed as legitimate, they may instead be viewed as merely a deviation from a collectively defined social reality. Despite the subjective reality of their personal distress, the individuals in this group become the object of societal censure. Whether conflicts between the perceived needs of the dominant and problem group are viewed as disruptive in themselves or as shortcomings in the conceptualization of the functional requirements of society will, of course, affect the way in which a solution to the conflict is sought.

Thus, even though a great number of middle-aged women may be unhappy or unable to function, this will not be the basis for defining their situation as a problem. The interpretation given their circumstances by academics and sanctioning authorities will be the basis for any definition. Whatever the real pain or injustice felt, middle-aged women, as a group which does not possess the power to disseminate its point of view and whose situation may not be seen

impinge on the requirements of the collectivity, may find themselves excluded from traditional frameworks for describing social problems.

An alternative definition of a "social problem" has been suggested by Henshel and Henshel. It is "any situation that affects large numbers of people, causes suffering and generates intense feelings." (Henshel and Henshel, 1973, pg. 11) This definition has the merit of acknowledging the difficulties of a given group and the pain they experience as problematic even if it cannot be theoretically defined as such. The definition allows for frameworks that are not based on a utilitarian premise, permitting the situation to be viewed from the 'inside', in terms of its psychological impact on experience and not merely to bestow importance on a problem because it interferes with the usefulness of some group to society.

Human situations cannot exist in isolation; they necessarily relate to collective norms, role

designations and the meanings and purposes role designations convey. A coherence between putative and actual meaning is essential. The relationship between the individual and collective guidelines - whether they are called structures of meaning, norms, role functions, social standards, historical precedents, or societal mandates - is not only critical to social well-being, it is definitive of social well-being. Thus, if the problems of middle-aged women are demonstrably due largely to adherence to collective guidelines, change in the norms used to judge their behavior and in the consequent interpretation of their predicament as personal failures or as functional within society must logically follow.

CHAPTER TWO

THE SOCIAL ACTUALITY OF MIDDLE-AGED WOMEN

The following presentation of the factual background to the situation of middle-aged women will attempt to establish the pervasiveness and magnitude of the problem.

i Suicide

In the United States, in 1974, the highest suicide rates for women were in the middle-aged group. Age specific rates per 100,000 rise steadily from 9.8 for women 35-39 to 13.2 for women 45-49 and level off again in steadily decreasing rates in groups over the age of 65. These statistics are based on reported suicides which are believed to severely underrepresent its actual occurrence. Women also have more 'unsuccessful' suicide attempts than men. The ratio of reported attempts to death by suicide may be of the order of 30:1. (Butler and Lewis, 1977, pg. 68) The rate of completed suicide attempts steadily rises after age 35 and, therefore, the ratio of attempts to deaths should be viewed in this light. (Butler and Lewis, 1977, pg. 70)

Suicide is generally associated with anomie or alienation - a feeling of powerlessness and meaninglessness-and is correlated to sudden loss of status. Suicide is also interpreted as the attempt to exercise control over one's life and the lives of significant others where no other options appear workable. It has been seen as a final rebellious act against an environment that continually annihilates any sense of personal power. (Butler and Lewis, 1977, pp. 68 ff.)

Although the figures presented here represent only reported incidents, it is clear that during middle age women are moved to take their own lives to a much greater degree than in any other period of life.

ii Alcoholism

The average female alcoholic is middle-aged and did not begin to drink before somewhere between ages 35-45. This represents an average onset of problem drinking that is later for women than for men. Alcoholism in middle-aged

women often appears within a constellation of problems. The female alcoholic has a 50% chance of having a diagnosable psychiatric illness and has attempted suicide in 33% of all cases.

(Badiet, 1976, pg. 59)

Some research findings suggest that, generally, there is no identifiable crisis or event that precipitates alcoholism in middle-aged women. Rather, most of these women drink to escape routine, to improve their self-image or to gain confidence. (Johnson, DeVries and Houghton, 1966) However, in a study specifically focussed on females between 35 and 45, the findings suggested that the onset of alcoholism in this group is very often related to middle age crisis. The study shows that a significant proportion begin drinking when their children leave home and when their husbands die, divorce or become over-involved in their careers.

"... Without their children or husbands to depend on for their own identity or sense of worth, these women turn to alcohol. The drinking only compounds their feelings of self-disgust and a vicious cycle is created. " (Curlee, 1969, pg. 170)

Curlee sums up this crisis as the "devastating loss of self-worth for middle-aged women".

(Curlee, 1969, pg. 170)

Fraser reiterates Curlee's observations.

"...typically this woman is between 35 and 45 years of age. While her children were growing she did not take the time or perhaps, did not have the time to involve herself in community activities. Not did she work towards her own personal growth and identity. Now she no longer feels worthwhile." (Fraser, 1976, pg. 46)

The literature notes that, traditionally, female alcoholism has been viewed as related to a rejection of the feminine role. However, recent research suggests that those characteristics that were interpreted as a rejection of the feminine role masked a profound desire to meet the feminine ideal. Therapeutic interventions based on the second assumption were significantly more successful. The majority of women alcoholics studied were almost exclusively dependent on their husbands and children for defining their identity. (Birchmore and Walderman, 1975, pg. 14: Badiet, 1976, pg. 67)

An insignificant number of female alcoholics of any age were the sole economic support of their families. (Badiet, 1976, pg. 60) This further substantiates the view that the loss of a wife or mother role and a resulting loss of identity or feeling of usefulness may lead to alcoholism in middle-aged women. It may reasonably be surmised that women who are the sole support for their families feel their economic role makes them useful. Curlee pointed out that a substitute source of satisfaction should be offered the female middle-aged alcoholic, many of whom have never been trained for any job but housework. However, she could find no reports in the literature of interventions with this group that included job training. (Curlee, 1969, pg. 169)

As in the case of suicide, the incidence of an acknowledged social problem, alcoholism, is heavily clustered in the middle-aged group for women and differs dramatically from the age-specific rates for men. There is evidence to suggest that

alcoholism in middle-aged women is related to an extreme dependency on husbands and children for purpose, meaning and identity.

Although the true prevalence of the problem cannot be estimated. The ratio of unreported alcoholism to diagnosed cases in women at home is believed to be 9:1. (Badiet, 1976, pg. 64) In addition, Doreen Birchmore, director of the Donwood Institute Day Programme, cites research findings in support of the proposition that cases of women who seek help for alcohol problems are likely to be reported in the statistics as mental illness rather than alcoholism. (Birchmore and Walderman, 1975, pg. 11)

Given this situation, the pervasiveness of alcoholism in women in general and middle-aged women in particular cannot be fully appreciated.

iii Use of Psychotropic Drugs

In a review of the use of psychotropic drugs by women, Ruth Cooperstock cites a nation-wide United States study that concluded that the majority of regular users were housewives between

the ages of 35 and 50 who did not work. The correlation between both psychiatric admissions and the use of psychotropic drugs and traditional housewife status has been corroborated by a great number of other studies. (Cooperstock, 1976, pg. 93) As well, the ratio of adult married women to unmarried women who take a tranquilizer regularly is almost 2:1 (8.3% vs. 3.4%): the ratio is almost 3:1 for hypnotics. (11.6% vs. 4.5%) (Cooperstock, 1976, pg. 105) Cooperstock proposes that there may be a socio-cultural basis for the different rates of psychotropic drug use by married women versus unmarried women and by women in the labour force versus women at home.

iv Depression

A study undertaken to compare the characteristics of various life stages in the population of a large American city found that, using standard diagnostic instruments, middle-aged women and newlywed women accounted for 70% of the depression reported in the sample. (Fiske-lowenthal et.al., 1975, pg. 105)

Middle-aged women and newlywed women constituted 25% of the sample and the general prevalence rate of depression in the pool of respondents was in accordance with general mental health statistics for the United States. (13%) The writers note...

"a curious parallel between middle-aged women and newlyweds in terms of existential despair, with both groups having felt that life is meaningless. Two thirds of those [in the total sample] who reported such feelings were middle-aged women or newlyweds. Middle-aged and newlywed women were most likely to have contemplated suicide...

[They] in both stages were, of course, confronted with restructuring their lives around the presence and absence of other people. Marriage involves a maximum demand for social readjustment *** and can be construed as being a kind of "death" of the former social self especially for women who have no other major commitments other than marriage and family. For the older women, the imminent empty nest period may have similar connotations." (Fiske-Lowenthal et. al., 1975, pg,105).

Depression has been identified as the second major psycho-social condition of middle-aged women.

(Self, 1969, pg. 2) Two prevalence studies (that

*** Holmes, T.H. and Rahe, R.H., "The Social Readjustment Rating Scale", Jour. of Psychosomatic Research, No. 11, Aug. '67, 213-8)

is, studies drawing from a sample from the general population not from clients of agencies or patients at clinics) conducted across the United States found that psychological anxiety and age correlated for women but not for men. (Bart, 1967, pg. 6) In general, middle-aged women are four times as likely to manifest psychiatric disorders as men. (Bell, 1975, pg. 151) Not only does age appear to be a salient variable in the incidence of psychological distress in women, but there are strong correlations between marital status and major occupation, and manifest psychiatric symptoms. The majority of women admitted to psychiatric facilities are in their forties or fifties, are married and are housewives, Unmarried or working women do not exhibit psychiatric symptoms in similar percentages. (Garai, 1970, pg. 134; Chesler, 1971, pg. 746; Gove and Tudor, 1973; Cooperstock, 1976, pg. 105) In addition, the correlations for men differ significantly; the ratio of single to married men is exactly the opposite for men with psychiatric symptoms as for women. (Gove and Tudor, 1973, pg. 134; Cooperstock, 1976, pg. 105)

v Usefulness

Pauline Bart, in her study of depression in middle-aged women, offers a guideline for viewing and interpreting these kinds of findings. She says, "... the major assumption is that people must feel useful to maintain their mental health," (Bart, 1967,pg. 146) It should be clear that "feeling useful" is a complex concept. It can mean you feel the thing you do benefits others. It can mean others make you feel that what you do is consequential. It can also mean you feel that there is potential or opportunity to be useful or that your personal attributes are seen positively. It can simply mean the perception that you have the capability to do what is required. Finally, "feeling useful" can mean feeling relevant to what transpires around you.

In his study of the relationship between the social roles of women and their sense of usefulness and importance, Weiss found that "a rather substantial proportion(25%) said nothing made them feel useful or important." (Weiss and Samuelson, 1958,pg. 359) Given that most middle-aged women with

with psychological problems are housewives, it is interesting to note that less than half of the women with high school or less felt being a housewife made them feel some worth. Less than one third of college educated women found the housewife role sustaining. However, 60% of all women who were employed referred to their job as a basis for feelings of importance and usefulness. (Weiss and Samuelson, 1958, pg. 359)

This study was conducted several years ago, it can be suggested that the pervasive proposition that dissatisfaction with the housewife role is a very recent phenomenon may be more a function of the perception of observers. A 1949 survey found that female college graduates found the housewife role "stagnant and frustrating". (New York Times Magazine, June 12, 1949) Mirra Komorovsky's study of women in America in 1953 revealed essentially the same thing. (Chafe, 1972, pg. 311)

vi Self-Esteem and Role

Later work by Komarovsky suggests it is an oversimplification to assume that it is only relatively well-off or well-accomplished women who are dissatisfied with the housewife role. She found that lower-class women in menial jobs enjoyed more self-esteem than lower-class women at home; housework was not identified as contributing to a sense of personal achievement by the majority of lower-class housewives. (Komarovsky, 1962, pp. 62 ff.)

Viewing the findings of his own research and the pertinent literature, Weiss concludes that, because of the high amount of women who report no basis for feelings of worth, "there is good reason for concern about the apparent emptiness of social roles available to these women." (Weiss and Samuelson, 1958, pg. 366)

Weiss concluded that "how one identifies with a role will attack or enhance self-regard." (Weiss and Samuelson, 1958, pg. 358) Another aspect of

the sustaining or destructive power of roles is their ability to confer importance and worth on individuals. A corrolary to Weiss' conclusion is that how one's role is identified by others will attack or enhance self-regard. Roles have been defined as "identity-giving units of culture." As well, a positive relationship has been established between high status and mental health. (Bart, 1969,)

Recent sociological investigation into the placement of women in the social structure suggests that the occupation of the male is the primary basis for the status of a family in the North American social structure. 'Housewife' is perceived as a pseudo-occupation and women receive their public identity secondhand from their husbands. (Humphrey, 1974,pg. 220) Haavio-Mannila found that the ranking of 'wife' and 'housewife' , relative to other occupations, was significantly lower and that even the "reflected" status of 'wife' does not allow a woman to participate and benefit from the social placement

of her husband. For instance, in legal and financial transactions, the wife of a wealthy man will still be treated as if she had no economic resources. (Oakley, 1974, pg. 10)

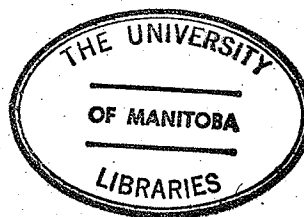
vii Age and Value

Within a stratification or status structure that accords relatively little status to the 'wife' and 'housewife' role, it is the middle-aged woman who comes out on the bottom. Bell reports that "available studies point to older (40-60) women as the lowest prestige group in society". (Bell, 1975, pg. 150) Pauline Bart has shown through comparative cultural studies that, in many cultures, this is not the case. In many places, the status of middle-aged women compares favourably with other groups. (Bart, 1969) She isolates eight relevant variables of the differential status of middle-aged women across cultures. For the most part, these variables reflect whether age is valued over youth- whether older women are seen as wise or useless. Another fundamental variable is whether roles for older

women are institutionalized on the basis of skills and experience they can contribute to their own families or community life. Bart has also found that the prestige of middle-aged women is higher in cultures where sexual attractiveness is not an important value and sex is viewed solely in a reproductive context. (Bart, 1969)

The low prestige of middle-aged women in our society is not only a reflection of the placement of women in the social structure but is substantially related to the placement of women in the age-status structure as well. A large part of the prestige given women depends on their youth. They lose value in the societal context when they no longer are considered sexually attractive. Bell observes,

"... Society pictures women as "old" ten or fifteen years sooner than men. Nobody in this culture wants to grow old; age is not honored among us. Yet women must endure this specter of aging much sooner than men... A man's wrinkles will not define him as sexually undesirable until his late fifties. For him, sexual value is defined in terms of personality, intelligence and earning power.



Women must rest their case largely on their bodies. Their ability to attain status in other than physical ways and to translate that status into sexual attractiveness is severely limited by the culture. [A woman] approaching middle age begins to notice a change in the way people treat her... in the growing indifference of others to her looks and sexuality she can see and measure the decline of her worth." (Bell, 1975,pg. 146)

This so called "double standard of aging" puts middle-aged women in a position of discrepancy or tension between social ideals and social actuality. Susan Sontag comments that the standards set for female attractiveness bear no relation to what women actually look like. "This double standard perpetuates the view that women have nothing to offer but their bodies; no amount of intelligence, learning and wisdom can make up for the lost bloom of youth". (Sontag,1972,pg.33) The consequences of the loss of prestige with age are especially severe for women who have invested most of their psychic energy in the 'wife role'. They become insecure in their ability to be a 'glamorous' attractive companion to their husbands and are especially vulnerable to insecurity in a relationship that encompasses all their goals and meanings. (Dulude, 1978,pg. 16)

As discussed previously, Bart found that middle-aged women lost status in cultures that valued youth over age. She also found that age statuses and the accompanying power to destroy or enhance identity were related to the perceived usefulness of the activities associated with different age groups. The three primary roles of women in our culture are mother, wife and sexual partner. The roles of wife and sexual partner lose their ability to accord prestige and positive self-regard for middle-aged women in a great many cases.

Because of the differing developmental patterns of men and women, the primary focus and source of identity for middle-aged men is the consolidation of their occupational careers. This has been related to both an absence of continually present emotional support for middle-aged women -their husbands' emotional investment is outside the home - and to a narrowing of the possibilities for the wife role to be sustaining.. (Self, 1969, pg.3; Fiske-Lowenthal et.al., 1975, pg.33; Dulude, 1978, pg.16)

viii Marital Dissatisfaction

Middle-aged women report the highest incidence of marital dissatisfaction among all age-sex groupings. (Long Laws, 1971, pg. 509; Fiske-Lowenthal et.al., 1975, pg. 39) They usually stress feeling lonely in their reports. Recent Canadian statistics show that 45% of all divorced women are over 35 at the time of their divorce. (Dulude, 1978, pg. 10)

It is also interesting to note that, by and large, North American men combine the wife and mother roles when they evaluate their spouses. Being "a good mother" is a major basis for being seen as useful and important in the eyes of a great many womens' spouses. (Long Laws, 1971, pg. 488; Fiske-Lowenthal et.al., 1975, pg. 37) A lack of interpersonal communications skills between spouses has been correlated to traditional marriages where there is a rigid sexually defined division of function and where the spouses identify each other with instrumental roles. (Freeman, 1974, pp. 31-3)

Summary

Taken together, these findings may be seen to from a picture of middle age, especially for traditionally oriented women, as marked by increasingly less opportunity for social desirability as a wife and a sexual partner, and a restriction of avenues to self-worth and importance. In addition, it can be suggested that many middle-aged women do not receive emotional support from their spouses. Feelings of depression and meaninglessness exist more in middle-aged women than in other groups. Low status and feelings of meaninglessness and isolation are typical characteristics of groups experiencing social problems. Pauline Bart has shown that middle age is not necessarily a problem for women across cultures. Her research suggests that there may be a socio-cultural basis for the situation of middle-aged women. The relationship between marital status, occupational role and the psychological and social difficulties among middle-aged women suggested above has been deduced from

the different prevalence rates among married versus unmarried women and among women who are occupied inside versus those occupied outside the home. Furthermore, large scale prevalence studies have found a correlation between age and various psycho-social problems for women but not for men as well as different patterns of incidence of alcoholism, suicide depression, legal drug use and psychiatric admissions. The extent of these situations is markedly increased for married women in middle age and is greater for married women in general in the cases of legal drug use, depression and psychiatric admissions. Finally, taking Henshel and Henshel's criteria for social problems (extent of suffering, number of people affected and strength of feelings evoked), the statistical data supports the proposition that middle-aged women suffer in sufficiently large numbers. The quality of feeling attached to their situation will be presented in the next section in order to enlarge the context for further discussion.

Conclusions

Middle age for married women has been defined previously as the stage in life when childrearing ceases to be a primary activity. This occurrence is widely referred to as "empty nest". Traditional perspectives on the development of adult women see an empty nest crisis as part of the normal course of events - as something to be expected. There is some weight of truth in this view. However, for many women the empty nest stage is not a problem. In fact, it enhances their ability to find roles and activities that increase their sense of importance and worth.++ It cannot be denied that common sense dictates that raising children is a demanding enterprise which consumes a great deal of the woman's time and energy. It follows that if a component of one's life disappears, there has to be a change in one's orientation and purpose. It

++See "Introduction" , Chapter 4

may also be that focussing one's energies in one area for a long period of time affects the ability to make these changes.

Descriptive and Analytical Material:

Suggestions on the Dynamics of the Problem

In a survey of empirical studies on the psychology of women in the later years, Julia Sherman concludes that a major issue for middle-aged women is identity. She distinguishes the problem from other developmental "identity crises" and comments, " ... The identity problem for women is not so much in achieving identity but mastering shifts in identity. (Sherman, 1971, pg. 21)

Middle age for women is associated with a dessication of status and prestige. The capacity to predict and control one's social context and to be able to establish continuity of meaning through various shifts in the relationship between the individual and the environment is crucial to adaptive ability. (Marris, 1974, pp. 16-7; Martin and Osmond, 1975, pp. 339-41, 362-3) The perceived

ability to control and predict one's social context and a personal sense of competence and worth has been found to rely, in large part, on the structure of the environment in which the individual acts. (Weisstein, 1971; Martin and Osmond, 1974) Major structural factors influencing both subjective and external perceptions of social power and the consequentiality of an individual's acts are "the conditions that govern the relative dependence of individuals in a social relationship." (MacDonald, 1977, pg. 708) The 'social power' literature emphasizes that the qualities of a person have a much weaker relationship to the amount of influence exerted than his or her contextual definition. (Martin and Osmond, 1974, pp. 362-3; MacDonald, 1977, pg. 708) Finally, Marjorie Fiske-Lowenthal's research into the dynamics of major life changes led her to conclude that...

" a sense of inner control was clearly the most important of pre-transitional cognitions... whether or not the individual foresaw problems with his main transition had little bearing on whether his attitude toward it was positive or negative, the amount of planning or his sense of being in control." (Fiske-Lowenthal et.al., 1975, pg. 209)

Thus, if a large number of middle-aged women perceived a lack of control over internal and external forces, could not envision a role that provided them with meaning or identity-enhancing goals or were dependent on others to provide continuity of purpose through time, there is justification in believing that their ability to the change accompanying empty nest would be severely limited.

Gerald Self identifies the most common characteristic of middle-aged American housewives to be " a pervasive lack of confidence in their own abilities". (Self, 1969,pg.2) His observations were based on interviews with 2,000 women during a five year period. The women were participants in discussion programmes for middle-aged women at Oakland University and in community centres in the State of Michigan. Self relates this sense of incompetence to a lack of feedback for housewives on their real abilities and a lack of external objective criteria for self-evaluation. He characterizes the position of the middle-aged

housewife as one without criteria for performance.
(Self, 1969, pp. 2 ff.)

Self's observation was reiterated in the Fiske-Lowenthal study. The study found that women of all ages repeatedly said that they felt a need for ego-strength and power. +++ In particular, 35% of the middle-aged women expressed a need to be more "imaginative". The study linked these expressed needs to an anticipation of future changes and a call for new modes of adjustment. (Fiske-Lowenthal et.al., 1975, pp. 77-8) The sense of a lack of imagination may reflect an anticipation that the change in life is not positive. Again, as in Self's work, this study found that the strength of self-image was not so much a function of a particular configuration of events but of the existence of feedback on performance from others.

+++ defined by the authors as "less socially vulnerable and possessing more mastery and confidence" (pg. 77)

In her examination of the social horizons and activity patterns of her sample, Fiske-Lowenthal states that the extent of the family-centredness of her respondents' lifestyle was striking. (Fiske-Lowenthal, et.al., 1975, pg. 235) She notes a behavioral commitment to their jobs and an exceptionally stable history in the women who worked. However, the middle-aged women in her sample, for the most part, were not primarily committed to their work and saw their employment income as a contribution to the lifestyle of their families. Most of these women said that they would leave their jobs or pass up chances for advancement if their occupational responsibilities drained the energy they could direct to family responsibilities. (Fiske-Lowenthal et.al., 1975, pg. 20) These responses would seem to be at odds with the earlier reported findings which suggest that occupational roles provide a basis for self-esteem for more women than the homemaker-wife-mother functions.

However, they can be seen to reflect the psychic demands normatively required in the family of women in our culture and not as a statement of the relative satisfaction inherent in these roles.

Marjorie Fiske-Lowenthal and other writers have related the lack of primary occupational commitment to the discontinuity and contingent nature of womens' lifestyles. Women are compelled to structure their goals around the needs of others, especially their husbands , and so may not have the option of grasping the opportunities that provide the most satisfaction to them. (Coser and Rokoff, 1968, pg. 552; Bem and Bem, 1971 ; Sherman, 1971, chap. 2; Fiske-Lowenthal et.al, 1975, pg. 22) Orienting most of their energy to family responsibilities is a mode of accomodating to externally imposed restrictions.

Notwithstanding the social forces that may create the situation, middle-aged women suffering from a lack of adaptive resources and a great many women of all ages exist within a very narrow sphere

ERRATUM: The citation of Rose Laub Coser and Gerald Rokoff on this page and all subsequent citations to these authors should read 1971.

of roles. In general, they participate in few extra-familial roles and rely on their affiliations within the family to construct their self-image. An almost exclusive identification with the housewife-wife-mother role has been identified with depression, menopausal distress and emotional problems focussed on the empty nest. (Kisik, 1961; Bart, 1967, pg. 12; Dulude, 1978, pp. 14-6) A larger role scope has been positively correlated to individual development and adaption. Simmel, for example, noted that membership in dyads or groups that make conflicting demands provides increased opportunity for the development of a complex individualized personality. (Fiske-Lowenthal et.al, 1975, pg. 10) Thus it can be inferred that an exclusive identification with family roles puts middle-aged women in a vacuum when these functions are dessicated and they are left without an alternative sphere of action. However, to contribute the pervasive demoralization of middle-aged women to the loss of the mother-role

or menopause might be simplistic. Empty nest is not perceived as problematic through cultures. The way one identifies with a role is a function of its impact on self-image. The perception of personal power seems to be related to the balance of independence and dependence in others for identity and to structural exigencies.

The empty nest crisis need not be viewed as 'maternal role loss'. Rather, it may be seen as in a continuum where the previous role damaged capacity to make future adaptations. The findings on the small contribution to self-worth and the relative status of the traditional female roles may be considered evidence to this effect.

It has been suggested that self-image for the traditional mother-housewife-wife, in large part, consists of structuring one's life around of others and is dependent on affiliation with others for its support. Life-satisfaction in many middle-aged women is strongly related to immediate environmental feedback. (Wyckoff, 1971; Bardwick, 1972, pg. 157, pp. 320-4, pp. 307-14; Chesler, 1972, pg. 39) Characteristics

of such an identity structure may mean that empty nest or 'maternal role loss' calls for new intra-personal qualities which have not been developed. Gerald Self identified a pervasive conflict around the issue of dependence and independence in the middle-aged women he had met.

He explains,

"... unspoken questions centre around dependence and independence... contemplated or actual involvement in activities, especially if successful... threatens to upset the dependent relationship which the woman has enjoyed and desperately needs to maintain... Ambition by these women is often termed as aggressiveness and the emotionally healthy desire to use talents and energies to the fullest as negative and undesirable."

Closely related to this issue is the woman's "directly and consistently expressed need for the blessings of some authority". (Self, 1969, pg. 6)

Self believes this issue is directly related to the lack of legitimation of her own needs to which a traditional woman has accommodated.

He adds,

"The third major psychological characteristic of the American-Housewife-Mother [1. no sense of personal competence: 2. depression] is the 'identity crisis' ... This condition seems to arise because these women have devoted the major portion of their energies to the attainment of other peoples' goals ... primarily their husbands' occupational advancement and their childrens' academic progress ... After years of such sacrifice, many lose sight of their own needs and long term goals. Aspirations which were once held are often forgotten or discarded and a sense of 'directionlessness' prevails." (Self, 1969,pg. 7)

Dependency and passivity in relation to personal needs have been correlated to low self-esteem. (Bardwick,1972, pg. 157,pp. 320-4) When excessive psychic energy is directed at meeting others' needs, the capacity to assess and deal with intrapsychic issues becomes 'atrophied'. When all identity is based on others, an individual may not develop personal resources that allow her to define herself any other way. Self's obervation that achievement seems to threaten a middle-aged woman's basis for identity correlates with findings in major studies on middle age or the development of women. The

works of Judith Miller, Ruth Moulton and Bernice Neugarten present evidence that traditionally oriented women see these qualities as inimical to the central functions of motherhood and that they invoke self-doubt in these women. (Neugarten, 1964, pg. 85; Miller, 1973, pg. 360; Moulton, 1973, pp. 45-9) The women studied said that these traits may enhance the worth of a woman only if they supplement rather than replace traditional roles and relationships. Thus, it is not surprising that a content analysis of research on middle-aged women identified a major psychological problem for them as "being so involved with others they cannot disengage." (Sherman, 1971, pg. 22)

For many women, the loss of the mother function and the restriction of the wife function become a double bind - to continue to derive identity from others creates an uncomfortable and untenable dependency that lowers their sense of personal power and limits their sources of gratification, to participate in role spheres outside the home threatens any sense of adequacy that has remained intact.

Given the manner in which women identify with these options, the pervasive anomie and the contrast in perception of environment of middle-aged women to other groups is understandable.

Hogie Wyckoff summarized the dynamics that underlie the inability to disengage in terms of transactional psychology. A concept that is often used in transactional psychology is that of the "banal script". Scripts are life-plans induced in childhood from the image one forms of oneself through the injunction and attributions of authority figures. Banal scripts are those in which the individual does not seek roles on the basis of subjective requirements but, rather, almost automatically does what his or her ascribed characteristics demand. In banal life-scripts, the individual 'takes' roles rather than creates them. The fundamental premise of transactional analysis is that psychological integration is based on an appropriate ratio of "strokes" (recognition, ego

enhancement) to strokes given. If this ratio is skewed, the functioning ability of the individual will be impaired.

Wyckoff's analysis of womens' scripts is based on the premise that the development of nurturing and supportive capacities will oblige them to give out more strokes than they receive. She says,

"... women become one dimensional specialists incapable of functioning autonomously ... and are trained to accept the mystification that they are not O.K. and inadequate and independent; so they must embrace a situation of stroke exploitation. (Wyckoff, 1971, pp. 16-17)

Wyckoff summarizes a typical middle-aged woman's script this way.

"... she takes care of everyone but herself. She gives twenty [strokes] for every one that she gets and accepts this inequity because she feels she is the least important member of the family and her worth is only as a source of supplies. This inequity is constantly made legitimate by the media's promotion of "housewife" and mother as capable of providing women with meaning and fulfillment. She feels worthless because strokes and meaning in life do not come to her for herself... but for her husband and children. When her tasks and usefulness ends, often coincidental with menopause, she undergoes psychic death. (involutional melancholia)" (Wyckoff, 1971, pg. 16)

If the nurture and support of others is almost the exclusive basis for survival and any activity that usurps these roles is equated with psychic death, it is not surprising that middle-aged women are the exception to research findings that most people anticipating major life events see their future as positive. (Bart, 1967, pg. 144; Fiske-Lowenthal et. al., 1975, pg. 205)

It has also been observed that middle-aged women in an identity crisis are usually unable to describe their problem specifically and tend to feel guilty about not being satisfied with their situation. A relationship may exist between these two difficulties and the threatening implications of blaming or expressing anger at the very people who 'justify' their existence. Gerald Self comments as follows in this subject.

"...the perceived loss of attractiveness, functioning ability or whatever else the woman realistically identifies or imagines usually generates great anger. But, who can be blamed for one's age or menopause? Thus, many women are caught in the dilemma of trying to contain a rage whose expression has no appropriate target ...this rage is internalized and directed towards the self ...

The peculiar manner in which many women deal with normal anger generated by their environment is the second major cause of the feminine depressive syndrome which occurs with such frequency." (Self, 1969,pg. 4)

Marjorie Fiske-Lowenthal found that middle-aged women who exhibited symptoms of situational distress complained of "confusion" in large numbers. However, her review of the literature revealed that most middle-aged women do not feel that empty nest or menopause are particular problems. The majority saw these events as a relief from fear of pregnancy and the time-consuming demands of childrearing. (Fiske-Lowenthal et.al.,1975,pg. 23) These data are consonant with the report on middle age of the Canadian Advisory Council on the Status of Women and Pauline Bart's research into middle-aged womens' perception of these events. (Bart, 1967. pg. 12; Dulude,1978,pg. 19)

The idea that 'not knowing who to blame' contributes to middle age depression and confusion has been reiterated in other examinations of the problem and in the work of Phyllis Chesler in particular. (Chesler, 1971, pg. 746)

Many middle-aged women are confused and target their anger inward. This is the logical conclusion of the evidence presented above:

- a) the correlation established between the incidence of social difficulties and the end of the childrearing stage
- b) the relationships suggested between the structure of the traditional female role and adaptability
- c) and finally, the suggestion that any change in direction is not compatible with the values of many middle-aged women

Pauline Bart stresses the distinction between the sadness at seeing children leaving and the problem of empty nest crisis. She says,

"It is the loss of the role itself that is to blame and the way it was linked to self-concept. (my own emphasis) ... Women who are overcommitted to the maternal role are suffering the unattended consequences of that commitment. Many women who adapt were very close with their children while a great number who get depressed did not get along with them." (in Dulude, 1978, pg. 15)

These "unattended consequences" have been

identified as a progressive decline in personal growth values, a lack of sense of control accompanied by a crippling dependence on others, a limited role scope and inadequate personal resources to adapt to transitional stress.

(Self, 1969, pg. 6; Fiske-Lowenthal et.al., 1975 pg. 159)

Marjorie Fiske-Lowenthal summarized the situation of middle-aged women in her sample as follows.

"The profile of women facing the empty nest is one of not very "quiet desperation" ... these middle-aged women were the least sure of themselves of all groups and their uneasy and often conflicting characterizations of themselves suggest identity confusion if not outright "crisis". The future in general looked bleak and empty to [her] and the majority did not feel in control. They reported themselves to be unhappy; they reported more psychological symptoms than anyone else; and they were the most likely to say at some time they had contemplated suicide. Their life styles were primarily simplistic.**** While they had more complex social horizons than younger women and altruistic goals ... they felt uneasy about their ability and motivation to realize them. Regardless of the amount of stress they experienced, they were preoccupied with it. Many seemed in despair about their marriages and what they sensed to be an increasing dependency on their husbands." (Fiske-Lowenthal et.al., 1975, pg. 199)

**** defined as "few roles and limited range of activities" (pg. 13)

Pauline Bart and Marjorie Fiske-Lowenthal both observed that the particulars of a woman's situation were not directly correlated to the amount of distress reported. Whether the woman had a good experience as a parent or whether there were particular difficulties in her environment at the time was basically irrelevant. The crucial 'variables' seemed to be:

a) an ability to envisage a substitute role that did not represent "self-estrangement" - that was not "inimical to self-ideal set"

(Seeman, 1959)

b) whether the structure of the adult role the woman had held to that point had allowed her to attend to matters of personal growth or had damaged her ability to perceive of herself as competent in her own right

Though an inherently dysfunctional life situation can occur at any age, for either sex, the incidence of despair and psychological difficulties

in middle-aged women has been reported to have reached "epidemic proportions" and to be markedly more prevalent than in most other groups. (Wetzel, 1976b, pg. 11) That the evidence points to no situational or psychological antecedents except an overcommitment to the traditional female role and that it suggests that successful adjustment through life is negatively correlated to "feminine characteristics" (Long Laws, 1971, pg. 495; Cooperstock, 1976, pg. 107; Fiske-Lowenthal et al., 1975, pg. 218) further demonstrates that the difficulties of middle-aged women meet the criteria of a latent social problem. An objectively undesirable and destructive situation that can be seen to be social in origin exists.

In this group, the extent of the difficulties would seem to preclude an interpretation relying on the unique characteristics of individual situations or isolated constellations of events in particular lives. Those who strictly adhere to consensual norms experience more trouble than those who do

not. Therefore, it is reasonable to eliminate an explanation based on deviancy. A Dysfunctional interpretation assumes that the characteristics of troubled middle-aged women render them incapable of meeting the functional requirements of the collectivity. (Merton, 1971, pg. 820) Material presented in subsequent chapters of this essay will support the view that, within widely-accepted definitions of these requirements, the situation of middle-aged women is not seen to have substantial impact on the workings of essential sectors of society.

However, there seems to be little question that a great number of middle-aged women cannot derive any meaning or find any purpose in their environment. Some studies have suggested that the situation of middle-aged women is related both to strict adherence to norms and an absence of norms. Belknap and Friedman found that a loss of identity can be due to either institutionalization (altruistic)

or to the disappearance of normative minima (anomie). Strict adherence to institutional norms can deny the unique humanity of an individual and ultimately destroy any capacity for autonomy. In the other hand, social interaction is dependent on some kind of framework and must collapse in the absence of norms. (Belknap and Friedman, 1949, pg. 370) In this context it is not difficult to imagine how one can lead to the other. If altruism hampers autonomous function, it may logically follow that the symptoms of anomie, which are thematically linked as aspects of impotence or incompetence, can result.

In "The Meaning of Alienation", the situation of anomie was correlated to isolation, low status and a lack of participation in formal and informal groups. (Seeman, 1959) The author found five correlates to alienation: feelings of social isolation, normlessness, feelings of meaninglessness, feelings of powerlessness and self-estrangement - "failure to meet self-ideal set". These five features

have been widely identified as indigenous to the situation of middle-aged women who identify with traditional sex-role values. In terms of the social problem, then, the difficulties of middle-aged women can be defined as widespread alienation in a large number of persons. In addition, a theoretical assumption underlying the concepts of alienation and anomie is that "there is a disparity between cultural goals and opportunity in the social structure for individuals to achieve a sense of social cohesion" - to be able to identify their needs with the functions available to them. (Davis, 1970, pp. 36-7)

One theoretical perspective that seeks to outline the dynamics of alienation uses the concept of the "Unemployed Self". The central assumption is that the fundamental and universal dynamic behind modern culture is Utilitarianism. Following from this assumption, it is proposed that to receive rewards and opportunities, an

individual must submit to an education and a socialization that, early on, validate and cultivate only those selected parts of the individual that are expected to have subsequent utility. Once the individual is inducted into this structure, she receives rewards or opportunities in proportion to the perception of usefulness of others in a collectively defined hierarchy. Thus, the Utilitarian framework constitutes a selective mechanism that divides the world into the "useful" and the "not useful." Another implication of the Utilitarian assumption is that the opportunities available in such a culture include or exclude certain attributes and teach the individual to organize self and personality to conform to operating standards of utility. This theoretical framework includes the notion that those attributes of a person that do not directly relate to her collectively defined function impinge on her utility and, hence, the personality or social structure

that is not viewed as potentially useful is "managed" by a system of closing avenues for the experience of those aspects. Thus, the system leaves only one option - social adjustment to roles circumscribed by utility to the system. When an individual is unable to adjust, the results are alienation or rebellion. (Gouldner. 1970, sec.II,part 3,"The Unemployed Self)

A definition of the problems of middle-aged women within this framework would seem to be compatible with the description of feminine middle-aged crisis presented earlier in terms of transactional psychology. Wyckoff believed that, because of their socialization, adult women accept a role structured around utility to others and neglect or are compelled to neglect the cultivation of their own personal resources. She believed, that since nurturing is collectively equated with usefulness of adult women,at middle age, their perceived usefulness to the system is

over and, so, they suffer from alienation, an alienation induced by their isolation from fulfilling opportunities, low status in a collectively-defined hierarchy of utility and being barred from alternatives.

This kind of perspective considers individual and societal functioning together. Jesse Bernard believes that social problems can only be understood in such a manner rather than existing in 'macro' or 'micro' universes. She argues for a unity in social science and underscores the symbiotic relationship between psychology and sociology. In this context, the distinction between studies of the individual and studies of society becomes an academic convenience. Bernard identifies the interaction of the individual, status and role as the frame of reference for examining the problems of the second half of the twentieth century. (Bernard, 1957, pg. x, pg. 50)

If we accept the contention widespread depression in middle-aged women is fundamentally related to the forces operating in an essentially Utilitarian culture, the prevalence of this illness is strong evidence for the conclusion that an inability to function within circumscribed roles leads to either alienation or rebellion. The evidence that large numbers of middle-aged women are alienated has been presented earlier. Phyllis Chesler has proposed that depression in traditionally-oriented women can also be understood as an expression of rebellion against restrictive definitions of their functions. Briefly, her thesis is that an individual who is in a subservient position to others and who can find no other alternatives will wage "covert" rebellion against those who have power over her by manifesting symptoms of depression. These symptoms make her unable to fill the role she finds untenable. Chesler describes this kind of depression as an "unconscious strike directed toward resented task masters". (Chesler, 1971, pp. 746 ff.)

Within this context, subsequent chapters will investigate the view that the widespread despair of middle-aged women is a result of their inability to adjust to legitimate expectations. The attempt will be made to ascertain the extent to which the personal attributes of women are understood in terms of their utility as mothers. The widely-supported definitions of adult women will be examined to ascertain the degree to which they deny reward or opportunity outside a collectively-defined function, the degree to which the utilization of the "non useful" segments of woman's selves is seen as inimical to the collective good and, finally, the degree to which problems posed by current definitions of female functions are ignored. Through this investigation, the concept of the "Unemployed Self" as applicable to the situation of middle-aged women will be thoroughly examined.

Finally, the proposition that Utilitarian culture manages the aspirations of individuals and groups by not acknowledging alternative roles merit

recognition will be examined in the light of evidence that the situation of middle-aged women lacks the legitimization of dominant groups.

The exploration of these question may provide a theoretical framework unifying divergent definitions of the problem.

Summary of Chapter Two

The statistical data available on the incidence of various phenomena generally accepted as indicators of a social problem and individual distress have been reviewed. These data indicate that the incidence of psychiatric illness, suicide, alcoholism and legal drug use markedly increases in women at middle age and is correlated to marital status and má or occupation. The prevalence rate for these difficulties is not comparable for men, unmarried women or women who primarily identify themselves with spheres outside the family, In addition, no correlations have been found in the literature between these social indicators and age for men.

These statistics suggest that these problems are related to sex status and widespread similarities in the circumstances of middle-aged women rather than individual life situations. As well, they indicate that unmarried men have more problems than married men, suggesting that the spouse role holds different implications for the two sexes.

Descriptive data on the characteristics common to middle-aged women have been presented and related to some theoretical conceptions of social and psychological functioning. Literature was cited in support of the contention that the housewife-mother role received less status than other roles and did not constitute a basis for feelings of importance and self-worth for many women. Middle-aged women, in particular, could find little meaning or purpose in their daily lives.

The proposition that the structure of the traditional housewife-mother role presented obstacles to finding alternatives at middle age was related to social power. If social power is correlated to the ratio of dependence and

independence in social relationships, the exclusive dependency on others for identity inherent in traditional roles may result in perceptions of little social power and low status by both the woman and those around her.

Research that is consistent with the view that traditional middle-aged women have held adult roles that compel them to be dependent on others for identity, to exist within a narrow role scope and that offer little opportunity to receive feedback on their personal competence has been reviewed. Identification with the traditional mother-wife role was seen to be negatively correlated to social and personal difficulties. The research suggested that commitment to traditional sex roles may be a predictor of social difficulties in middle age. The relationship between these two 'variables' is more evident than any correlations between stressful events in individual situations or personality characteristics.

The structural dependence and limits to alternate meaningful purposes leaves many middle-aged women with no viable alternatives. Some authors believe this is due to a personal value internalized by traditional women which causes them to see alternative roles as threatening their essential identity- equating femininity with nurturing. These women see assertiveness as inimical to both femininity and nurturing. However, assertiveness and personal mastery are seen as essential to adaptive capacity. Within this framework, either a traditional female role or substituting a more autonomous role destroy identity. In addition, findings that how one identifies with a role will determine its impact have been related to descriptive material illustrating that the sense of a lack of social power and the inability to relate intrapsychic needs to any particular course of action have led many middle-aged women to exhibit symptoms of self-estrangement.

Marvin Seeman's work on alienation offers a framework in which strict adherence to norms at one point in time can be seen to lead to an anomic situation characterized by psychic exhaustion, low status, low self-esteem and an inability to find meaningful guidelines in the environment. Parallel frameworks within psychology were presented in order to unify the individual and social contexts of the problem.

Finally, the concept of the "Unemployed Self" has been presented. It has been suggested that a definition of the problem of middle-aged women within this framework would account for any discrepancy between widely-held views of the situation of this group and the extant empirical data and explain why their problem is not recognized as a legitimate public concern. It was also proposed that the consequences foreseen within the conception of the dynamics of the "Unemployed Self" in a utilitarian culture are paralleled in the situation of many traditionally oriented middle-aged women.

Given the descriptions of the situation of middle-aged women, the conclusion has been drawn that it meets the criteria of a latent social problem. There is evidence to support the case that the difficulties of this group are social in origin, are not primarily the function of personal attributes or individual life events and that they are affecting a large number of people.

CHAPTER THREE
SOCIAL STANDARDS

Introduction

A central criterion of a social problem is the existence of a significant discrepancy between social standards and social actuality. (Merton, 1971, pg. 794) The response to such an incongruity will depend, for the most part, on the values relevant to the situation. "New issues and new problems can emerge without any objective change in status as a result of a change in priorities of value." (Davis, 1970, pg. 30) Herbert Blumer proposes that "social problems are fundamentally products of a process of collective definition instead of existing independently as a set of objective social arrangements with an intrinsic make-up." (Blumer, 1971, pg. 298) He presents evidence to support the case that world-view and ideology are chief determinants of societal reaction to 'social problems.'

and that the world-view of social scientists affects their reactions in the same way. Thus, social scientists' interpretations of events should be seen as apart of the collective definition of standards and not as pure reportage.

Whether these values and ideologies allow the legitimization of a situation as a public concern is directly related to the observer of the situation. Social problem literature identifies the relevant groups to be those that are 'functionally significant', 'dominant' or 'salient'. The circumstances that are problematic must be seen to pertain to the welfare of these 'significant', 'dominant' or 'salient' groups.

Robert Merton, among others, has identified social scientists as one the the primary forces in accomodating the remediation of the objectively perceivable distress of particualr groups into collective definitions of acceptable social standards. However, social scientists' descriptions of social situations select those characteristics perceived to be salient in terms of the theoretical base of their particular academic area.

(Gouldner, 1970, pg. 84; Merton, 1971, pg. 808; Mednick and Tangri, 1972, pg. 6; Henshel and Henshel, 1973, pg. 75) Thus, social science not only serves a function of integrating previously unrecognized phenomena into the social landscape but determines by choice of emphases the ideological context within which they will be perceived.

As stated previously, the knowledge and values of social work are widely acknowledged to be derived from psychology and sociology, particularly from psychoanalytic frameworks and the instrumental-positivistic theories of sociology.. (Lucas, E.S.W., 1971, pg. 324; Henshel and Henshel, 1973, pg 84; Meisel and Friedman, 1974, pg. 70; Wetzel, 1976a, pp. 232-3) Material has been presented demonstrating that the social work profession formally integrates an issue into fields of practice on the basis of official societal sanction.

In the previous chapter, it was represented that the social actuality of middle-aged women as

a group may be considered as a latent social problem. Given the function of social science described above, a review of the social standards and interpretations of the meanings of these standards in the social science frameworks from which social work practice is derived is of interest. Some practice literature which directly relates the ways the social science knowledge base is integrated into interventive frameworks will also be reviewed.

A description of widely-accepted criteria should offer insight into the degree of incongruence between the circumstances of adult women and social standards. If there is no disparity, this may aid in describing how the situation is interpreted and what the nature of the problem is thought to be. Finally, a review of the beliefs underlying social work practice with this group may be useful in establishing what is generally seen to constitute 'functional significance'. Given the close relationship earlier

presented between a traditional female role and difficulty during middle-age, the focus will be on the treatment of this role in terms of social work values.

The Female Role

i Wives and Mothers

The conceptions of the place of adult women and their problems in general are particularly relevant to the examination of middle-aged women as a group. The middle stage in the life cycle of a woman is a point of confluence where the social forces that act on women meet. The circumstances of middle-aged women provide an exemplar case of the consequences, both good and bad, of functioning within various definitions of the female role.

This idea has been expressed by one writer as follows:

"We are not only middle aged, but we feel caught in the middle of our past and present...we have always been in the middle. We were raised to have respect for our elders and to see it as a central focus in our lives to please our parents: we are

still trying to do this...we were the first crop of parents to take our childrens' failures and limitations as indication of our inadequacies not theirs; the first to believe that one could aspire to become a perfect parent. We found ourselves in the middle trying to please an older and younger generation." (Leshan, 1973, pg. 24)

Noting that the problems of middle-aged women seem to rebound off the expectations of others in the family and in society and the personal issues of accomplishment and adequacy, the writer continues,

"There we are, trying to face what menopause or empty nest or retirement will mean to us as women and we are caught in the midst of a battle of what it means to be a woman from birth to death." (Leshan, 1973, pg. 102)

Susan Meisel sees the situation of middle-aged women as exemplary, as "the most glaring problem" associated with the implications of the adult female roles. (Meisel, 1974, pg. 68)

Marjorie Fiske-Lowenthal selected the situation of middle-aged women as the focus of her conclusions on the dynamics of adult development across life stages. Expressing pessimism about the ability of current social standards to accomodate the

developmental needs of adult women, she ends with this statement.

"We may soon find ourselves with an increasing proportion of frustrated, self-deprecating or even self-hating middle-aged and older individuals whose personal way out of a dilemma is to adopt the sick role, thus wreaking a legitimate if not deliberate revenge on a society that has denied them any challenging alternatives."
(Fiske-Lowenthal et.al., 1975, pg. 245)

These kinds of observations support the relevance of examining definitions of social standards of adult sex-roles to provide a context for understanding middle-aged women. There will be self-evident parallels in the implications of definitions of the feminine situation in general and those of middle-aged women in particular.

The context in which adult women are viewed and the significance accorded to their aspirations may be illustrated by the kind of representation their issues receive in the literature. Several authors who write about middle-aged women have noted that there has been very little research done on this topic in the past making it

necessary to extrapolate from research areas they thought were relevant. (Bart, 1967, pp. 1-4; Klass and Redfern, 1977, pg. 102; Dulude, 1978, pg. 1) Furthermore, when issues are raised in general social science literature about women, it appears that, overwhelmingly, women warrant attention as wives and mothers. One critic observed:

"By far, the largest segment of sociological literature concerning women is focussed on their roles as wives, mothers and housewives ... they ARE the family ... a favorite word is "role" and the dramaturgical metaphor is highly appropriate. In family and marriage literature, women are encapsulated within the feminine role. The psychoanalytic view has led to an implicit definition of women as wives and mothers TO THE VIRTUAL EXCLUSION OF ANY OTHER AREA OF LIFE." (emphasis of the author) (Oakley, 1974, pg. 17)

Another author has presented evidence that widely-used conceptual frameworks in sociology include women as independent factors only when considering the family institution and neglect to consider them as salient in the study of economic and political structures. As well, women's role within the family is described as the maintenance of human relationships. There are few descriptions of any instrumental function for women within the

family. This author, Cynthia Fuchs Epstein, believes that the implications of such a pervasive conceptual framework directly relate the functional significance of women as a group to their ability to fill these ascribed requirements. (Epstein, 1974, pp. 655 ff.)

ii The General View

The study of the areas of marriage and family receives low status within academe. The relatively low significance accorded these subjects has had the effect, in the eyes of some observers, to 'persistantly trivialize' their importance. (Long Laws, 1969; Bart, 1971, pg. 736; Bernard, 1973, pp. 22 ff.; Oakley, 1974, pg. 18)

Several woman academics report that the problems of women are not considered to be as important as those of other groups, particularly racial minorities and the poor. One female sociologist wrote,

"Womens' studies were seen to have little value in understanding politics, art or literature and also not as important as poor or blacks... Thus there has been an alliance formed [to exclude women from analytic structure of social problems] between The Establishment and the radicals." (Epstein, 1974, pg. 647)

Mednick and Tangri support this observation, presenting documentation from academic sources and the writings of Black leaders in the United States. (Mednick and Tangri, 1972, pp. 12-6) Another writer, Susan Meisel, feels that in many professional and academic circles, the womens' movement had been "dismissed as a fad". She perceived considerable reluctance within these groups to accomodate the social forces behind the womens' movement into their analytic frameworks. (Meisel, 1974, pg. 67)

Investigation has been done into the situation of female academics and the work they produce about women. While 33% of graduate sociology students were women, only 15% of teaching and research appontments were held by them. Female sociologists are less likely to be full-time faculty, have lower faculty rank on average and are more likely to be restricted to teaching undergraduate courses. (Humphrey, 1974, pg. 219) The situation of female psychologists is similar. (Fidell, 1970)

In social work journals, 67% of the articles written between 1968 and 1973 were written by men while 67% of all social workers were women. (Gripton, 1974, pg. 79)

One study of footnote patterns suggests the main readership of female academics who write about women is more or less restricted to other female academics. (Kravetz, 1976, pg. 425)

These observations may mean that the quality of attention accorded womens' issues limits the possibility their distress will be viewed as a priority.

iii Basic Distinctions: The Social Science Perspective

Concepts of the place and importance of adult women rest on the assumption that women are essentially different from men. This distinction may have become so much a part of the cognitive landscape as to appear to reflect a self-evident truth.

Testing for masculine and feminine traits has failed to achieve any consistency in predictive value. Clinical psychologists are unable to tell whether a test had been written by a woman or a man. (Weisstein, 1971) In a recent large scale study examining the characteristics of men and women, Spence and Helmreich concluded they could find no evidence that any differences in the cognitive mechanisms and psychological requirements of individuals could be attributed to sex. Specifically selecting the issues of achievement and personal adequacy, they emphasized that no basis was found for believing the underlying dynamics differed for men and women. (Spence and Helmreich, 1978, pg. 110) These findings are consistent with research findings regarding the relationship between various traits and sex in the past. In 1936, Lewis Madison Herman and Catherine Cox Miles tried to establish a scale in which personalities could be measured in terms

of their relative masculinity and femininity. They applied their own scale - carefully worked out on the basis of questionnaires, test of attitude, test of interest, opinions and emotional response - to various groups classified by age, education, occupation and other social characteristics, concluding that "femininity is a quality divorced from sex." (Klein, 1951, pg. 8)

Later social science procedures have not reflected this finding. Garai wrote the following in 1970:

" ... any available mental health tests that assume men and women derive happiness from similar experiences of success and satisfaction and share the same needs and life goals and do not basically differ in attitudes, values and beliefs [these tests are not sensitive to major areas of difference that exist between men and women] Any mental test that lays claim to validity must provide differential criteria and separate norms for males and females." (Garai, 1970, pg. 125)

The "major areas of difference" he goes on to identify later in his monograph more or less reflect principles generally recognized to underly social work and psychotherapeutic practice with women,

These principles have been summarized by one author as follows:

"The male is the prototype of humanity. The female is understood in relation to him. Observed characteristics of humanity are ascribed to women to a greater or lesser degree (more emotional, less intelligent) ... [the second is] a dichotomy is established between the cognitive and affective aspects of human functioning which are assigned to men and women respectively. The significance of this dichotomy for women is virtual identity with her sensuality and body, so pervasive are these ideas and the question of the primacy of the rational as to suggest that man is closely identified with his body as women is to count ridicule." (Doherty, 1973, pg. 68)

The pervasiveness of these themes in social work and social science literature is beyond question.

Mary Schwartz has identified the works of Erik Erikson, Theodore Lidz and Nathan Ackerman as core components of social work curricula in the United States. (Schwartz, 1973, pg. 65)

Erikson proposes a developmental model in which resolution of various conflicts of identity

in young men lead to a sense of personal mastery and an effectively functioning adult.

"This integration will be found to be a combination of mechanical ability ... autonomy ... leadership and tolerance. Young women, on the other hand ... must carry the burden of becoming a woman and a mother ... [her] crisis will come [with] the vicissitudes of child training." (Erikson, 1963, pp. 320-1)

In a later essay, very often included in anthologies about women, Erikson wrote,

"Am I saying then, that 'anatomy IS destiny'? Yes, it is destiny ... Anatomy co-determines personality configurations. The modalities of woman's commitment and involvement, for better or worse, reflect the ground plan of her body ... a woman is never not-a-woman, she can see her long-term goals only in those modes of activity which include and integrate her natural dispositions ... that which nurses and nourishes, cares and tolerates, includes and preserves."
(Author's emphasis) (Erikson, 1964b, pp. 24-6)

While young men's identity is resolved in Erikson's work around issues of mastery of skills, autonomy and achievement, a woman does not achieve identity until she becomes a mother and is incomplete until then. When Garai noted that unmarried women without children exhibit symptoms

of social maladjustment less often than other groups, he found this "remarkable" in the face of the losses they suffer in ability to achieve identity. He ascribes this adjustment to "overcompensation". (Garai, 1970, pg. 134)

In addition, consistent with the summary of major themes in the psychology of women presented earlier, Erikson does identify the female body as the "ground plan" of her personality but not a similar renunciation of achievement in males to meet libidinal needs.

Jesse Bernard imagines a social theory ascribing a parallel 'ground plan' for men reading as follows:

"It is unreasonable to look forward to a time when introductory texts begin with the fundamental social datum that all societies include two collectivites, one in which the members are characteristically smaller, slower, less physically powerful etc., the other less tolerant of sexual deprivation etc.; but both must live in a common locale ... I would be happy if this idea produced even a miniscule shift in atleast one person's perspective." (Bernard, 1973, pg. 22)

The work of Theodore Lidz can be viewed as an expansion of the basic principles of female adult development in Erikson. He offers the incumbent social worker or psychotherapist a description of what 'normal' female identity should look like.

"The formation of female identity consists of the successful resolution of the female identity crisis ... the adolescent girl wants to achieve, to fulfill incomplete feelings [because of the American Achievement Ethic] ... and, so uses her intellect aggressively and phallicly ...

Resolution of her conflict occurs when the female prerogative of remaining dependent and gaining status through her husband's achievement becomes more enticing.

"Her previous contempt of the woman's role in life and of women who are content to fill it turns into appreciation of its advantages." (Lidz, 1968, pg. 351)

iv Implications

Thus, the female identity is structured around accommodation to dependency and a renunciation of personal intellectual and psychological needs. These two circumstances have been correlated to low

self-esteem, the inability for autonomous adaptation to changing life circumstances and eventual lack of cohesion with the social environment. Despite this apparent contradiction, the developmental aspects of middle-aged women continue to be seen in the context of frameworks such as Erikson's and Lidz's.

The Importance of Physiology

A recurrent theme is that middle age disturbances are grounded in female physiology. Based on the assumption that menstruation and motherhood enhance ego strength in women because they learn to accept the implications of their physiology, psychological development in middle age is seen to be a function of how well this accommodation has been achieved.

"... the cyclical repetition of gonadal function of women has a method (sic) of practicing adaptive capacities. The repetitiveness of the sexual cycle prepares the woman not only for motherhood but, through the mastery of fluctuations corresponding to hormonal decline and menstruation, for cessation of gonadal stimulation at the climacterium." (Benedek, 1950, pg. 10)

The central thesis is that:

" ... a woman has to have a personality which permits her to be passive, to be loved and cared for, so that she may give into her physiological needs with pleasure, without protest, and thus may enjoy pregnancy and motherhood. If her personality does not permit her to respond to physiological needs, she will struggle against them during every sexual cycle."
(Benedek, 1950, pg. 18)

The type of women who are perceived as having problems at middle age are those who have sublimated their 'femininity' and so have not mastered the feminine adaptive processes. Specifically identified are women who, because of their "narcissistic" faults, have sought their emotional gratification through intellectual or professional pleasures, sublimating and rejecting the female sexuality which, supposedly, results in growth of a total personality.

Another standard interpretation is that middle age represents a resurgence of feminine identity conflict which, it may be recalled, is resolved through motherhood. Losing the means to integrate

her identity, the middle-aged woman's crisis comes to a resolution when, as a grandmother, she can identify with married daughters and daughters-in-law. Thus she fulfills the basic needs of feminine psychology - "intuition and motherliness". According to this theory, the "condition of most middle-aged women is not normal". (Fessler, 1950, pg. 28)

Though strict Freudian interpretations have fallen out of vogue, the identification of women's psychology with the body is still prevalent in altered forms. (Doherty, 1973, pg. 69) However, empirical studies of menopausal women reveal that 20% report no symptoms, psychological or physical, during menopause. (Dulude, 1978, pg. 14) Only ten percent of women report symptoms more severe than flushing or headaches. (Bart, 1967, pg. 171) More importantly, menopausal depression has been correlated to previous maladjustment or emotional instability and usually appears within a constellation of other symptoms of emotional impairment. (McFarlane, 1956) The only symptom

research has thus far related exclusively to menopause is night sweats. (Dulude, 1978, pg. 14)

From her interviews with middle-aged women, Bernice Neugarten could find no biological/psychological parallels to be drawn. In fact, menopause ranked low in the list of major concerns expressed. Both men and women conceived of the movement from one age level to the next in terms of social changes rather than in terms of the biological. When women spoke about menopause, it was...

"... in terms of no longer being afraid of pregnancy, of having more privacy with the children's departure, a greater acceptance of their bodies and better sexual and emotional relations with their spouses."

Neugarten concludes,

"... though many menopausal women are annoyed by their symptoms, overall, it is a great relief." (Neugarten, 1968a)

Neugarten's findings have been corroborated in the works of other researchers. In addition, many studies found that menopause was a positive or neutral occurrence in many women's lives.

(Bart, 1967, pp. 165-85; Livson, 1977, pp. 81-2)

Menopausal Anxiety

As with 'empty nest', menopausal anxiety appears to be related to an over-commitment to the maternal role. As with empty nest crisis, menopausal anxiety is associated with a role loss and a perceived sense of discontinuity of purpose. The etiology of menopausal depression has been described as follows:

"The very phrase "change of life" means a tacit acceptance and endorsement of a utilitarian view of menopause by the culture. It further implies changes in the pattern of life, from what one has been familiar with to what is yet to be defined. The illness becomes covert communication of hostilities toward significant others. (you deserted me, now I compel you to take care of me) In addition, American culture emphasizes individual independence and even dependence on one's children is not culturally sanctioned. This fear of dependence together with the low status of the old, derived from the utilitarian philosophy of the Frontier, may be anticipated with anxiety ... and trigger disintegration in the constricted+++ individual."
(Kisik, 1961, pp. 237-8)

Although menopausal depression can be related classically to low status and prestige, dependency, rolelessness and a self-perception of uselessness and narrow role scope, the element of rebellion against a psychically exhausting situation may also

+++ defined by the author as narrow role scope
pg. 235

apply.

Though the impact of decreased hormonal activity is the subject of much debate, evidence that menopausal depression is social and not physiological in origin is supported by the findings on the effect of estrogen therapy on menopausal emotional problems. "In the majority of cases, many symptoms, depression in particular, persist even after estrogen treatment has restored pre-menopausal hormone balance." (Dulude, 1978, pg. 14)

Summary

Thus, while standard texts widely used in social work training* propose that there is an intrinsic

* The sociology and psychology works used as examples in this chapter have been used in the curricula of most social work schools as shown in the two articles by Wetzel (op.cit.), Meisel (op.cit.) and Schwartz (op.cit.). They are also identified in the Encyclopedia of Social Work (16th Issue) s.v. "Socialization and Interpersonal Change", "Socialization: Social Structure and Personality", "Socialization Methods in Social Work Practice" and "Ethics".

relationship between bio-sexual characteristics and the psychology of women, there has been little to support this belief in the results of empirical investigations. Specifically, physiological changes occurring at menopause have not been found to correlate directly to any 'typical feminine' psychological response. In addition, despite support of passivity as the proper feminine role, depression or more severe impairment is more prevalent in middle-aged women who have been committed to this role to a high degree.

The roles of adult women are equated with their utility within the family and are considered relevant only in terms of this equation. Since the family institution is conceptually isolated from other societal spheres, it is consistent with such a framework to define the problems of middle-aged women exclusively in terms of family functions. The significance of women's problems and their study is seen to be relatively minor- an extension of the general view of the importance of women as a group in society. To see the middle-aged woman's

problem as deviancy from norms in an individual precludes consideration of collective responsibility for their difficulties and viewing the social remediation of these difficulties as necessary to the common good.

The issue of competency and social power is directly related to this exclusive equation of womens' achievement and to the relative inconsequentiality of womens' activities for many societal mechanisms. On the one hand, the feminine role is viewed as imperative and necessary for achieving personal fulfillment, and on the other, womens' discontent is defined in terms of evasion of their responsibility to develop themselves and participate in other spheres by 'choice'. (Turner, 1970, pp.273-7) Some versions have it that, though some adult women do take on responsibility, society always demands less from them. Therefore, their lives are easier than those of men. The assumption here is that, because the obligations of adult

women are limited, any activity they undertake beyond these responsibilities is not evaluated as closely as male activity, which is obligatory while theirs is voluntary. Within these frameworks, the public activity of women is perceived as being significant only as avocations and not as necessary contributions to political or economic spheres. In addition, it is assumed that motherhood, which is defined as an adult woman's primary responsibility, may allow her to evade more 'important' tasks.

Let us pursue the implications and consequences of these assumptions as evidenced in social work practice and literature.

Implications for Social Work Theory

The coexistence of these two conflicting definitions of standards can confuse the formulation of solutions to the problems of middle-aged women. It would be consistent with these definitions to expect adult women to renounce achievements outside the family in order to fulfill primary obligations.

It would also be consistent to expect a contribution to other areas of society on the assumption, that limiting obligations to the family is not an acceptable contribution to the collective good. These definitions imply that the housewife-mother role is relatively insignificant and the public activities of women are insignificant in that they are "optional". Furthermore, public activities are not as important as functions within the family. Within this kind of framework, the difficulty of identifying how to restore feelings of importance and worth to middle-aged women with problems is evident.

The theme that women use the traditional role to evade other legitimate responsibilities appears in the writing of Dr. Nathan Ackerman, a widely-used authority in the field of family dynamics. Ackerman feels that "women's aggressiveness and mastery" within the family are only a "facade... Their facade of self-sufficiency and strength

represents an effort at compensation, to console herself for her inability ... [she] depends safely on a man." (Ackerman, 1959, pg. 179) More importantly, in Virginia Satir, he is identified as a major theoretical influence on her work. (Satir, 1971, pg. 200-05) Virginia Satir is a recognized authority on family practice within the social work profession; her interventive frameworks are considered core knowledge in a great many courses on family counselling.

Satir quotes the following statement from Ackerman's work. Noting changing mores in the sex-roles of men and women as a stress of modern family life, he says,

" ... the forces of change race far ahead of the forces of continuity ... the father was a man of vigor, strength and courage, the unchallenged governor of the family."

Ackerman advocates the reintegration of family organization through "making authority rigid, maintaining a sharper division of labour and more clearly limiting and compartmentalizing roles." (Ackerman, 1959, pp. 147-8) The assumptions behind

this proposal are that family stability is vital for the continued functioning of society and a limited and sharply defined role for women is necessary for family stability. At the same time, Ackerman (and Satir) believe that mastery of the traditional role is related to the inability of women to take on autonomous roles.

The simultaneous expression of the essential nature of the feminine role and the perception that commitment to that role is an evasion of responsibility has always been pervasive. One article states:

" ... women lack the self-discipline to ration their time ... psychologists will tell you that they [housewives] clutter up their lives with trivialities ... and actually welcome any distraction because they lack clear-cut objectives and do not develop willpower ... when a woman gets married, she feels her goal in life has been achieved and renounces further ambitions for self-development."

In the same article, this author, Agnes Meyer, states ...

"it has now come to the point where many married women work and neglect their children because they feel they must have a paid job to hold respect in the community ... It is one thing if women work because they must support their families or have a special contribution to make to society. The deprecation of housework is another thing -

cont.

it is socially undesirable- ... as a result, many worried restless immature females complain bitterly there are not enough women in the United Nations, government ... Others actually rebel against the inescapable fact they are women. Simone de Beauvoir's The Second Sex is a brilliant and sinister example of this pathological state of mind." (my own emphasis) (Meyer, 1956, pg. 149)

In the same article, Meyer has deprecated housework and identified the deprecation of housework as "socially undesirable". It is difficult to imagine what form "further ambitions for self-development" might take given that it is socially desirable for women to work only if they must or if they have a special contribution to make to society. This article was written about middle-aged women. Again, the implication here is that middle-aged women have no contribution to make except attending to children, so after childrearing is over, the social standards for middle-aged women define them as useless.

Meyer's theme that middle-aged women want to do too little and seek to do too much is reiterated in other considerations of the problems of middle-aged women. (Frank, 1956; Self, 1969, pp. 9-11)

In their classic study entitled "Lack of Communication between Men and Women" which is yet to be refuted, the Steinmans major finding was that, generally, men expect less of women than women think is expected of them. (Steinman and Steinmen, 1958, pp. 350-2) This finding is consistent with the material presented here which suggests that social standards for middle-aged women consist mainly of be inobtrusive. Alternately, because activities, both within and outside the family are granted low import, a woman may well feel the low prestige she is receiving means she is expected to do more. Given this framework, she would not perceive herself to be useful or competent.

The Encyclopedia of Social Work states that women experience less stress than men because they have fewer obligations and functions to fill in society.

... "There is a good deal of evidence that males have a more difficult time ... than females do. Advances in science and technology would seem to have particularly favored women: modern medical care has drastically reduced the risk of child-bearing ... educational and vocational opportunities are virtually as good as those for men; they share approximately equal rights: they are often favored by the law; and their small muscled dexterity gives them a lead in many clerical and manufacturing positions ... Yet, females are often treated as the weaker sex: males are expected to protect and defer to them. The dependencies ... and human frailties of females are more or less encouraged and indulgently accepted by parents, teachers and employers ... In many cases, their life experiences are more benign for them than is the case for men... socializing agents are far less forgiving of deficient males than females ... young males are often caught in a double bind by largely female socializers - mothers and teachers ... when they are "little men" - expressive and daring ... and are "put down" for being too rowdy."
(Chilman, 1971, E.S.W., PP. 1299-1300)

i Scope

Asymmetry in the expectations that men versus women hold for females, and collective expectations that the "human frailties" of women will be "indulgently accepted" by parents, spouses and employers appear widely in the literature. In her review and analysis of the literature on married women, Judith Long Laws finds considerable support for both these observations. Moreover, Long Laws presents and cites

research material that suggests that most men find these definitions of roles satisfactory and do not feel they are entitled to increase thier expectations of the women they live and work with. (Long Laws ,1971,pg. 488) Taken with the findings in the Steinman study, and the previous material from the Encyclopedia of Social Work , it appears that the norms used in judging womens' behavior do not define the problems of middle-aged women as functionally significant. Women who are exclusively committed to the mother role do not represent a disparity between social actuality and social goals for the groups salient in the process of identifying public issues.

In addition, an assymmetrical balance of expectations can be correlated to the 'social power' proposition that the resources an individual is perceived to have is a major determinant of the amount of influence she is permitted to exert. (Martin and Osmond, 1975, pg. 340) It has already been noted that authors

widely used in social work training apply standards that define attempts to resolve this imbalance as unnatural or not consistent with the collective good.

The perceived threat a revised balance of expectations would present to society is a major theme. Moreover, the definition of women as not really needing more than motherhood is pervasive.

The Council of Social Work Education found "stereotypical views of female development, anti-women bias in personality theory and traditional sex-role standards provide the theoretical framework for much social work practice." It also found that ...

" women [in social work texts] were presented as innately passive, emotionally immature and that motherhood was specified as a universal requirement for female fulfillment. Standards used to assess and form treatment goals for female clients are derived from these concepts.

Further, the council identified the treatment goals for women in marriage and family practice as "adjustment-oriented" rather than "empirically derived". (NASW, 1975)

ii Historical Precedent

These conclusions represent a firmly entrenched historical tradition within the social work profession. The chief thrust of social casework from the 1920's to the present has been identified as Freudian and Neo-Freudian. (Perlman, 1960, pg. 537; Lucas, 1971, E.S.W., pg. 324; Wetzel, 1976a, pg. 233) Despite attempts to integrate concepts of human interaction that take environmental factors into account, the editor of a recent five year review of research in social services concludes that ...

"the notion of "individual failure" still persists within social service institutions in America. There is little recognition of the importance of social forces as a determinant of economic and psycho-social deprivation."
(Maas, 1971, pg. 192)

Important theorists in social work have always proposed social work goals consonant with the stated goals of the NASW, to enter into fields of practice sanctioned and identified by society.
(Bartlett, 1971, E.S.W., pg. 1480)

The founder of the first social work school in America in 1921 stated the fundamental principle of social casework as being:

"... the adjustment of individuals with social difficulties. The better we understand the causes, the more readily and confidently we work... No time is wasted upon annoyance or indignation with the uncooperative housewife, the persistent liar, the repeatedly delinquent girl." (Jarrett, 1919; quoted in Wetzels, 1976a,pg. 233)

In 1949, almost thirty years later, a handbook on women with marriage difficulties published by the Family Service Association of America explained the following. The desire of a women for satisfying activity outside the home coupled with a distaste for housework and child-rearing should be viewed as a "rejection of femininity". It was considered necessary to determine whether such an attitude was a "manifestation of a deep-seated and well-entrenched pattern of personality disturbance or a less firmly entrenched pattern of incomplete maturation". (Hollis, 1949,FSAA,pg. 96,pg. 170)

Dissatisfaction and discontent with the role of mother and wife, then, was seen as abnormal and to be cured or adjusted. The treatment goal of

such immaturity included teaching clients...

"to develop more patience with their husbands, more stability in their love, more ability to see where they are contributing to the conflict and less self-righteousness."
(Hollis, 1949, FSAA, pg. 102)

Thus, the author directs women to adjust to society's definition of a selfless nurturer.

iii Recent Approaches to Treatment

A basic textbook in social work practice, written in 1956 and in use until the late sixties, states that treatment is always conditioned by culture. It instructs social work students that...

"social casework does not include focussing on economic or cultural conditions or social action the worker's role is to identify what is real in the world; whether or not one accepts it." (Hamilton, 1956, pg. 13)

A social work team investigating depression in women at Yale University found that the life-long submissiveness of the depressed woman due to an inability to assert herself led to a lack of autonomy. However, it stressed the social role functioning of the depressed woman and especially the deleterious effects a dysfunctional wife and

mother could have on family life. The team advised...

"weigh carefully the consequences of any therapeutic attempt to encourage more assertiveness in marriage, independence from the extended family or more community participation in working or lower class clients ... it may be experienced as disruptive to their social norms.
(Weissman and Paykel, 1974, pg. 203)

This book was published in 1974. In 1972, the same research team published an article in the Social Work journal about "recent" approaches to depressed women. (Weissman et. al., 1972, pp. 19-25) This team assumed that the norms of the middle and upper classes allow a wider definition of acceptable behavior in women. Inge Bell, an author who has explored the relationship between status and standards applicable to women disagrees.

" ... the assumption [is] that middle class women are always comfortably imbedded in middle class primary groups and that middle class status cushions all of life's shocks ... [it is] assumed further that the woes of middle-class women are essentially class-connected rather than specifically sex-connected. The perplexity of a woman whose children have left home and finds herself unwanted on the labour market - these are real hurts and they go deep ... especially in the context of middle class values."
(Bell, 1975, pg. 154)

Bell proposes that the standards for achievement in the middle class, which are more likely to view the individual as personally responsible for his or her own life, might exacerbate feelings of personal inadequacy in middle-class middle-aged women.

Another theoretical underpinning of current social work practice is the social function approach to roles. Roles are seen as the fulfillment of certain functions in distinct spheres that operate in a complementary, but not interactive, framework. Social stability, a major preoccupation of social workers, is achieved when a kind of "equilibrium" is established by the appropriate number of people pulling their weight in appropriate directions. Instability occurs when the perceived balance of "roles" is upset; when individuals chose other than appropriate roles or foresake the ones they were assigned.

In relation to women, the perceived threats to social stability are identified as "role reversal" and "role conflict". Both of these concepts rely

on acceptance of the assertion that roles are not merely an accomodation of individual capacity to the environment but have intrinsic value.

The Model for Marriages

Despite the availability of alternate models, in marriage and family literature, the orthodox model is the traditional instrumental, institutional, or utilitarian marriage. Hicks and Platt found that the majority of investigation between 1960 and 1970 relied on this theoretical model. They describe " the fundamental principle within this conception to be that task specialization is the most efficient means of social organization." (Hicks and Platt, 1970, 573) Within this context, as discussed before, womens' primary responsibility is limited by "bio-social" factors to a supportive role within the family.

Judith Long Laws, in a similar review, reached the same conclusion. Her analysis of the research on role reversal suggests that, though a number of

investigators found that marital maladjustment was strongly correlated to the traditional division of tasks in marriage, these same authors argue for the superiority of a functionally-based marriage. (Long Laws, 1971, pp. 488-9) Long Laws believes that the reason for this seeming paradox is the theoretical context in which these studies were carried out. She says,

" ... phenomena associated with womens' other capabilities [outside the home] are evaluated in terms of the assumption her primary responsibilities are the maintenance of the quality of human relations within the family ... The institutional model involves role separation ... with instrumental and expressive functions assigned to different spouses. It involves, moreover, a premise of inequality which appears more prominently when changes in marital roles are being discussed ... especially in the assumption that the enrichment of roles of women - whether by ERA, paid employment, or womens' liberation - will mean a loss for men." (Long Laws, 1971, pg. 489)

In the social work practice context, Schwartz found no casework goals which encouraged a woman to take charge if there was a male in the house. Rather, there was ...

" a remarkable amount of dismay expressed by family therapists that the father was no longer the head of the house and intervention strategies were based on helping the father reassert his power." (Schwartz, 1973, pg. 68)

Schwartz goes on to state that role reversal implies a preferred state of male dominance.

She adds,

" ... the instrumental needs of women are often looked upon with some suspicion. We [social workers] are constantly reading about womens' intimacy and tenderness needs as a basis for casework goals ... in addition ... while men must "affirm" masculinity through aggressiveness ... aggressive domineering women lead ultimately to the castrating label - while there is no negative equivalent for a male who overpowers and devitalizes a woman." (Schwartz, 1973, pg. 69)

By acting as an ego threat to her husband, the forsaking of woman's role is perceived as a threat to general societal functioning. Erlich documents the general presence of this concept in five basic college texts on marriage. (Erlich, 1971) "Whether or not a woman is happy in her role is seen as fortuitous." (Erlich, 1971, pg. 424) One author, Robert Udry, comments that American women are "over-emancipated" and thus have lost their moral influence. Erlich quotes another author, William Kephart, who believes "a certain amount of maladjustment [in women] is the necessary price for

for an integrated system of marriage ... female liberation has Orwellian repercussions for the marriage relationship." A third expert, George Leslie, instructs his students that the ultimate conclusion of a partnership marriage is "destructive competition" and tells them that a woman who is a good wife "will not let her work threaten her husband's prestige or the stability of marriage." (my own emphasis) Erlich reaches the same conclusions as Hicks and Long Laws: even when writers concede that a Utilitarian role division of marriage is not pre-determined, they argue for the superiority and appropriateness of this framework on the basis that it is the most 'efficient' and 'effective'. (Erlich, 1971, pg. 425)

However, many writers used as a basis for social work education about women maintain that there are intrinsic factors in women that justify these divisions. It is believed that women and men have different needs from marriage. These assertions are based on the feminine drive for intimacy and tenderness.

One example is Garai's monograph on sex differences and mental health. He interprets research findings as follows.

" a female needs success in love before work... 12 week old girls like pictures of faces and, so, demonstrate they possess inbred affiliative needs while boys of the same age prefer geometric forms and, so, exhibit early signs of a need for object mastery ...[females have] a greater need to be needed by other people and so see marriage and family as their identity. (Garai, 1970, pg. 133)

In the context of the problems of middle-aged women, then, these kinds of standards would lead to interventive goals based on the primacy of the affiliative needs of women and thus endorse the view that women are naturally dependent. The central theme appearing in descriptive and research data on middle-aged crisis is a desperate need to feel useful and to replace an affiliative basis for identity with a sense of personal competence. Thus, there appears to be a disparity between what Long Laws described as "self-fulfilling prophecies - authoritative and authoritarian theorizing - and humble and inelegant empiricism." (Long Laws, 1971, pg. 484)

Conclusions

Given the findings of the NASW council, presented earlier, that social work goals are based on the "emotional immaturity", "need for dependence" and "denigration of status" of women, and the stated social work values to work within cultural norms, the case that social work knowledge treats the problems of middle-aged women in terms of deviancy or as a threat to social stability appears to be well supported.

Given the material presented which suggests an ambivalence in the literature regarding the worth of the mother role -that it is both vital for the collective good and inconsequential -it would be expected that this equivocation be reflected in social work practice.

Role Conflict and the Workplace

Coser and Rokoff have explored the possibility that the interpretations offered in practice literature are a function of a cultural mandate to define achievement in women as problematic. While Long Laws identifies the theoretical framework in which women's activities are evaluated as a predictor of the standards they will imply for marriage, Coser and Rokoff extended the analysis to the workplace. They propose that the interpretation traditionally accepted of the relationship between roles and capabilities of adult women are not even consistent with the theoretical frameworks in which they are framed. Their conclusions support the view that women would be viewed in the same way, irrespective of theoretical context, because there is a cultural imperative to do so.

Coser and Rokoff explore the issue of "role conflict" as an exemplar case. They begin with the

standard definition of role conflict as "the inability to allocate time and energy to different activity systems" (Coser and Rokoff, 1968,pg. 535) They then briefly review the concepts of status and role articulation. In summary, role articulation "priorizes expectations within a single role"; status articulation "separates activities by time and,so, prioritizes expectation by role set providing a normative pattern base for action. It allows individuals to fulfill their various expectations and functions by removing the burden to make a new decision in each situation." (Coser and Rokoff, 1968,pg. 537) Thus, within standard role theory, individuals can operate in more than one sphere without difficulty, so long as the expectations and obligations of these different areas are consensually defined. Coser and Rokoff note that there would be no need for role theory at all if there was not an underlying assumption "that total allegiance to one activity system is rarely expected and normative priorities of involvement are assigned by separation of time and place." (Coser & Rokoff, 1968,pg. 535)

Thus, in theory, women should not experience role conflict to a greater extent than men.

Coser and Rokoff conclude that it is not womens' inability to segment various activities but a cultural mandate that a women must allocate resources to the family institution not to be shared with other institutions that is the basis for role conflict. "Career and family are presented as mutually exclusive alternates for women. It would seem as if modern women were not as capable as men to segment their various roles and activities." (Coser and Rokoff, 1968,pg. 542) The writers propose that the cultural mandate views womens' activities in the occupational sphere as disruptive to the family sphere and her family roles as disruptive to occupational competence. Because they are defined within the sociological catechism that the occupational anchorage is not essential for women, the authors propose "women cannot avail themselves of the mechanisms of status articulation

because normative priorities are ambiguous- they are seen to cause disruption in one role sector or another" (Coser and Rokoff, 1968,pg. 543)

Since a behavioral commitment to occupation and achievement is not normatively legitimate, behavior that demonstrates the obverse is still interpreted within this value context.

Coser and Rokoff note that, within occupational role theory , high status occupations demand more roles than low status occupations. A great deal of disruption is tolerated in the professional work place. A strong occupational commitment is not defined as incompatible with disruptions from other role spheres. (Coser and Rokoff, 1968, pg 549) Yet, women are cloistered in low status occupations because it is believed they cannot sustain a commitment to more demanding jobs in view of disruptions from family obligations. (Coser and Rokoff, 1968, pg. 543)

The writers' general premise can be supported

by material presented earlier in this chapter.

Coser and Rokoff comment that "since women are defined as ... having this kind of commitment to others , they are restricted to the kind of work defined as requiring a small attitudinal commitment." (Coser and Rokoff, 1968, pg. 548) They conclude, "the equivocacy about womens' roles is in the cultural legitimacy of womens' status outside the home. There is little emperical support for the conclusions that women have an intrinsic impaired capacity to articulate their statuses and roles." (Coser and Rokoff, 1968, pg. 551)

Erlich, in her analysis of marriage counselling literature, points out that married women who work are seen to have two full roles. The assumption is that their husbands are not responsible for child rearing or housework. This can be related to the definition of role conflict in women in its implication that the family role is more disruptive to women and womens' occupations are more disruptive to the family than mens'. (Erlich, 1971, pg. 428)

In the social work context, Schwartz found an "emphasis on the negative implications of more flexible sex-roles rather than the self-actualizing potential less defined roles can have." (Schwartz, 1973,,pg. 67) In one marriage counselling text book, the author states, " ... the phenomenon of a successful career woman cast aside by her husband for a less able and more dependent woman is far from unknown." (Erlich,1971,pg. 428) Thus, consistent with Coser and Rokoff's thesis, the home and other spheres are presented as mutually exclusive.

The Theoretical Predicament

Given the equivocation described in the above examples, it can be said that sociology constructs the female according to cultural prescriptions which prove to be logically inconsistent with its own theoretical frameworks. Noami Weisstein proposes psychology constructs the female in a similar fashion. She argues that widely-held psychological definitions

are at odds with research findings. The assumption that human behavior rests on an individual inner dynamic fixed at infancy in an immovable cognitive framework produces these discrepancies. The implications of this concept are that psychology neglects social context and cannot recognize that socialization continues throughout adult life stages. Secondly, research that has never been refuted demonstrates the unreliability of personality tests and inconsistencies within personality data. Weisstein relates these discrepancies to the tradition of building psychological theory on clinical observation without empirical testing. Thus, she concludes that much of psychological theory is based on an incohesive body of evidence. (Weisstein, 1971)

Weisstein identifies the same cultural assumptions that Erlich, Doherty, Long Laws and Coser did, to be the major variable for what standards of psychological functioning will apply to women - that the continuation of the traditionally-defined role is necessary for social stability.

One set of empirical studies she reviews relate to the effect of social context on behavior, particularly Rosenthal's work on the "pygmalion effect". He found that an individual who was described to others in positive terms was treated in this light and, more importantly, the individual will develop that particular positive trait, intelligence for instance.

Similar findings have resulted from other research projects. In one experiment, two groups of experimenters were told different hypotheses about the outcome of their work. Each group found evidence to support the hypothesis given. When told rats were bred for dullness, the rats ran the maze poorly; when told rats were bred for brightness, the rats ran the maze quickly. (Weisstein, 1971, pg. 77) Other studies in this area suggest that context can affect even reactions within the involuntary nervous system. (Mednick and Tangri, 1972, pg. 4)

Drawing on the analogies between dominance/ submission signals used in primates and non-verbal

communication in humans, another researcher explored body communications in therapeutic encounters between men and women. Using classification schemes generally accepted in the field of interpersonal relations, she found signals in the use of smiling, terms of address, invasion of personal space etc. that "constantly communicated to the woman that she was powerless." (Silveira, 1972,pg. 12) Barbara Stevens has suggested that, in such a context

" the therapist's attitude toward the female client is communicated in subtle and uncontrollable ways ... because his attitude is ego-syntonic for her ... he may do no more than perpetuate her own self-contempt; it certainly will not help her overcome her self-contempt." (Stevens,1971.pp. 14-15)

Thus, again, in psychology as in sociology, the treatment of women in the helping professions and its knowledge base can be seen to reside in dynamics beyond the relationship of theory to practice. Given the material suggesting that an autonomous role for women is not a highly-valued goal in these professions and academic areas, the

relationship between middle-aged womens' problems and social work may be problematic in itself. The inclusion of empirical material at odds with traditional standards for sex-role functioning may provide an accomodation of new material only into theory, but not into practice.

Conclusions

Logical inconsistencies in the social standards applied to women and ambivalence towards the contributions of women to society have been described here. These discrepancies suggest that there are cultural obstacles for women to the mechanisms that segment roles and statuses. This interpretation is consistent with the work of Coser and Rokoff.

Additional material from the field of psychology suggest that orthodox cultural mandates are deeply entrenched there and that they are communicated to women as clients and used in academe in both conscious and unconscious ways.

Finally, statistics on inclusion of women in social science faculties and evidence that work on women by women is not widely disseminated and receives relatively little prestige support the view that social standards in the social science knowledge base reflect male biases and values. These have been identified as the expectation that women will be dependent, emotionally immature and limited in capability outside the family sphere. As well, these values interpret adult female roles beyond traditional definitions as being deleterious to societal goals.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE SOCIAL ACTUALITY - ALTERNATIVE VIEWS

Introduction

This section will begin with a brief review of the context in which women have no problems. It will be short because, for the most part, there has been little empirical investigation into the situations that lead to personal mastery or achievement in women. (Epstein, 1974, pg. 649) Secondly, following Long Laws' prescription for the use of "humble empiricism", many descriptive hypotheses which are as yet untested are not considered here. There is much debate about the 'woman problem'. There is remarkable consensus on the 'woman non-problem'. (Bart, 1967, pg. 156) Some material which addresses the issue of a lack of personal mastery in women as socially undesirable rather than culturally mandated will also be included. Finally, the rationale for presenting this material

is to indicate that alternate workable models are available. The ultimate purpose of this chapter is to demonstrate the context in which various theoretical models are put into practice and the extent to which one framework is preferred over another.

Achievement in Women

A dominant characteristic of positive experience for middle-aged women is the perception of personal power and lack of environmental constraints to shifting emotional investments among various spheres of activity. (Bart, 1967, pg. 151; Becker, 1968, pg. 156; Neugarten, 1968a, pg. 137; Spence and Lonner, 1971, pg. 375) Judith Long Laws notes that "scant attention is given [in research] to the options a wife might exercise." (Long Laws, 1971, pg. 502) However, the extant data examining the relationship between choice, class and working part-time or full-time to psychological well-being suggests that choice is very strongly related to the absence of problems.

"Women who worked were happy as were housebound wives who didn't want to work." (Long Laws, 1971, pg. 498) Other research focussed on the various life stages supports the conclusion that, throughout the life cycle, a woman's perception of latitude and a legitimate range of options is correlated to psychological well-being.

Secondly, throughout this literature, the role of social context in the development of adaptive ability is repeatedly underscored. In fact, several researchers agree with Howard Becker's conclusion that ...

"there are no "deep" personality traits which persist across all situations and roles ... social structure ... produces ... patterned affects on human experience." (Becker, 1968, pg. 149)

Becker and Neugarten agree on the point that a critical issue in adult development is the ability of the social context to "give structure to experience and information in light of experience". (Becker, 1968, pg. 149; Neugarten, 1968a, pg. 137) The inability of troubled middle-aged women to draw on their past

experience and develop a context for future activities supports this finding. It is also consistent with material on middle-aged women demonstrating weak correlations between individual personality characteristics and psychological impairment and strong correlations to aspects of environment.

Becker elaborates on the relationship between context and adaptability.

"When it appears people are not adjusting to situational pressures, closer analysis reveals the situation is not actually the same for everyone... commitment to goals outside the present situation... is related to the degree to which the situation is seen as connected to important situations later... and the length of time the individual expects to be in the situation." (Becker, 1968, pp. 150-1)

Becker's findings support data that relates an exclusive commitment to one role as a predictor of adaptive impairment and the finding that middle-aged women with problems experience time in an immediate rather than long-term sense. (Fiske-Lowenthal, et. al., 1975, pg. 127)

Neugarten found that ...

"well-accomplished middle-aged women were able to reconcile their achievement and dependency needs and felt freed from past conflicts of this sort ... she sees this as her due ... she can have feelings of dominance and need to be dependent at the same time." (Neugarten, 1956, pg. 40)

These women represent a direct contrast to those who experience dependency and aggressiveness as identity destroying and so can exercise neither option. Neugarten emphasizes the role of social context in these internal perceptions and the functions of "cues from people around her" in determining them. Thus, it is not surprising that she found that the husbands of women with few problems did not see their wives much differently than they saw themselves. (Neugarten, 1956, pg. 38) The parallels are clear between these findings and those on the difference in expectations between many men and their wives and the suggestions that "unconscious and uncontrollable cues" can bolster or devastate self-image.

Consonant with Neugarten's observations of the accommodation of dependency and dominance within a

role framework, Pauline Bart found that "happy middle-aged women ridded themselves of the unpleasant aspects of their previous roles." (Bart. 1967,pg. 154) She proposes that a positive middle age experience is a process of "selective disengagement" in which a woman maintains role functions she found sustaining and discards those that were experienced negatively. Thus, she allows herself more latitude to choose ego-building experiences. (Bart, 1967,pg. 154) Her interpretation of this phenomenon is supported in the findings of the Fiske-Lowenthal study. (Fiske-Lowenthal,et.al., 1975, pp. 10-1)

Bart summarized research findings on "good" adjustment to middle-age in women observing that flexibility and the ability to shift emotional commitment was emphatically underscored. There was some indecision as to whether a broadened role scope or selective disengagement improved morale, but , regardless, overcommitment to one role did not.

She identified these two variables as the "sum" of the literature to date. (Bart, 1967, pg. 156)

Some writers emphasize feminine middle age as a time for new energy and achievements, especially for women who were never temperamentally suited for domestic service. Having been depressed during their thirties, at middle age, these women feel free to pick up on earlier ambitions. (Dulude, 1978, pg. 19) Other women review the roles they have already tried and, realizing that age and biology will soon close these options, consciously seek to develop others. (Dulude, 1978, pg. 19)

Neugarten found that well-accomplished middle-aged women, in general, felt a new freedom to use latent capacities. (Neugarten, 1968b, pg. 97)

These works indicate that, in a nurturing environment, women find the opportunity for identity building.

i Identifying the Role Characteristics

Gove and Tudor examined the relationship between mental health and adult sex-roles. They identified five fundamental characteristics of the traditional female role and attempted to ascertain how these characteristics relate to psychological impairment. They used epidemiological data, case histories and a content analysis of current mental health literature; and they concluded that women are more likely to have emotional problems owing to circumscribed sex roles. (Gove and Tudor, 1973, pg, 69)

The five identifying characteristics were:

1) Traditional women have one restricted role- they have only one source of gratification.

2) Women find their major instrumental role frustrating - it is not consonant with their educational and intellectual achievement and could be filled irrespective of education. It bestows low prestige.

- 3) The role is unstructured and invisible.
- 4) Even working women are in a less satisfactory position than men.

i) There has been a consistent decline in the relative status of women in employment since 1940.

ii) They are under greater strain -working more hours in a day due to household duties.

- 5) The expectations confronting women are weak and diffuse.

(Gove and Tudor, 1973, pp. 51-5)

Gove and Tudor observe that the feminine role is "characterized by adjusting to contingencies." The result is constant uncertainty about what will be expected and a lack of control over the life course. They believe that, in large part, emotional problems in women are an expression of frustration with an environment that obstructs continuity in life experiences. (Gove and Tudor, 1973, pg. 55)

Joyce Walstedt elaborated on observations such as these concluding that a valid psychology of women must focus on the contingent nature of many individuals' experiences. She says,

" psychology of women must face up to the realities .. the lives of females are full of discontinuities as they go from being learner to predator to wife, migrate with husbands, abruptly end or begin education with jobs, intermix periods of child-birthing and child-raising. A feminist therapist can stimulate thinking and a clearer definition of choices which do not deny a basic part of self and, in this way, help put Humpty Dumpty back together again.
(Walstedt, 1971, pg. 11)

In 1953, Mirra Komarovsky interpreted the implications of the female sex-role for middle-aged women in a similar fashion. A conflict was precipitated in the educational experience of college women who were urged to be competitive on one hand and docile on the other. This conflict was heightened by discontinuity. Just as black college graduates were frustrated when treated like bell boys or porters, female graduates were disturbed by the ordeal of transferring from the life of a scholar to scrubbing floors and washing diapers. The cycle of confusion appeared again when the mother

sent her last child to school. With no full-time task to fill the day, she sought a job to use her education. But she was still expected to serve as a full-time homemaker, and the confusion over the priorities in her life remained. (Chafe, 1972, pg. 213)

Persistence of the Traditional Framework

Given that these frameworks have been available for atleast 26 years, it is difficult to understand why traditional perspectives have prevailed.

Despite the availability of a variety of alternate frameworks, there is considerable evidence that the alternatives have not been accomodated in the practice context with clients in the social work and psychotherapeutic fields. The findings of the Council of Social Work Education have been discussed in an earlier section of this paper. It can be recalled that it concluded that the use of traditional sex-role standards and anti-women bias is widespread and results in mental health practices

disparaging and devaluating women. In addition, the study found treatment goals in practice to reflect a social-adjustment value base. (NASW, 1975)

A 1975 Task Force on Sex Bias and Sex-Role Stereotyping in Psychotherapeutic Practice of the American Psychological Association identified fifteen common sexist themes in current therapeutic practice under four areas of investigation.

These were:

- " 1) fostering of traditional sex-role
- 2) biased expectations
- 3) devaluation of women and sexist use of psychoanalytic concepts
- 4) responding to women as sex objects including the seduction of female clients"

(Report of Task Force, APA Journal, 1975, pg. 1171)

The questionnaire was sent to women in the practitioners' divisions of the APA and to individuals who identified themselves as academics in the area of women's psychology. Three hundred and twenty

(N=1400) female psychologists responded with documentation of instances of such practices. (Report of Task Force, APA Journal, 1975, pg. 1171)

The Double Standard and its Effect on the Profession

There have been several studies, going back as far as forty years ago, which demonstrate that qualities associated with women are considered less socially desirable than "male" character traits. (Baruch and Barnett, 1975, pg. 318) These findings make evident problems in maintaining consistency in treatment of women since traits that are generally socially desirable are socially undesirable in women.

Research findings in other areas demonstrate that sex-role stereotypes, highly consensual norms about differing characteristics, are pervasive. Inge Broverman used these data, taken together with data that demonstrate that feminine traits are socially undesirable and further data which suggest social desirability is closely related to clinical ratings, and explored the ensuing dynamics. She found that characteristics of "healthy" adult persons were

were applied only to men. That is, "healthy" women were evaluated within "behavioral sex-type norms of submissiveness, dependence, being easily influenced and noncompetitive". (Broverman, et.al., 1970, pg5)

In other words, female clients were evaluated in a better light when they fit the stereotype despite the fact that passivity and dependence were 'professionally' defined to be contraindicative of mental health. Thus, there is one standard for mental health for people and one for women.

The therapeutic encounter can be described in terms of a more dependent individual who seeks assistance from a stronger, more independent individual. Using the assumption that passivity and dependence are similar to characteristics of the client role, Turkot and Glad hypothesized that women, who are usually seen to have personality traits congruent with the therapeutic situation, would be expected to have a greater likelihood for therapeutic success. In an experiment in which raters

evaluated transcripts of the same process recording, the situation of a male therapist and a female client was judged to be the one indicating the best prognosis for recovery. There was no correlation to the title of the therapist (psychologist, social worker, psychiatrist) and female patients were viewed as better subjects when the therapist was female as well. Turkot and Glad conclude that the female sex of the client was the most significant factor in these ratings. (Turkot and Glad, 1976, pg. 834)

This 'double standard' has been observed in the training of student counsellors. Schlossberg and Pietrofesa found that female counsellors in training were awarded higher grades and received better evaluations if they used 'typical feminine' techniques in counselling clients. They were rewarded for the use of "empathy" and non-directive techniques and were not rated as highly for the use of aggressiveness and confrontation methods. In addition, the researchers produce evidence that

suggests that the 'double standard' of assessment and diagnosis of female clients within stereotypical norms receives tacit approval and is rewarded in the education of helping professionals. (Schlossberg and Pietrofesa, 1973,) The conclusions of Schlossberg and Pietrofesa were corroborated in the work of Audrey Maislin. (Maislin and Davis, 1975)

The evidence appears to demonstrate that alternatives to the standard female stereotype do not enjoy wide usage in direct practice with female clients. It also appears that therapists who employ and enact these alternative conceptions of women may be viewed as engaging in deviant behavior themselves. One interpretation may be that the processes that maintain the dominance of the traditional sex-role stereotype are unconscious and covert. However, a good deal of the material presented indicates there is an implicit determination to maintain rigid sex-role divisions

rationalized in terms of the maintainance of social stability and 'natural order'. "Social forces' can be seen to reside in the purposive actions of workers, teachers and writers who find current standards acceptable.

In the social work context, the treatment of women who practice may serve as a case in point. According to a 1974 Canadian study, two thirds of Canadian social workers are women. The proportions are believed to be comparable in the United States. (Kravetz, 1976, pg. 425) In 1970, 24% of all social work doctorates in the United States were awarded to women while 85% of doctorates in social work between 1950-1960 were awarded to women. (Theodore, 1971, pg. 20)

Reflecting on a similar situation in Canada and noting only 7% of senior social work administrators were women, the authors of the 1974 study identified the role conflicts between occupations and families as the basis for the relatively low achievement of female social workers. (Kravetz, 1976, pg. 422) However, in an American

sample, controlled for the variable of marital status, Theodore found that unmarried women, as well, held a small proportion of social work administrative positions. She concludes, "role strain cannot explain promotion .. even single women lose .. the variable is sex." (Theodore, 1971, pg. 23)

In this context, it is interesting to note that a major thrust to "defeminize social work and give it male qualities - make it intellectual, rational and administrative" occurred at the end of the 1950's and in the 1960's. (Chafetz, 1972, pg. 18)

In this period, there was an increased effort to recruit men into social work in an attempt to counteract the perception that the "prestige of Social Work is adversely affected because it is identified as a women's profession". (Kadushin, 1958, pg. 40)

If it is assumed that the status of working women is related to sex-role norms, the implications

of this initiative may be related to Coser's finding that professions in which women predominate will be viewed as less vital than male professions whether or not this is true (eg. nursing) and that women will be given the most "expendable" positions within these professions. (Coser and Rokoff, 1968, pp. 544-8) Within this framework, the implications of the fact it was thought necessary to defeminize social work could be the following.

In fact, work carried out mainly by women is less valued and bestows less prestige than male occupations. The thrust to recruit men into social work recognized this fact but did not acknowledge the relationship between sexism and occupational prestige. Thus, it inadvertently created a rise in sexism in the profession. Secondly, female social workers may be placed in roles that are appropriate within sex-type norms and, so, are excluded from more 'rational and intellectual' senior administrative positions.

A 1976 study on sexism within social agencies carried out by Dorothy Zeitz and John Erlich suggests a singular lack of awareness of sexism within the profession on the part of male workers. (Zeitz and Erlich, 1976,) The researchers found a consistent pattern of men reporting the existence of less sexism than women. Fifty percent of the women felt they were treated as a typical member of their sex as opposed to 13% of the men. Women under forty found sexism to be a problem by a ratio of 3:1 to men under forty. Ninety percent of the males felt there was less sexism in their agencies than in the past, as opposed to 34% of the females. Twenty-five percent more males felt there was equal opportunity for both sexes to build careers. Two thirds of both sexes agreed planning in the agency was done by men. It can be inferred that this phenomenon was so obvious as to be beyond dispute. These findings are consistent with other items on the questionnaire. Zeitz and Erlich believe that there is reason to suppose that female practitioners are under a great deal of pressure to conform to traditional roles and to use them as a basis for practice. (Zeitz and Erlich, 1976, pg. 437)

Both Wesley and Levine have observed and described such situations. Levine identified the treatment of middle-aged women as a case in point. (Wesley, 1975, pg. 123; Levine, 1976, pg. 37)

Conclusions

Data relating to the position of women in social work introduces one more aspect of social context. We have seen that the attributes of the traditional female role are employed in the evaluation of female clients AND their therapists even though satisfactory alternatives exist. One is lead, then, to the question of why a profession that is composed 67% of women legitimizes these practice goals. Again, the dichotomy between the unconscious and conscious environmental features may apply. While it can be suggested that female practitioners are influenced by social pressures to maintain these norms, there is also some evidence they are aware of the disparity between their

practice base and the social actuality. If their 'consciousnesses are raised' to the extent they can identify characteristic features of sexism towards themselves to the order of 70 or 90 percent, then they cannot be viewed as mere victims of circumstance. Unlike other fields of social work, family and marital practice is dominated by women and it is they who say aggressiveness and a choice of roles beyond the family are problematic.

It can be suggested that the reason they chose this alternative is closely related to the nature of the social science material used as a knowledge base. As in other fields of practice, lack of cohesiveness and clarity in understanding the dynamics that produce the knowledge used - the epistemological basis for their actions - puts them in the compromising position of being unable to focus their energies toward a Logical solution. (Bitensky, 1973, pg. 130) Acceptance of orthodox social science

-158-

theory becomes a basis for evaluating their intellectual competence, whereas alternative viewpoints are judged to be 'less rational' and, therefore, less viable. This issue will be the theme of the concluding chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE CONTEXT OF DISCOVERY

It has been previously noted that, within Logical philosophy, knowledge is seen to be the "conformity between object and intellect". The intellectual tradition that frames social science theory is fundamentally rationalistic. Thus, legitimate social science theory must produce a conformity between the object and the criteria of rationalism.

Herbert Marcuse and those who identify with his teachings propose that the institutionalization of rationalism within the social sciences has several logical implications. The primary principle that will underly the creation of knowledge will be the consideration of alternative means to alternative ends. That is to say, the paradigm of a 'good' social situation will be whether or not it efficiently meets the ends of various social institutions. Secondly, it would be consistent with

the rational intellect to assume there are universal rational principles operating in the social sphere. Assuming that the laws of social interaction are intrinsically logical, Marcuse believes, must lead to the conclusion that the existing relationships between individuals and their institutions have evolved because they follow the structure of collective needs. Much the same way natural scientists believe that organisms evolve in accordance with natural laws, the rational social scientists believe there is a parallel relationship between collective entities and efficient functioning of society. Thus, within this context, the solution of human problems is conceptualized in terms of technical problems - of best serving the systems that supposedly best serve human needs.

Secondly, the individual is seen as fitting into frameworks of means to ends and is considered only in terms of his or her ability to enhance the efficiency of the system. Marcuse argues that the

rationalization of the conditions of life (through control, social engineering) divorces these forces from the political assumptions that underly them, but, in fact, does not in any way cause them to lose their political content. (Marcuse, 1968, pp. 223 ff.)

These ideas have been described by a social problem theorist as the "normative force of the actual." In this framework, the social theorist assumes the social structure as a given and focusses on ways and means to maintain its optimum functioning. (Merton, 1971, pg. 816)

However, the circularity of this kind of approach has been identified as a major logical inconsistency in the social sciences and calls into question a great many definitions of social situations. Holmes, in his essay, "Legitimacy and the Politics of the Knowable", points to the Logical fallacy that the facts and values in the social sciences can be distinguished one from another.

He says,

" ... the intellectual integrity of science has always depended on the assumption the knower can be irrelevant to the known because the known can have inherent validity ... a validity that can have a logical or sensory base. Thus 2 and 2 always makes 4 ... however, in the social sciences, the pre-existent independent is only knowable as a product of the assimilation of these data into a framework which is the product of the observer."
(Holmes, 1976, pg. 6)

Thus social science produces the phenomena that it studies while the natural sciences do not and, so, cannot rest its validity on universally existent truths. Holmes believes,

" ... social scientists can no more be declared irrelevant than they can be declared non-existent ... thus fact and value, having a common source, are not distinct."
(Holmes, 1976, pg. 5)

Holmes believes that, ultimately, the recognition that social scientists produce knowledge and do not merely gather it will permit social science to create a purer empiricism by allowing values to constitute a legitimate basis for social theory.

The principal confusion produced by this assumption may be seen as a neglect to distinguish between power and authority. It is assumed that, because dominant groups determine public priorities, their power over others is legitimization to do so, thus fixing the social order.

Gouldner studied the sociology of sociologists. He finds that, since a social theory is more likely to be accepted by those who share the theory's background assumptions and find them agreeable, sociologists have a stake in justifying the legitimacy of significant groups. Their function then becomes, not simply to study society, but to conceptualize and order. They have a personal stake in maintaining their own legitimacy as experts on the social order. Their professional reality is at stake and the result is a tacit conviction in the opportunity of the status quo. (Gouldner, 1970, pp. 29, 58, 84)

Social scientists work within a perceptual organization that is bound by the findings and research ; and theories that have preceded them.

Theory structures research. However, different parts of the social order are not all equally important. Attention is focussed on what is theoretically important. Gouldner argues that, in this context,

" ... facts are thus seen as products of an effort to pursue the inferences of theories and primarily interacting with them ...so facts fill a self-implicating perception-anchoring and stabilizing role as distinct from a validity-testing function." (Gouldner, 1970, pg. 32)

In this context, the preference for one view of women over another may become clearer. If there is an imperative to provide theoretical continuity and if the legitimacy of social science rests on the assumption that facts have meaning only within a conceptual map that does not include a major contribution by women to society, this is what will be found. In the light of Holmes' analysis that the knower and the knowable are the product of an interactive process and the material presented earlier on the relative status of women in the social

sciences, power of the male view in the social sciences can be understood more clearly. Such an explanation may subsume numerous other apparent paradoxes in the social science consideration of women.

Albert Einstein said that the theory will determine what is knowable. (Watzlawick, 1976, pg. 45) Thus we find that, though researchers in achievement theory exclude data on women because it is inconsistent with their theory and base their conclusions on exclusively male samples, they do not question their findings. (Meisel and Friedman, 1974, pg. 70) Thus, we find that dependency and passivity are theoretically signs of emotional impairment, but women who are defined as healthy can accept that dependency. Thus, we find that women committed to their work cannot find themselves in books about women. Thus, we find that field-imbedded theory correlates to an insignificant proportion of the population and is presumed

to explain why women cannot think as logically as men. (Silveira, 1972, pg. 4) And in the case of middle-aged women, their problem is seen to both rest on the facts they accepted the traditional role, on one hand, and reject it on the other.

Social science theory rests a great deal of its legitimacy on the assumption of the generalizability of its findings. Gouldner demonstrates the logical faults that can follow from this assumption. He cites the example of Malinowski's theory of magic and its differences from the theory of magic proposed by Radcliffe-Brown. One scholar studied childbirth magic and drew conclusions about the nature of magic from his findings, One studied work and sustenance magic and proposed a theory of magic on this basis. Both scholars assumed the generalizability of their research to paradigmatic frameworks. Gouldner, again emphasized the self-fulfilling nature of facts guided by the choice of analytic frameworks. He concludes,

" ... the theory will therefore develop itself and be shaped by the limited facts and personal reality available to the theorist and , in particular, those imputed realities he treats as paradigms ... he assumes the things he has researched, and hence "knows", are likely and may be used to understand other things he is not acquainted with,... moreover, the research becomes part of his personal reality with a commitment to defend it ... and collectively held notions of reality are the most firmly entrenched components of a person's reality." (Gouldner, 1970, pg. 45)

A parallel dynamic may be suggested to apply to the identification of social work knowledge which, it will be recalled, is derived from social work values which are derived from social work knowledge. Since the legitimacy of the profession rests on its ability to implement socially sanctioned goals, the profession is committed to accept and produce knowledge that justifies its own existence. In this context, the assertion, quoted earlier, in the Social Work Encyclopedia, that the life experiences of women are relatively benign, serves to rationalize social work's commitment to perpetuate the status quo.

However, as Holmes, Marcuse and others have pointed out, the central logical fallacy within social science resides in the belief that values are neutral forces. Findings reviewed in the previous chapter indicate that the suggestibility of researchers in finding what is expected of them calls this assumption into question. However, the recognition of the role of values may provide a basis for imputing superiority to a 'biased' social science framework in preference to perpetuating the illusion that social science research can be bias-free. Ironically, the inclusion of the researcher's values may bring the findings closer to empirical fact because the context of investigation is more exactly stated.

Holmes expresses this as follows.

"... the victory of the social over the scientific will take the very form that social papers have been at great pain to analyse, namely the emergence of legitimacy. Knowledge, too, will become differently valued, the knowable considered legitimate or illegitimate by those who have lost the ability to doubt ... once it is granted we
cont.

participate in what we know and once it is accepted the outer inevitabilities are achievements to be treasured, not baselines to be taken for granted, then the danger is there. And the greatest threat is surely the possible growth of consensus and unanimity ...

... perhaps the best we can hope for (since there will always be a social dimension to the unknown) is that an overpowering consensus will not arise - that through the continuation of conflict inherent in "politics" some "knowable" will remain possible." (Holmes, 1976, pg. 8)

The only 'true' picture social science can draw for us includes the values that surround the social subject because it is these values that constitute the independent factor in social situations.

Conclusion and Closing Remarks

In keeping with the prescription for the inclusion of this variable in the consideration of social problems, I will include my own values before drawing conclusions. My personal perspective is that any cognitive framework that does not recognize inconsistency and paradox as constant realities is highly simplistic. One can love and hate at the same time, experience the same event as both positive and negative and use one's 'functional'

activities to form emotional ties and vice versa. Thus, I believe that cause-effect formulations are merely suggestive. Secondly, I believe that social situations, and the individuals within them, combine in much the same way that chemicals interact to produce a new compound, to produce a new and different situation. Finally, I believe that the basis for social action is a moral imperative to diminish the amount of pain. This is the fundamental rationale of any system of ethics. And, furthermore, I believe that no obligation exists to fill the needs of another with one's own pain - this is merely a prerogative.

Now, having included the writer as well as the written material presented here, it is proposed that a significant amount of evidence exists to support the following conclusions.

Statistical and comparative data indicate that, on one level, middle-aged women can be viewed as a group who have enough experiences in common to justify treating their situation as distinct from

others within society. By and large, the central event in their lives is the perception that the roles of wife and mother cannot continue to serve as a primary focus of their daily activities and energies. When middle-aged women experience problems, the characteristics of their situation meet the criteria of a latent social problem; an objectively deplorable state of affairs related to societal processes can be seen to exist.

However, there is some evidence in support of the view that the case of middle-aged women can be seen as an exemplar of the central issues pertaining to the definition and understanding of all adult women. This is suggested by the positive correlations that exist between commitment to traditional female role and incidence of psychological and social difficulties in middle-aged women. Moreover, it has consistently been found that women who are not married and married women with no children exhibit different kinds and different incidence rates of problems and that low femininity score

on standard instruments correlated positively to life satisfaction in women. Thus, the facts of marriage and childrearing, and more particularly traditional modes of filling these functions, are significant dynamics in the situations.

In this context, it becomes important to examine what relationship the facts of married life and parenthood have to the functioning of middle-aged women. The material presented in this paper suggests that two widely-held conceptual frameworks for the consideration of these roles exist.

The first is that adult women function according to fixed laws of human nature. These laws provide for mature integration of their personalities through dependency and filling the needs of others. In this framework, a woman who finds these functions difficult to fill is exhibiting symptoms of psychological impairment. Women who choose to focus their energies on goals beyond the definition above are judged to be

confused. In the social context, the first framework defines the functional significance of women to exist only within the family sphere. Activities outside this sphere either threaten the stability of the current institutional structure of society, or, minimally, are inconsequential.

An alternative framework proposes that mature integration of adult personality is the same for men and women. These personality traits include the ability to choose activities that promote a self-perception of control over one's immediate environment and the ability to establish conditions of worth in various spheres. In this framework, the individual who structures her activities on the basis of dependency and meeting the needs of others is psychologically impaired. Women who choose to focus their energies and goals beyond the family sphere exhibit superior cathetic ability, a sign of mental health. In the social context, the functional significance of women in any situation exists in relation to their relative numbers and

input. These activities are seen to enhance the current institutional structure of society by providing for the contribution of a wider number of individuals and by allowing a greater number of people to meet their needs.

However, middle-aged women and all adult women are usually defined within the first framework. The significance of studying women in academe is seen as relatively lower than that given the study of other groups. The contributions of female academics on the subject of women are not widely acknowledged. The theoretical significance of women as an independent factor is seen to be of little consequence except in studies of the family. Some material demonstrates that researchers will still support a traditional view of women in their conclusions, irrespective of theoretical framework. Finally, by and large, the accommodation of alternative frameworks for the study of women is not demonstrably a priority in the academic community.

In the practice context, there is a preponderance of evidence that material used to instruct incumbent social workers is based on the traditional conceptual framework. The pervasiveness of the use of this body of theory for establishing clinical norms and evaluating the competence of therapists and social workers, who are judged to be better workers when they use such norms, has been shown. Evidence that social work bases its interventive goals on a mandate given by political and social institutions while viewing its role as essentially apolitical has been presented. In the case of women, it has been demonstrated that the central theme social work has derived from the literature is the adjustment of women to prevailing cultural norms. However, it was not clear in this context whether women are seen to evade other equally legitimate responsibilities by focussing solely on the family sphere or whether they evade their sole responsibility to society by not focussing exclusively on the home.

It was suggested that this contradiction makes clinical evaluation problematic. Some of the research on social context supported the case that personal values of the practitioner will influence the therapeutic encounter irrespective of theoretical orientation. Finally, in the social work context, it has been suggested that, within the profession, female social workers are assigned tasks in line with a traditional sex-role division of labour. Female social workers perceive pervasive sexism within the profession while male social workers notice its existence to a much smaller degree.

Thus, when middle-aged women are treated in such a context, they will be encouraged to accomodate to a position of dependence and a situation which will make them feel useless. Their family responsibilities do not absorb their daily activities yet their contributions outside the home will be at odds with the identity-giving elements of their family roles.

In the alternative context, they will be

-177-

NO TEXT ON THIS PAGE

encouraged to find activities that make them feel useful and to depend on others to give them the support they need without guilt.

The central issue, in the case of middle-aged women, is to determine why they are evaluated and evaluate themselves in one frame of reference and not the other. The logical inconsistencies within social science between theoretical imperatives and the conclusions presented and the suggestibility of researchers and therapists, irrespective of their intellectual understanding, may mean a re-orientation of theory will not resolve these alternative views.

It is concluded that the relationship between the problems of middle-aged women and social work is not merely a function of prescribing new interventive techniques or even new theoretical perspectives. These already exist. The basic issues at hand are epistemological and reside in the question of what about this group is recognized as knowledge.

Students of theories of knowledge in social science observed the independent factor in the development of social science knowledge is the value assumptions of the observer; social science facts must be integrated into a pre-existing cognitive framework in order to have meaning. The knower and the known must interact. If this interaction exists in the formulations of social scientists, it is reasonable to allow for the personal values of women, as clients and workers, in social work fields of practice.

It is hoped that social workers will examine their actions more closely than in the past and, in so doing, recognize the political content of their actions. In the light of the material presented here, it is simply impossible to continue the illusion what they do with and to their clients can be apolitical.

The correlation between traditional definitions of the adult role of women and psychological and social impairment has been well-documented in recent years. In a profession which acknowledges that it derives its mandate from social norms, this can only mean the perpetuation of mental illness and despair in female middle-aged clients. An existential synonym for mental illness is pain, the pain of feeling dead inside. If the social work context for treating these women does not change, then we become accomplices in the psychic death of too many people to ignore. It is not an "academic" question by any means. This suffering is the end result of choosing one point of view over another.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Ackerman, Nathan. The Psychodynamics of Family Life. New York: Basic Books, 1959
- American Psychological Association. "Report of the Task Force on Sex Bias and Sex-Role Stereotyping in Psychotherapeutic Practice," American Psychologist, 30: 1169-75. Dec. 1975
- Back, K.W. "Transition to Aging and Self-Image," Aging and Human Development, 2: 296-304. Nov. 1971
- Badiet, Patricia. "Women and Legal Drugs: A Review," in Women: Their Use of Alcohol and Other Legal Drugs edited by Anne MacClennan. Toronto: Addiction Research Foundation of Ontario, 1976
- Baldwin, James Mark. Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology. New York: P. Smith Co., 1940
- Bardwick, Judith. Readings on the Psychology of Women. New York: Harper and Row, 1972
- Bart, Pauline. "Depression in Middle-Aged Women: Some Sociocultural Factors," Dissertation: University of California - Los Angeles. Los Angeles, California: 1967
- _____. "Why Women's Status Change in Middle Age: The Turns of the Social Ferris Wheel," Sociological Symposium, 3: 1-8. Fall 1969
- _____. "Sexism in Social Science: From the Gilded Cage to the Iron Cage - or The Perils of Pauline," Journal of Marriage and the Family, 33: 734-38. Aug. 1971

- . Ed., Journal of Marriage and the Family: Special Issue on Women. 33: Aug., Nov. 1971
- Bartlett, Harriet M. The Common Base of Social Work Practice. New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1970
- Bartlett, Harriet M. "Social Work Fields of Practice," in Encyclopedia of Social Work, 16th Issue. New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1971
- Baruch, Grace K. and Rosalind C. Barnett. "Implications and Applications of Recent Research of Feminine Development," Psychiatry, 38: 318-27. Nov. 1975
- Becker, Howard S. "Personal Change in Adult Life," in Middle Age and Aging: A Reader in Social Psychology edited by Bernice Neugarten. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968
- Belknap, Ivan and Hiram J. Friedman. "Age and Sex Categories as Sociological Variables in Mental Disorders of Later Maturity," American Sociological Review, 14: 367-76. Nov. 1949
- Bell, Inge. "The Double Standard: Age," in Women: A Feminist Perspective edited by Jo Freeman. San Francisco: Mayfield Pub. Co., 1975
- Bem, Sandra and Daryl Bem. "Training Women to Know Their Place," in Roles Women Play: Readings Towards Woman's Liberation edited by Michele Hoffnug Garskof. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing, Brooke/Cole, 1971
- Bernard, Jesse. Social Problems at Mid-Century. New York: The Dryden Press, 1957

- _____. "My 4 Revolutions: An Autobiographical History of the ASA," in Changing Women in a Changing Society edited by Joan Huber. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1973
- _____. The Future of Motherhood. New York: Dial Press, 1974
- Berlin, Sharon. "Better Work with Women Clients," Social Casework, 51: 65-70. Apr. 1975
- Binstock, Jeanne. "Metamorphosis of the Mother," Dissent, 20: 473-6. Fall 1973
- Birchmore, Doreen and Rodeen L. Walderman. "The Woman Alcoholic: A Review," The Ontario Psychologist, 7, no. 4: 10-16. Apr. 1975
- Bitensky, Reuben. "The Influence of Political Power in Determining the Theoretical Development of Social Work," Journal of Social Policy, 2, no. 2: 119-30. Apr. 1973
- Blumer, Herbert. "Social Problems and Collective Behavior," Social Problems, 18: 298-306. 1971
- Borgman, Robert. "Medication Abuse by Middle-Aged Women," Social Casework, 54: 526-32. Nov. 1973
- Boyd, Monica, Margrit Eichler and John Hofley. "Family: Function, Formation and Fertility," in Opportunities for Choice: A Goal for Women in Canada edited by Gail Cook. Statistics Canada and C.D. Howe Research Institute, 1976
- Broverman, Inge et al., "Sex-Role Stereotypes and Clinical Judgement of Mental Illness," Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 34: no. 1. Jan. 1970

- Burke, Ronald and Tamara Weir. "Personality Differences Between Members of One Career and Two Career Families," Lecture: Canadian Psychology Association, Quebec City, June 1975. by authors, Downsview, Ontario: York University, Department of Psychology
- Butler, Robert and Myrna I. Lewis. Aging and Mental Health: Positive Psychosocial Approaches. Saint Louis: C.V. Mosby Co., 1973
- Carlson, Rae. "Understanding Women: Implications for Personality Theory and Research," Journal of Social Issues, 28, no. 2: 17-32. Feb. 1972
- Chafe, William Henry. The American Women: Her Changing Social, Economic and Political Roles. New York: Oxford University Press, 1972
- Chafetz, Janet. "Women in Social Work," Social Work, 17, no. 6: 16-22. Sept. 1972
- Chesler, Phyllis. "Women as Psychiatric and Psychotherapeutic Patients," Journal of Marriage and the Family, 33: 746-59. Nov. 1971
- _____. Women and Madness. Garden City, New York: Doubleday Books, 1972
- Chilman, Catherine. "Socialization and Interpersonal Change," in Encyclopedia of Social Work, 16th Issue. New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1971
- Cirlot, J.E. A Dictionary of Symbols. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1962
- Cooperstock, Ruth. "Women and Psychotropic Drugs," in Women: Their Use of Alcohol and Other Legal Drugs edited by Anne MacClennan. Toronto: Addiction Research Foundation of Ontario, 1976

- Coser, Rose Laub and Gerald Rokoff. "Women in the Occupational World: Social Disruption and Conflict," Social Problems, 18, no. 4: 535-53. Apr. 1971
- Counselling Psychologist. "Counselling Women," Special Issue, 6, no. 2: Feb. 1976
- Curlee, J. "Alcoholism and the Empty Nest," Menninger Clinic Bulletin, 33, no. 3: 165-71. 1969
- Daniels, Arlene Kaplan. A Survey of Research Concerns on Women's Issues. Washington, D.C.: Association of American Colleges, 1975
- Davis, F. James. Social Problems: Enduring Major Issues and Social Change. New York: The Free Press, 1970
- Delk, J.L. "Differentiating Sexist from Non-Sexist Therapists or My Analogue Can be Your Analogue," American Psychologist, 32: 890-2. Oct. 1977
- Doherty, Mary Austin. "Sexual Bias in Personality Theory," Counselling Psychologist, 4, no. 1: 67-74. Jan. 1973
- Dudley, James R. "Is Social Planning Social Work?", Social Work, 23, no. 1: 37-41. Jan. 1978
- Dulude, Louise. Women and Aging: A Report on the Rest of our Lives. Ottawa: Canadian Advisory Council on the Status of Women, 1978
- Eckstein, Alice Raphael. "The Problem of the Woman of Forty," Psychoanalytic Review, 20, no. 1: 19-37, Jan. 1933

- Eichler, Margrit. An Annotated Bibliography on Women. Ottawa: Association of Universities and Colleges, 1973
- Epstein, Cynthia Fuchs. "A Different Angle of Vision: The Selective Eye of Sociology," Social Science Quarterly, 55, no. 3: 645-56. Dec. 1974
- Erikson, Erik. Childhood and Society, 2nd Edition. New York: W.W. Norton and Co., Inc., 1963
- _____. "Inner and Outer Space: Reflections on Womanhood," in The Woman In America edited by Robert J. Lifton. Boston: Beacon Press, 1964
- Erich, Carol. "The Male Sociologist's Burden: The Place of Women in Marriage and Family Texts," Journal of Marriage and the Family, 33: 421-30. Aug. 1971
- Feminist Therapy Collective. Counselling Women: A Bibliography. by authors, Boston: 636 Beacon Street, 1975
- _____. Issues in the Psychology and Counselling of Women: Additional Resources. by authors, Boston: 636 Beacon Street, 1976
- _____. Sexuality, Psychotherapy and Psychology. by authors, Boston: 636 Beacon Street, 1976
- Fessler, Luci. "The Psychopathology of Climacteric Depression," Psychoanalytic Quarterly, 19, no. 1: 28-42. Jan. 1950
- Fidell, Ivan Ward. "Empirical Verification of Sex Discrimination in Hiring Practices in Psychology," American Psychologist, 25: 1094-98. Apr. 1970

- Fiske -Lowenthal, Marjorie, Majda Thurher and David Chiriboga. Four Stages of Life: A Comparitive Study of Women and Men Facing Transition. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1975
- Flora - Butler, Cornelia. "The Passive Female: The Comparitive Image by Class and Culture in Popular Magazines," Journal of Marriage and the Family, 33: 435-44. Aug. 1971
- Frank, Lawrence. "The Interpersonal and Social Aspects," in Potentialities of Women in the Middle Years edited by Irma Gross. Ann Arbor: Michigan State University Press, 1956
- Franks, Violet and Vasanti Burtle. Women in Therapy: New Psychotherapies for a Changing Society. New York: Brunner Mazel, 1974
- Fraser, Winnie. "The Alcoholic Woman: Attitudes and Perspectives," in Women: Their Use of Alcohol and Other Legal Drugs edited by Anne MacClenan. Toronto: Addiction Research Foundation of Ontario, 1976
- Freeman, Ivan. "Marriage Role Expectations and Interpersonal Relating Skills," M.S. Thesis, University of Calgary, 1974. Ottawa: Canadian Theses on Microfilm, National Library of Canada, No. 19775
- Fromme, Allan. A Woman's Critical Years. New York: Grosset, 1972
- Garai, Joseph E. "Sex Differences in Mental Illness," Genetic Psychology Monographs, 81: 123-43. May 1970
- Glick, Paul C. "Updating the Family Lifecycle," Journal of Marriage and the Family, 34: 5-13. Aug. 1972

- Gornick, Vivian and B. Moran, ed. Women in Sexist Society. New York: Basic Books, 1971
- Gouldner, Alvin. The Coming Crisis of Western Sociology. New York: Basic Books, 1970
- Gove, Walter R. "Sex-Marital Status and Suicide," Journal of Health and Social Behavior 13: 204-13. June, 1972
- Gove Walter R. and Jeannette Tudor. "Adult Sex Roles and Mental Illness," in Changing Women in Changing Society edited by Joan Huber. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1973
- Gripton, James. "Sexism in Social Work: Male Takeover of a Female Profession," The Social Worker, 42: 78-89. Summer 1974
- Gunderson, Morley. "Work Patterns," in Opportunities for Choice: A Goal for Women In Canada edited by Gail Cook. Ottawa: Statistics Canada and C.D. Howe Research Institute, 1976
- Hacker, Helen Mayer. "Women as a Minority Group," Social Forces, 30: 60-9. Oct. 1951
- Hamilton, Gordon. Theory and Practice of Social Casework. New York: Columbia University Press, 1956
- Harris, Janet. The Prime of Ms. America: The American Women at Forty. New York: G.P. Putnam's Sons, 1975
- Havighurst, Robert J. "Changing Roles of Women in The Middle Years," in Potentialities of Women In the Middle Years edited by Irma Gross. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan Press, 1956

- Haymes, Howard J. "Postwar Writing and the Literature of the Women's Liberation Movement," Psychiatry, 38: 328-33. Nov. 1975
- Henshel, Robert and Anne-Marie Henshel. Perspectives on Social Problems. Canadian Social Problem Series. Don Mills, Ontario: Longman, Canada, Ltd., 1973
- Hicks, Mary and Marilyn Platt. "Marital Stability and Happiness: A Review of Research in the Sixties," Journal of Marriage and the Family, 32: 553-74. Aug. 1970
- Hilliard, Marion. Women and Fatigue. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, 1960
- Hollis, Florence. Women in Marital Conflict. Philadelphia: Family Service Association of America, 1949
- Holmes, Roger. "Legitimacy and the Politics of the Knowable," Legitimacy and the Politics of the Knowable. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1976
- Huber, Joan. ed. Changing Women in a Changing Society. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1973
- Humphrey, Frederick G. "Changing Roles for Women: Implications for Marriage Counsellors," Lecture: National Council for Family Relations and American Association of Family Counsellors, St. Louis, Missouri, October 1974. by author, Storrs, Connecticut: University of Connecticut
- Johnson, Betty. "Coming to Grips with the Problems of Women: A Review of the Literature," Social Work, 21, no.6: Nov. 1976

- Johnson, M.W., J.C. De Vries and M.I. Houghton.
"The Female Alcoholic," Nursing Research,
15, no.4: 343-47. Apr. 1966
- Jones, Esther Lloyd. "Progress Report on Pertinent
Research," in Potentialities of Women in the
Middle Years edited by Irma Gross. Ann Arbor,
Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 1956
- Jung, Carl G. The Collected Works of Carl G. Jung,
Vol. v. New York: Pantheon Books, 1955
- Kadushin, Alfred. "The Prestige of Social Work -
Facts and Factors," Social Work, 3: 38-42.
Apr. 1958
- Kisik, Kim. "The Etiological Significance of
Menopause: Socio-Cultural and Personality
Factors," Nebraska State Medical Journal,
46, no.5: 234-8. May 1961
- Klass, Shirley and Margaret Redfern. "A Social
Work Response to the Middle-Aged Housewife,"
Social Casework, 58: 100-10. Feb. 1977
- Klein, Viola. "The Stereotype of Femininity," Journal
of Social Issues, 6: 3-12. June 1950
- KNOW Inc. Reprint Bulletin, 9, no.4: October, 1978.
Box 86031, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
- Komarovsky, Mira. Blue Collar Marriage. New York:
Random House, 1962
- Kravetz, Diane. "Sexism in A Woman's Profession,"
Social Work, 21, no.6: 421-7. Nov. 1976
- Leighton. Ann. "Roughly Fifty," Atlantic Monthly,
189: 53-4. June 1952

- Lerman, Hannah. "What Happens in Feminist Therapy,"
Frontiers, 1, no.3: Spring 1977
- Leshan, Eda. The Wonderful Crisis of Middle Age.
New York: Warner Paperback Library, 1973
- Levine, Albert. "A Sound Approach to Middle Age,"
Geriatrics, 12: 625-6. Oct. 1957
- Levine, Helen. "One Woman on All Women," in Women:
Their Use of Alcohol and Other Legal Drugs
edited by Anne MacClennan. Toronto: Addiction
Research Foundation of Ontario, 1976
- Lidz, Theodore. The Person. New York: Basic Books,
1968
- Livson, Florence. "Coming Out of the Closet:
Marriage and Other Crises of Middle Age,"
in Looking Ahead: A Woman's Guide to the
Problems and Joys of Growing Older edited by
Lillian Troll et al.. New York: Prentice-Hall,
1973
- Long Laws, Judith. "The Social Psychology of
Women: Shibboleths and Lacunae," Lecture:
American Psychological Association,
Convention, Washington, D.C., 1969.
Pittsburgh: KNOW Inc., Cat. no. 10106
- Long Laws, Judith. "A Feminist Review of Marital
Adjustment Literature: The Rape of the Locke,"
Journal of Marriage and the Family, 33: 483-516.
Aug. 1971
- Lorr, Maurice, et al. "The Structure of Values:
Conceptions of the Desirable," Journal of
Research in Personality, 7: 39-47. Summer 1973

- Lopata, Helen Znaniecki. Occupation: Housewife.
New York: Oxford University Press, 1971
- Lucas, Alan Keith. "Ethics," in Encyclopedia of
Social Work, 16th Issue. New York: National
Association of Social Workers, 1971
- Maas, Henry. Research in the Social Services:
A Five Year Review. New York: National
Association of Social Workers, 1971
- MacDonald, Gerald W. "Parental Identification
by the Adolescent: A Social Power Approach,"
Journal of Marriage and the Family, 34:
705-19, Nov. 1977
- _____. "A Reconsideration of the
Concept of Sex-Role Identification in
Adolescent and Family Research,"
Adolescence, 13, no. 50: 215-19: Summer 1978
- Maislin, Audry and Jerry L. Davis. "Sex-Role
Stereotyping as a Factor in Mental Health
Standards among Counsellors in Training,"
Journal of Counselling Psychology, 22, no. 2:
339-63. Dec. 1975
- Marcuse, Herbert. "Industrialization and Capitalism
in the Work of Max Weber," Negations: Essays in
Critical Theory. Boston: Beacon Press, 1968
- Marris, Peter. Loss and Change. New York: Pantheon
Books, 1974
- Martin, Patricia and Marie Osmond. "Structural
Asymmetry and Social Exchange: Sex Role
Simulation," Simulation and Games, 6, no. 4:
339-63. Dec. 1975

- Marvis, Laura G. "Disengagement in Women or How to Keep Marriage from Being Like Dying," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 55: 186-91: Dec. 1976
- Mason, Karen Oppenheim, John L. Czajka and Sara Arber. "Change in U.S. Women's Sex-Role Attitudes, 1964-1974," American Sociological Review, 41, no.4: 573-596. Aug. 1976
- Mayer, Thomas. "Middle Age and Occupational Processes: An Empirical Essay," Sociological Symposium, 3: 89-106. Fall 1969
- McFarlane, Catherine. "Physiological Changes and Adjustments from the Standpoint of a Physician," in The Potentialities of Women in their Middle Years edited by Irma Gross. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 1956
- Mednick, Martha and Sandra Tangri. "New Social Psychological Perspectives on Women," Journal of Social Issues, 28, no.2: 1-16. Feb. 1972
- Mednick, Martha, T. Shuck and Hilda J. Weissman. "The Psychology of Women: Selected Topics," Annual Review of Psychology, 26: 1-18. 1975
- Meisel, Susan Schilling and Alice Perkins Friedman. "The Need for Women's Studies in Social Work Education," Journal of Education for Social Work, 10, no.3: 67-74. Mar. 1974
- Merton, Robert K. "Social Problems and Sociological Theory," in Contemporary Social Problems, 3rd ed. edited by Robert K. Merton and Robert Nisbet. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1971

- Meyer, Agnes. "The Middle-Aged Woman in Contemporary Society," in Potentialities of Women in the Middle Years edited by Irma Gross. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 1956
- Miller, Judith. New Issues and New Approaches," in Psychoanalysis and Women edited by M. Arieti. New York: Basic Books, 1973
- Millman, Marcia and Rosabeth Moss Kanter, ed. Another Voice: Feminist Perspectives on Social Life and Social Science. Garden City, New York: Anchor Books, Anchor Press/Doubleday, 1975
- Moulton, Ruth. "Early Papers on Women, Horney to Thompson," American Journal of Psychoanalysis, 35: 207-30. Fall 1975
- _____. "The Myth of Femininity: A Panel Discussion," American Journal of Psychoanalysis, 33: 45-49. Winter, 1973
- National Association of Social Workers. Report; Task Force on Women and Accreditation Committees. (mimeo) New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1975
- Neugarten, Bernice. "Kansas City Study of Adult Life," in Potentialities of Women in the Middle Years edited by Irma Gross. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 1956
- Neugarten, Bernice and S. Tobin. "Life Satisfaction and Social Isolation," Journal of Gerontology, 16: 344-6. 1961

- Neugarten, Bernice and D.L. Guttman. "Age Sex Roles and Personality in Middle Age: A Thematic Apperception Study," in Personality in Middle and Late Life edited by Bernice Neugarten et. al. . New York: Atherton, 1964
- Neugarten, Bernice. "Toward a Psychology of the Life Cycle," in Middle Age and Aging: A Reader in Social Psychology edited by Bernice Neugarten. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1968 (A)
- _____. "The Awareness of Middle Age," in Middle Age and Aging: A Reader in Social Psychology edited by Bernice Neugarten. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968 (B)
- Nichols, C.G. "A Seminar in Personality Development for Mature Women," National Association for Woman Deans, Administrators and Counsellors, 37: 123-7. Spring 1974
- Oakley, Ann. The Sociology of Housework. New York: Random House, 1974
- Ozawa, Martha N. "Women and Work," Social Work, 21, no.6: 455-462. Nov. 1976
- Perlman, Helen Harris. "Social Casework," Social Work Yearbook. New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1960
- Peterson, Yen and C. Thomas Brockman. " The Modulization of Women," Lecture: Midwest Sociological Society, Annual Meeting, 1976. by authors, Chicago: St. Xavier College, Department of Sociology and Anthropology
- Robb, A. Leslie and Byron G. Spencer. "Education: Enrolment and Attainment," in Opportunities for Choice: A Goal for Women in Canada edited by Gail Cook. Ottawa: Statistics Canada and C.D. Howe Research Institute, 1976

- Rose, Arnold. "Adequacy of Women's Expectations for Adult Roles," Social Forces, 30: 69-77. Oct. 1951
- Rosen, Bernard C. And Carol S. Aneshensee. "The Chameleon Syndrome: A Social Psychological Dimension of Female Sex Role," Journal of Marriage and the Family, 38: 605-8. Nov. 1976
- Rosenblatt, Aaron. et al. "Predominance of Male Authors in Social Work Publications," Social Casework, 51: 65-77. July 1973
- Safilios - Rothchild, Constantine. ed. Toward a Sociology of Women. Rochester: Xerox Publications, 1972
- Satir, Virginia. "Family Healing in a Troubled World," Social Casework, 52, no.4: 200-05. Apr. 1971
- Salzman, Leon. "Feminine Psychology Revisited: Circa 1970," American Journal of Psychoanalysis, 31, no.2: 123-32. Feb. 1971
- Schlossberg, Nancy K. and John Peitrofesa. "Perspectives on Counselling Bias: Implications for Counselling Education," Counselling Psychologist, 4, no.1: 44-53. Jan 1973
- Schwartz, Mary c. "Sexism in the Social Work Curriculum," Journal of Education for Social Work, 9, no.3: 65-70. Fall 1973
- Seeman, Marvin. "On the Meaning of Alienation," American Sociological Review, 24: 783-91. Dec. 1959

- Self, Gerald. "Search for Fulfillment - Women on the Move: Some Common Psychological Characteristics," Governors Commission on the Status of Women. Las Vegas, Nevada: June 13, 1969
- Sherman, Julia. On the Psychology of Women: A Survey of Empirical Studies. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publishers, 1971
- Siporin, Max. Introduction to Social Work Practice. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1975
- Silveira, Jeannette. "The Effect of Sexism on Thought: How Male Bias Hurts Psychology and Some Hopes for a Woman's Psychology," Lecture: Women on the Move Workshop, University of Oregon, Eugene, June 1972. by author, Pittsburgh: KNOW reprint, cat. no. 20207
- Smith, Joy and Mary Cummings. "Consciousness - Raising for Counsellors: The Development of a Counsellor Referral File," Frontiers, 2, no.3: 34-46. Winter 1976
- Social Science Quarterly. Masculine Blindness in the Social Sciences - Special Theme Issue. 55: no.3. Dec. 1974
- Sontag, Susan. "The Double Standard of Aging," Saturday Review, 30-5. Sept. 23, 1972
- Spence, Janet and Robert Helmreich. Masculinity and Femininity: Their Psychological Dimensions, Correlates and Antecedents. Austin, Texas: University of Texas Press, 1978
- Spence, Donald and Thomas Lonner. "The Empty Nest: A Transition within Motherhood," The Family Coordinator, 20: 369-75. Oct. 1971

- Statistics Canada. Household and Family Projections for Canada and the Provinces to 2001. Ottawa: cat. no. 91-517, 1976
- Statistics Canada. Population Projections for Canada and the Provinces to 2001. Ottawa: cat. no. 91-519, 1976
- Steinman, Anne. "Lack of Communication Between Men and Women," Marriage and Family Living, 20: 350-2. Nov. 1958
- Stevens, Barbara. "The Psychotherapist and Women's Liberation," Social Work, 16, no.3: 13-18. July 1971
- Theodore, Athena. "The Professional Women: Trends and Perspectives," in The Professional Woman edited by Athena Theodore. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Shenkman Publishing Co., 1971
- Thompson, James. "Psychiatric Stress in Middle Life," Geriatrics 10: 162-4. Apr. 1955
- Turkot, David and Don Glad. "Traditional Therapy Fits Traditional Womanhood," Psychological Reports, 39, no.3, part 1: 834. Aug. 1976
- Turner, Ralph. Family Interaction. New York: John Wiley and Son, Inc., 1970
- Vedder, Clyde B., ed. The Problems of the Middle Aged, Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publishers, 1965
- Vigilante, Joseph. "Between Values and Science: Education for the Profession During a Moral Crisis: Is Proof Truth?," Journal of Education for Social Work, 10, no.3: 107-15. Fall 1974

- Walstedt, Joyce Jennings. "The Anatomy of Oppression: A Feminist Analysis of Psychotherapy" by author, Pittsburgh: KNOW Reprint, cat. no. 17206, Oct. 1971
- Watzlawick, Paul. How Real is Real? Confusion, Disinformation - Communication. New York: Random House, Vintage Books, 1977
- Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary. 8th ed. Springfield, Massachusetts: G & C Merriam Company, 1977
- Wheelis, Allen. How People Change. New York: Harper and Row, 1973
- Weiss, Robert and Mancy Samuelson. "Social Roles of American Women: Their Contribution to Usefulness and Importance," Marriage and Family Living, 20: 558-66. Nov. 1958
- Weissman, Myrna et.al., "The Depressed Woman, Recent Research," Social Work, 17, no.5: May 1972
- Weissman, Myrna and Eugene Paykel. The Depressed Woman: A Study of Social Relationships. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974
- Weisstein, Naomi. "Psychology Constructs the Female," in Women in a Sexist Society edited Vivian Gornick and Barbara Moran. New York: Basic Books, 1971
- Wesley, Carol. "The Women's Movement and Psychotherapy," Social Work, 20: 120-5. Mar. 1975
- Wetzel, Janice. "The Interaction of Feminism and Social Work in America," Social Casework, 57, no.4: 227-36. Apr. 1976 (A)

_____. "Social Adjustment as a Work Principle," Frontiers, 1, no. 3: 10-16. Winter, 1976 (B)

Willig, John. "Class of '34 (Female): Fifteen Years Later," New York Times Magazine, 16-21. June 12, 1949

Wycoff, Hogie. "The Stroke Economy in Women's Scripts," Journal of Transactional Analysis, 1, no. 3: 16-20. July 1971

Zeitz, Dorothy and John L. Erlich. "Sexism in Social Agencies: Practitioners Perspective," Social Work, 21, no. 6: 434-9. Nov. 1976