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The Shaping of Midlife Women's Views of Health and Health Behaviors

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Review

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3 Running Head: Shaping Women's Views of Health
4

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17 The Shaping of Midlife Women's Views of Health and Health Behaviors
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Abstract

The menopausal transition is a marker of aging for women and a time when health professionals urge women to prevent disease. This research adopted a constructivist inductive approach in exploring how and why midlife women think about health in general, about being healthy and about factors that influence engaging in healthy behaviors. The sample constituted 23 women who had participated in a Women's Wellness Program intervention trial and subsequent interviews. The women described lives of healthy eating and exercise. Yet, their perceptions of health and healthy behavior at midlife contradicted that history. Midlife was associated with risk and guilt at not doing enough to be healthy. Health professionals provided a very limited frame within which to judge what is healthy. Mostly this was left up to individual women. Those who were successful framed health as "being able to do what you want to do when you want to do it." This article presents study findings of how meanings attached to health and being healthy were constructed through social expectations, family relationships and life experiences.

Key Words: gender; interpretive methods; menopause; midlife; risk; risk, perceptions; women's health; women's issues

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7 The menopausal transition is a marker of aging for women and a time when health care
8 professionals exhort women in earnest to avoid chronic diseases by engaging in specific health
9 behaviors. With 20 percent of Australian women reporting cardiovascular disease (CVD) and 53
10 percent of the CVD deaths in the United States occurring in women (Australian Bureau of
11 Statistics, 2006; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2008), behaviors linked to
12 cardiovascular risk, including obesity and inactivity, receive particular attention (Dennis, 2007;
13 Im, Chee, Lim, Liu, & Kim, 2008; Lewis & Cachelin, 2001; Sternfeld et al., 2004; Williams,
14 Germov, & Young, 2007). Interventions designed to prevent, delay or control cardiovascular and
15 other chronic diseases seek to provide women with knowledge, skills and opportunities to
16 improve eating habits, physical activity and other lifestyle behaviors. Research then tests the
17 effectiveness of these interventions (Anderson, Mizzari, Kain, & Webster, 2006; Jackson et al.,
18 2005; Linnan et al., 2005; Nies, Chruscial, & Hepworth, 2003; Nitz & Choy, 2007).
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31 Several implicit assumptions underlie health promotion intervention and research efforts.
32 First, aging is “successful” if chronic diseases can be prevented (Britton, Shipley, Singh-
33 Manoux, & Marmot, 2008; Peel, McClure, & Bartlett, 2005). Second, health promotion/disease
34 prevention/aging well are universally shared values. Third, individuals can and should be
35 responsible for their health behaviors. Finally, all individuals would act in a health promoting
36 fashion if barriers to individual action were removed and sufficient support for behavior change
37 provided. A systematic review of published research articles on health promotion at retirement
38 found these assumptions repeated often enough to be labeled themes (Wilson & Palha, 2007). In
39 an exploration of how health care space is shaped Cheek (2009) concluded by encouraging
40 qualitative researchers to explore the assumptions and modes of thought that impact the way that
41 people think and speak about health.
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53 The notion of individuals as agents responsible for their behaviors underpins models and
54 theories of health promotion used for most chronic disease prevention programs (Fishbein et al.,
55 2001; Pender, Murdaugh, & Parsons, 2005; Prochaska & DiClemente, 1992; Weinstein,
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4 Rothmann, & Sutton, 1998). The social context in which behaviors occur is treated largely as a
5
6 secondary factor. For example, although Bandura's (2004) Social Cognitive Theory
7
8 acknowledged that individual behavior does not occur in isolation of the social environment, this
9
10 connection and social factors affecting health behaviors have not been targeted in most health
11
12 promotion programs developed from this theory. This is no doubt a result of the underlying
13
14 assumption that chronic diseases can best be prevented if individuals are persuaded to exercise
15
16 control over behaviors linked to health (Lupton, 2003). An additional and related factor that
17
18 receives even less attention is how individuals respond to, experience and think about health
19
20 promoting behaviors as part of their everyday lives.
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22
23 There is some evidence that the targets of health promotion intervention programs do not
24
25 share the same assumptions as those who design and operationalize the programs. For example, a
26
27 focus group study of older adults found that they placed little emphasis on the absence of chronic
28
29 disease or disability as a necessary condition for successful aging (Reichstadt, Depp, Palinkas,
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31 Folsom, & Jeste, 2007). In addition, study participants spoke of the connection between physical
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33 disease and social factors, such as support (Reichstadt et al., 2007). This representation
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35 suggested that social processes shape specific behaviors as much as an ability to exert control
36
37 over the body (Wray, 2007).
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40 Where the voices of participants in health promotion programs are heard it is usually for
41
42 program evaluation purposes. Programs are deemed successful if individuals report specific
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44 changes to health behaviors (e.g., eating fewer calories) or related outcome improvements (e.g.,
45
46 decreased pulse and blood pressure). That is where this interpretive study began; its initial
47
48 purpose was to determine if women who had completed an intervention program based on
49
50 traditional health promotion assumptions had brought about sustained changes in eating and
51
52 exercise patterns. As the study unfolded, the focus shifted to why and how women frame
53
54 perceptions about health behaviors. Ultimately the research came to explore how these women
55
56 think about health in general, about being healthy and about factors that influence their ability to
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engage in healthy behaviors. Eliciting midlife women's perspectives on health is important to researchers and clinicians in framing studies and interventions.

Methods

A constructivist, inductive methodology (Charmaz, 2006, 2009) guided all aspects of this study. The inductive component draws on the classical grounded theory method of Glaser and Strauss (1967). The constructivist influence is in the understanding that knowledge is socially produced and thus participant meanings are situated within broader social institutions.

Women to be interviewed were selected from those who had participated in a randomized controlled Women's Wellness Program (WWP) intervention trial as a member of either the intervention or control group. The original sample has been previously described (Anderson, et. al., 2006). The present study was part of a larger project investigating whether the health behaviors of women involved in the WWP were sustainable over time. All procedures and materials in this study were approved by the Queensland University of Technology ethics committee prior to commencing the study.

Ninety women who completed the WWP were mailed a letter inviting participation in this study as well as a consent form describing the potential risks and benefits of participating. The women were asked to return the consent form and indicate whether they were willing to be contacted for an in-person interview.

Initial responses to the mailed questionnaire yielded 10 ineligible women: five permanently withdrew from the study, 2 had moved out of the area and 3 questionnaires were undeliverable. Sixty women returned the consent form for a response rate of 75%. Of these, 44 (73%) agreed to be interviewed, 33 were contacted and 23 were interviewed, 12 of whom had been in the Women's Wellness Program intervention group and 11 of whom had been in the control group. Those willing to be interviewed were purposively sampled so that both women who had made health behavior changes and those who had not were interviewed. Women contacted but not interviewed were unavailable for a variety of reasons including travel and family and personal illnesses.

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4 Participants in the current study were between 57-66 years of age with a mean age of 61.
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6 The majority of women were married or partnered, retired with annual income above \$40,000
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8 and a high school education. All were White.
9

10 Initial interview questions focused on types of changes in eating and exercise behaviors
11
12 the women had or had not made and facilitators of and impediments to change (or lack of
13
14 change). Interviews were audio-taped and transcribed verbatim by the first author.
15

16 Data collection and analysis were concurrent. In the inductive analytical process, the
17
18 initial coding saw the disaggregation of individual words, phrases and sentences in the data and
19
20 the identification of concrete codes. Focused coding (Charmaz, 2006) followed whereby key
21
22 analytical directions were identified which shaped subsequent interviews. Analytic and self-
23
24 reflective memos were written after each interview and throughout the coding process. This
25
26 ensured that abstract analytical ideas and analytical connections were captured as they appeared
27
28 and that each analytical phase was transparently related to previous and subsequent phases.
29
30 Codes and categories were collaboratively analyzed by the first and second authors using the
31
32 constant comparison method.
33

34
35 The constructivist methodology guided the on-going development of the interview
36
37 format (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007; Charmaz, 2006). For example, early in the analytical process it
38
39 became evident that enacting healthy behaviors was not merely individually constructed from
40
41 sufficient information and will power but also constructed within prevailing social structures.
42
43 Thus the final analytical process moved the analysis to a deductive phase for the theoretical
44
45 exploration of key categories as social construction reproducing current social conventions or
46
47 power relationships (Charmaz, 2006; 2009). The goal was to answer how and why participants
48
49 constructed meanings about health and health behaviors in general as well as in specific
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51 situations.
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53 54 **Results**

55 56 **“I Have Always Been Healthy”**

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4 When asked about healthy eating and exercise, responses were encapsulated in the
5 statements “I always ate healthily” and “I always exercised”; activities that were integral to daily
6 living. Early life was frequently described as simple, one in which the women did not focus on
7 being healthy but “always ate healthily” because much of the food they ate was locally produced,
8 either at home or nearby.
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16 We lived on a farm and ate our own produce. We ate basic stuff.
17

18 The food was different then. Dad used to grow a lot of his own vegetables. We
19 didn’t have preservatives and things.
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23
24
25 In addition to eating healthily, the women had “always exercised”, whether as part of
26 family and school activities or because the main form of transportation was walking.
27

28 In my time there weren’t parents dropping you here, there and everywhere. We
29 walked everywhere. And we never thought about how far it was. We just wanted
30 to get there. And you didn’t realize you were exercising.
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37 It wasn’t a big thing when I was growing up to think of exercising as healthy.
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39 When I was growing up we just played outdoors. We were encouraged to be
40 outdoors: ride bikes, swim, play. We never spent any time inside the house.
41
42

43 Then in my 20s when I had my own home it was always out until the sunset
44 raking or gardening or whatever. I don’t sit down a lot. I’m always doing
45 something.
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52 There was also a strong sense that eating and exercise habits, as they evolved over the
53 course of a life, have continued to shape behaviors and practices.
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55 We just always ate at home, plain family meals which is what we’ve become
56 accustomed to. And over the years it’s just evolved from that.
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Yet, despite numerous references to always being active and always eating well, there were many expressions of feelings of guilt and depictions of the self as lazy, particularly in regards to exercise. One woman repeatedly described herself as lazy even though she walked 40 minutes every day and saw herself as fit compared to others. Another described herself as always being active, playing soccer until age 45, in earlier years windsurfing and playing tennis with her children and now routinely walking in the mornings with her husband. In addition, vacations were still organized around hiking expeditions. Yet, this woman repeatedly stated, “I’m just lazy.” When talking about eating patterns she said, “I doubt I would change much because I’m fairly convinced that what we eat is fairly good.”

KL believed she was not exercising enough despite walking as part of her every day activities and walking all day when traveling. On the other hand, MN who has “always walked” and now played golf 3-4 days a week stated that she had enough exercise raising 3 children of her own and 3 of her brother’s and doing all the associated housework. “I don’t think I lack exercise.”

“Unless You’re Living Under a Rock you Know you Need to Exercise”

The above responses indicated that women were exposed to information about the association between exercise and health. Yet, that information did not appear to provide a frame for evaluating whether a level of physical activity was sufficient to live a healthy life. Women are living longer than ever before; yet exhortations about adopting healthy lifestyles are more frequent. Messages that health is produced by behaviors for which one is individually responsible are hard to miss.

But I did feel good to do that hour of exercise every day. And I felt good because that’s what you are supposed to do. I didn’t feel good within myself physically, it was all psychological – oh, you have to exercise, oh, I’m doing my hour a day; I am a good girl.

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6 Yes, they've had a big ad campaign on TV, about 30 minutes a day. I assimilate
7
8 the information but whether I act on it is a different thing. I feel guilty when I
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10 don't exercise – and I think part of that guilt is brought about by the media . . .
11
12 the media will say you should do this and should eat that . . . that creates a bit of
13
14 a guilt complex for people.
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18 Building on the early expressions of exercising and eating well because "I always have",
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20 ensuing interviews asked women to describe their ideal healthy state. In the first instance, health
21
22 was characterized as multidimensional.
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25 I probably formerly would have thought that health was just absence from
26
27 disease but I know how upset you can feel when you might be physically fine.
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31 Oh, physical activity (and) healthy includes psychological as well as physical
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33 doesn't it . . . feeling happy and fulfilled.
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37 Mind, body and spirit.
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41 Beyond broadly defining health, a major theme was elicited; health as being able to do what you
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43 want to do when you want to do it.
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45 **"Being Able to do What you Want to do When you Want to do it"**

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47 Views about health were developed within the context of life experiences, as women, as
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49 wives and as mothers. Thus, health behaviors changed over the life course depending on the
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51 demands of any given time. We see that gender role expectations often constrained the ability to
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53 engage in exercise.
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56 Before I was married I played basketball but once you get married you stop
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58 doing things like that. After I got married I played squash with my husband.
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4 Then when I had children I found you're pretty confined, but then I used to play
5 tennis with a group and I'd say the worse time for exercising in my life was
6
7 when I went back to work when the children went to school because you run out
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9 of time.
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14 Child care responsibilities, especially before children were in school, limited
15 opportunities for exercise for many women. For others, new opportunities occurred. SH, who had
16 been physically active all her life, started to play field hockey at the age of 39 because, watching
17 her children play, she and another woman decided to play and started a team. Arthritis caused her
18 to stop playing at the age of 57 and at 60 she maintained involvement by managing 2 hockey
19 teams. Children also prompted UV to exercise but for different reasons.
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23 I started going to a gym in my 30s probably because when you have kids you
24 want some sort of social interaction . . . a bit of social interaction and some
25 exercise.
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30 Women talked about transitions faced at this life stage – retirement for self or husband,
31 aging parents, their own aging, children growing, grandchildren – and the adjustments required
32 to be able to do what they wanted to do when they wanted to do it.
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36 I just want to feel energized and just general well-being for a person my age. I
37 want to be able to chase the grandkids around. I've always been a very active
38 person and I want to try to continue to be like that. I want to maximize the good
39 health that I can keep for as long as possible so I can do what I want to do.
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42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 **“I Think This has got to Change, but it Doesn't”**

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53 The extent to which women adhered to socially dominant gender roles appeared to affect
54 their capacity to engage in healthy behaviors as they defined them. Of the women interviewed
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4 those who viewed health as being able to do what they wanted to do when they wanted to do it
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6 had generally negotiated a role which allowed them to meet their own needs.
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9 Woman WD articulated that her family came first and yet she had also established her
10
11 own identity which she felt elicited greater respect from her children. She described her husband
12
13 as supportive and noted he created some of the conditions to “allow” her to take a more
14
15 independent role. The expectation that one put the needs of others first, indeed only being
16
17 “allowed” to take care of self after having taken care of others was echoed by other women.
18

19 I probably need to say no a bit more to people.
20

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22
23 A woman who worked full time, cared for aging parents and had a daughter living at
24
25 home had this to say:
26

27 Well, you know, sometimes there are things you feel like you should do [based
28
29 on extended family expectations] and I’m starting to think now, do I want to? If I
30
31 don’t really want to do it I won’t. That’s something I’ve never done. I’ve always
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33 done other things first. When you’ve not done that for most of your life, it’s not
34
35 easy.
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39 **“Life is Complicated, Isn’t it”**

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41 It was difficult to sustain healthy practices if one’s partner did not; living with someone
42
43 who was supportive was important. QR had retired but her husband was working full time and
44
45 dictated their activities. She said his being busy “holds her back.” Conversely, a woman who was
46
47 the breadwinner with her retired husband taking on home responsibilities found little opportunity
48
49 to exercise because her husband resented her going to the gym after working all day. She made
50
51 several unsuccessful attempts to negotiate a solution.
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53
54 When I get home he complains that I’m at the gym all the time. I think, well, at
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56 my age, if I can’t go to the gym when I get home from work when am I going to
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58 be able to?
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KL expressed frustration and resentment with the expectations imposed by her husband. Interestingly, she indicated the only factor that she felt she had control over was her food [she was overweight]. Similarly to other women, she expressed the desire to negotiate roles and responsibilities with her spouse but did not believe he was willing to meet her half way. For her, having her husband around meant she could not be healthy or do what she wanted to do when she wanted to do it.

With the kids gone, there's just your husband and yourself to worry about. If I was on my own I'd be better still. He's doing his thing; has a full schedule; he's just living his life . . . and I'm there, incidental. I have to be his secretary when he's doing work. With someone else you can't do what you want to do when you want to do it. I'm a retired housewife and that means nothing changes. I resent that he gets to do all the things he really enjoys doing most days and I'm still stuck with the washing and cleaning. You get to the point where you've really had enough.

UF learned early on that her life was to be one of looking after others and while raising 6 children she found little support for acting on her own desires. She started a walking program with her husband but stopped because not only did he use the time to berate her for not fulfilling his expectations at home, he also walked up and down hills whereas she preferred to walk on the flat. When they got home, he had a drink of water and took a shower while she dealt with the children. Rather than respond differently to her husband she gave up walking. She continued:

I worked a lot of weekends so my husband had to look after the kids and that wasn't always good because he wanted me to prepare the meals so it was easy for him to feed them. And if I said, there's a tin of soup, give them a tin of soup. I was being lazy, so I don't know what he wanted.

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4 She still considered herself “lazy” if she cooked a simple meal. This woman acknowledged the
5
6 tension between her husband’s expectations and her desires but was unable to actively confront
7
8 this tension or negotiate roles because she learned early on that her role was to care for others.
9
10 Instead she said they “laugh” about it.

11 12 **“It’s About the Balance”**

13
14 Women who were most able to balance self care and the care of others were explicit
15
16 about the constraints on individual activities that being in a relationship created. A woman with a
17
18 mentally ill son stated realistically but reluctantly: “There are restrictions on what you want to do
19
20 sometimes. I suppose you have to consider other people.” Another cautioned to “not let the
21
22 balance tip so that it’s 100% external, so that everything you do is for someone else, and there’s
23
24 nothing left over for you.” A third articulated the need to take the opportunity to meet her needs
25
26 now that she finally had the chance.

27
28 While you’re raising a family you don’t have time to think about who you are
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30 and what you like. I didn’t know what I liked doing. And you can’t make your
31
32 husband your life either. I’m at the stage where I need to figure out how to be
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34 retired. I know I can’t spend all my days at home.

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39 TG discussed restrictions on her activities because of the social norms of not working
40
41 and taking care of the children. She made very clear how powerful the constraints imposed by
42
43 social expectations were and stated that she did not consciously act in certain ways to please her
44
45 husband but that was just the way things were then. Now they were both negotiating the next life
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47 stage. Her husband helped around the house following retirement and although they shared many
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49 activities they also enjoyed independent pursuits.

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52 SH, who negotiated roles with her husband to allow mutual independence, now worried
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54 about “being awful” to him by leaving to go to her activities [he had a “nervous” breakdown 4
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56 years ago. He still worked but was exhausted on returning home and tended to just sit]. Even
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4 with an illness and continued disability she had not moved into the role of ‘doing for’ her
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6 husband to the exclusion of meeting her needs.
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8 The doctors say he’s 97% good but they don’t live with him. If I don’t ask him to
9 do something and if he doesn’t do it straight away it doesn’t get done. I feel like
10 I’m nagging him but it’s the only way I’m going to get anything done. But
11 I’m nagging him but it’s the only way I’m going to get anything done. But
12 anyhow . . . we’ve been married for 41 years so we’ve always been there for one
13 another.
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20 Another woman described how it felt when such obligations were lifted, in her case,
21 caring for aging parents, “I feel this tremendous lightening. I’m going to work on getting some
22 time for myself back into my life.” Even though very aware of social constraints on women’s
23 behaviors she felt empowered to chart her own course.
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28 My mum left me with a tremendous amount of confidence. She always let me do
29 what I wanted to do. We grew up in a wholesome environment where we were
30 loved by our aunties and uncles and you do get the confidence within yourself
31 for your ability rather than for anything else.
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39 Women who expressed such confidence or negotiated their own agendas within social
40 expectations occasionally found themselves at odds in negotiating their health within the
41 healthcare system.
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45 **“I’m not the Greatest Patient in the World”**

46
47 EF described herself as a “bad” patient when she decided to reclaim some of her own
48 power to make decisions about her health. “I decided I didn’t like taking medication. So I asked
49 my doctor to wean me off them [HRT] very slowly.” Women who maintained a strong sense of
50 personal power were more able to choose desired behaviors.
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55 Women who had been made to believe that they were the main problem, that is
56 “noncompliant” women, had sought alternative health care providers to achieve health goals.
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4 Experiences with allopathic health care providers who did not listen to her perspective on
5 treatment plans prompted one woman to seek care from a naturopath. After discussing a
6
7
8 troubling experience with allopathic medicine in the care of her now adult son when he was 18
9
10 months old, RI stated. "I've learned [about health behaviors] from people who have the drive to
11
12 promote health rather than fixing something after it happens." Said YB with rheumatoid arthritis:

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15 Some time ago I did see a rheumatologist and he was keen for me to have anti-
16
17 inflammatories and heavier pain medication which I totally didn't want to take
18
19 and so I think he just wrote me off . . . and that's what pushed me toward a
20
21 naturopath. I'm trying to explore other methods that might be helpful without
22
23 being drug-related.
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27 Doctors were not generally perceived as helpful in regards to outlining specific actions to
28
29 improve healthy behaviors. QR had talked to her doctor about weight and yet he offered her no
30
31 advice or support in losing weight. "It's never been a big issue probably because I go to him for
32
33 other things" . . . and she listed medical diagnoses.
34

35 I think it's really important that health care be based on a 1 on 1. If I had
36
37 somebody, like a health care professional, who was really helping to motivate me
38
39 and keep me focused it would help. I think that's probably the key – someone is
40
41 interested in you and working with you on your issues only.
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45 ZA indicated that her doctor had told her to "try" and lose weight without any suggestion
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47 about what those efforts might entail. DB had a similar experience. "When I go to the doctor, the
48
49 first thing he does is weigh me and then tell me I need to get rid of my midriff to help with the
50
51 diabetes." This pronouncement failed to motivate her. Another stated that she *should* walk more
52
53 because her doctor told her to (in addition to telling her to lose weight) but that "I do what I want
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55 to do; I'm happy." And UU echoed that sentiment saying she did not exercise because she
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57 "should" or "was told to" but because "loves it" and "it feels good."
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4 You've got to have some enjoyment. You never know what's going to happen
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6 tomorrow. I'd say this has been the most stress free time of our whole life. That
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8 may change as we age but we're appreciating it.
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12 The alternative definition of an ideal healthy state, expressed by some women, was
13 epitomized by absence; for example, "not taking medication" or "not having illness" either in
14 general or a specific condition such as "free of asthma", "no sinus", "no arthritis", "no pain."
15 Those who conceptualized health more narrowly as the absence of illness more often fulfilled
16 their gender roles in accordance with others' expectations.
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22 Discussion

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24 At the outset, this interpretive study sought to determine the extent to which women who
25 had participated in an intervention program to reduce cardiovascular risk factors adopted healthy
26 behavioral changes. The initial purpose left unchallenged the assumption that the onus of
27 responsibility for health lies with the individual. However, early in the data analysis, the social
28 environments of the participants emerged as the framework within which the women made sense
29 of the concepts of health and healthy behaviors. Locating the participants' behaviors within
30 larger social structures and discourses broadened the research focus and enabled an analysis of
31 how midlife women think about health in general, about being healthy and about factors that
32 influence their ability to engage in healthy behaviors. The women described how their awareness
33 of health and health behaviors as well as their ability to engage in such behaviors changed over
34 the life course. Contradictions were exhibited in definitions of health, the location of authority
35 over health behaviors and in how gender roles were negotiated.
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49 The women in this study described always eating healthily and exercising when growing
50 up regarding these behaviors as a routine part of daily life which they largely took for granted. In
51 contrast, every woman in this study was now fully conscious of persistent messages to actively
52 promote health with behaviors focused on smoking cessation, exercise and diet. It is difficult to
53 pass a day without being reminded by acquaintances, the media, and health professionals that
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4 health is fragile and at risk. Individuals are expected to safeguard, control and care for health or
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6 accept the consequences – at the very least social disapproval, and possibly illness.
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9 This focus reflects the value that modern society places on health and the continued
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11 emergence and consolidation of health as one of the guiding mantras of both governments and
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13 individuals (Adam & Loon, 2000; Cheek, 2009). At the same time that people are generally
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15 living longer lives health is seen as precarious, problematic and at risk (Furedi, 2002). The
16
17 association of health and risk appeared along with the awareness that many life-threatening
18
19 diseases are caused by a combination of several lifestyle factors, such as smoking, obesity and
20
21 inactivity (Petersen & Wilkinson, 2008). This association was consolidated as health promotion
22
23 became a distinct field of clinical practice. Interventions aimed at reducing risk factors for
24
25 disease are now the central targets of health promotion efforts and they are held up as the prime
26
27 targets for human control and action (Skolbekken, 2008).
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30 The discourse on risk, although not overtly articulated, underpinned the
31
32 conceptualization of health in this study. This discourse reflected what Furedi (2002) referred to
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34 as a cultural shift from viewing risk as a neutral part of life to viewing it as intrinsically bad and
35
36 to be avoided. Where health is concerned, being at risk becomes a permanent condition that
37
38 exists separately from any particular health problem. What the women in this study learned about
39
40 healthy eating and activity when growing up had been transferred from the private to the public
41
42 sphere where an ever-widening definition of health was framed around risk avoidance. Thus
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44 health became an unfinished project, in need of constant vigilance and hard work (Petersen &
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46 Wilkinson, 2008).
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49 Framing risk as intrinsically bad created an imperative for the individual to be good, that
50
51 is to avoid risk and to promote health (Chamberlain, 2004). It was not difficult to see how social
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53 expectations of responsibility for risk avoidance appeared to constitute a moral obligation. This
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55 obligation was expressed by many of the women who repeatedly stated that they “should”
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57 exercise or be more active or lose weight. Thus to ignore risks to health was to transgress moral
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59 consensus and be subject to disapproval in the public sphere. Consider the derision often directed
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4 toward smokers and obese people. Human behavior became pathology for which individuals are
5
6 blamed and stigmatized.
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9 Where risk cannot be avoided or minimized, feelings of demoralization might ensue. The
10 women in this study talked about feeling “lazy” and “guilty” because they did not believe that
11 they were conforming to expectations of risk avoidance. A woman with heart problems blamed
12 herself for not paying attention to her family history. “I should have known better.” Yet the
13 genetic factor is lost to the message of personal culpability. It appears that health was no longer a
14 matter of fate, but of ongoing moral self-transformation (Clarke, Shim, Mamo, Fosket, &
15 Fishman, 2003). A demoralized person’s actions focus more on survival than any drive to realize
16 potential (Furedi, 2002).
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25 A focus on survival leads to individuals being perceived as victims of their
26 circumstances rather than makers of their destiny (Furedi, 2002, p. 143). In this study, women’s
27 definitions of the ideal healthy state reflected these contradictory stances. The same women who
28 talked about feeling guilty or lazy defined health as the absence of illness or symptoms: the
29 avoidance of risk. Decisions about behaviors to avoid health risks were left in the public sphere.
30 They more willingly accepted the health promotion messages without privately determining how
31 to act within their own life context. If they engaged in expected behaviors of, for example,
32 exercising, it was seldom seen as sufficient. If they did not engage in expected behaviors they
33 often felt beholden to the expectations of individuals in their immediate or extended families
34 (victims of circumstances).
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46 Women interested more in realizing potential (“being able to do what you want to do
47 when you want to do it”) actively dismissed the notion that they should be continuously engaged
48 in risk reduction with statements such as “It’s time to enjoy life”; “I treat myself.” “I exercise
49 because I enjoy it, not because I’m supposed to.” These women mediated their knowledge of risk
50 with positive discourses that emphasized enjoyment. In a study using interviews to assess a group
51 of Australians’ risk knowledges and experiences, Lupton and Tulloch (2002) identified
52 discourses of self-improvement, control and emotional engagement when interviewees talked
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4 about voluntarily choosing risky behaviors. The implication here was that living self-consciously
5 to avoid risk limits opportunities to explore and be open to life's possibilities.
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8 An individual responsibility to avoid health risks implies autonomous action yet the very
9 nature of most risks as well as women's social roles act as constraints on autonomous activity.
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11 Ultimately we are all potentially sick or at risk of developing a disease and eventually dying.
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13 Because there are often no symptoms which bring health risks to an individual's attention it
14 becomes the work of health care providers to ensure that individuals are aware of needs related
15 to risk reduction. Risk can often only be identified through the application of technology, for
16 example, blood tests to measure cholesterol levels and mammograms to detect cancer. As a
17 consequence individuals become dependent on health care providers for confirmation of their
18 health status (Skolbekken, 2008).
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27 Although information about how to maintain one's health might originate with health
28 care providers the requisite surveillance is transferred to individuals to govern themselves. The
29 data illustrated the inherent tension between the expectation to acquiesce to expert wisdom about
30 necessary conditions for risk reduction and the expectation that maintaining one's health is an
31 individual obligation (Biggs & Daatland, 2004; Clarke et al., 2003; Furedi, 2004). The transition
32 from monitoring (largely within the health care system) to individual action is usually not
33 explicit and thus often results in confusion and frustration. Women described getting information
34 about risk from their health care providers but often without any assistance in putting
35 recommendations into action. Several women expressed disappointment in the lack of
36 partnership for achieving their health goals. When women attempted to exert power in the
37 relationship they felt like they weren't "the best patients in the world." Some chose to seek out
38 alternative expertise, other care providers or those in roles created to assist individuals with body
39 maintenance activities (Sointu, 2005).
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53 Women's social roles also can limit an ability to make independent choices about
54 behavior and to act on those choices. Fundamental changes in the context of women's lives have
55 occurred over the past few decades, in public and private domains. Whereas there has been
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4 movement from living for others toward living a life on one's own terms, social inequalities
5 between men and women persist at a number of levels (Beck & Beck-Gernsheim, 2002). Women
6 have to individually negotiate contradictions between individual conduct and primary social
7 relationships as rules and conventions for each are no longer reliably established (McGuigan,
8 2006).

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15 The household is the most intimate setting for negotiating power, authority and control,
16 all of which affect women's health (Moss, 2002). Subservience to men is often assumed as nearly
17 every culture in the world views women as subordinate to men (Bonita, 1998). Tasks of early
18 adulthood tend to polarize values and behaviors related to gender roles (Muhlbauer, 2007). All of
19 the women in this study talked about the social expectation that they embrace and adhere to
20 socially ascribed roles of wife and mother. For some, social pressure dictated that, if working
21 outside the home, they resign on becoming pregnant. "That's just what people did." It has been
22 observed that families in Australia, more than those in a number of OECD countries, adopt
23 traditional role separation (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2002).

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33 There is an inherent contradiction for most women in being held accountable for
34 independently acting to reduce health risks and the real constraints to independent action
35 imposed by women's social roles. Some women discovered and demanded new kinds of
36 relationships that allowed some space for a life of their own; others have not. Women in this
37 study who adhered to more traditional social roles faced more repercussions when attempting to
38 make changes to those roles than did women with more flexible roles.

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Women living traditional social roles adapted their behaviors to the ideal of woman as serving others and felt "selfish" if they acted on their own desires or frustrated if their husbands would not co-create mutual interests. Power in their relationships did not lie with them and they felt burdened by the expectation that they exert sufficient control in their lives to independently engage in behaviors to reduce health risks. For them, this expectation created additional risks as they juggled a desire for control with the need for stable relationships. One woman succinctly described the challenges many of them faced: "Life is complicated, isn't it?"

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4 Women with a stronger sense of personal power negotiated gender roles to create the
5 space to engage in healthy behaviors. For these women, the rigid, restrictive gender roles learned
6 while growing up became more flexible in midlife, especially after the children were grown
7 (Muhlbauer, 2007). Husbands were more likely to cook and several women entered the work
8 force for the first time. Interestingly, although these women did create time to exercise, rarely
9 was it with the specified intention to reduce risks to health. More often it was because they
10 enjoyed the activity itself, getting together with other women or sharing a specific activity with
11 their partner. Said one, "You hear of so many people who get to full retirement age and they
12 either die or they don't enjoy it but we've (she and husband) just made the effort to enjoy our
13 days and we do."
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25 Similar findings were evident among an ethnically diverse group of midlife women
26 living in the United Kingdom. They described feeling disempowered by the prevailing social
27 messages of individual responsibility for their physical health (Wray, 2007). These women were
28 exercising, not to reduce risk, but for the social interaction.
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33 A diverse (gender, age, education, occupation) group of British and Australians were
34 interviewed between 1997 and 2000 and asked their thoughts about risk and how it affected their
35 lives (Tulloch & Lupton, 2003). Whereas there was a tendency to categorize risk as negative,
36 there was also an expressed awareness that knowledge about risk is socially constructed and not
37 fixed in meaning. This was illustrated in the current study by a handful of women who suggested
38 that social conditions produce both health and the ability to engage in healthy behaviors. Given
39 limited time and energy a focus on achieving individual risk reduction precludes collective
40 attention to environmental factors that affect the health of all people, for example, quality of
41 food, air and water (Sointu, 2005). If individual attention is focused on the fear of succumbing to
42 risk then people might be less likely to organize around social factors contributing to illness and
43 shortened lives.
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55 In conclusion, women in this study either implicitly or explicitly communicated a
56 perspective that health and health behaviors are shaped by a complex interaction of social
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4 expectations and individual roles and relationships. This may reflect sample bias in that these
5 women were educated, fairly well-off white women. It is possible that only women with enough
6 resources to reflect on health behaviors were willing to participate.
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10 Women in this study grew up in a time when roles were more prescribed. Presented with
11 limited choices they generally did what was expected of them. This was a “simpler” life. Food
12 was obtained locally and largely eaten at home with less opportunity to go to restaurants or fast
13 food outlets. For some, activities took place closer to home because walking was the most
14 available transportation option. As adults, many were only briefly engaged in waged work
15 around pregnancies, as was expected. There thus was little need for negotiating childcare or
16 housekeeping responsibilities as that was the “job” socially expected of them.
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24 Women in this study were aware of changing expectations for their behaviors. Even if
25 engaged in healthy behaviors they often felt they were not doing enough because they were
26 unsure what enough might be. When attempting to transform their roles they often experienced
27 resistance from spouses, parents or siblings. These women expressed the conflicts that arise with
28 individual change occurring within a social context. They were very aware not only of the
29 expectations various family members had for how they “should” act but also the broader social
30 expectations. Women who were more successful in managing this contradiction spoke about
31 trying to achieve “balance” in their lives so that they could act on their own needs and desires
32 while also attending to those of their families and communities.
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43 It is important for health care providers to understand that a person’s health and health
44 behaviors are not merely a function of knowledge, desire and will power but are also shaped by
45 social, economic and physical environments. To urge specific behaviors designed to reduce risk
46 for physical illness without exploring the potential risks to mental and emotional health that
47 might ensue is to add to women’s burdens around meeting others’ expectations. It is a reality that
48 women often feel more obligated to others than to themselves.
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55 It is also important for health care professionals to not convey the unrealistic notion that
56 all risk can be effectively managed. We are just beginning to learn the mechanisms whereby
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4 genes and environments interact to create health risks. An individual might be able to influence
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6 some aspects of their environment but there is still no opportunity for individuals to influence
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8 their genetic make-up or genetic mutations.
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10 More research is needed to explore the actual meaning of risk in relation to definitions of
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12 health and to explicate more clearly the process by which risk is negotiated to achieve specific
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14 health goals.
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For Peer Review

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