COMPARISON OF LEVELS OF SOCIAL PARTICIPATION

OF RETIRED WITH NON-RETIRED PERSONS

BY SELECTED ROLE CATEGORIES

DISSERTATION

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titles.

The relationship between work status (working and

retired) and the degree of formal and informal social partic-

ipation among elderly respondents sixty to sixty-nine years

of age was studied and analyzed. A national probability

sample of 735 elderly Americans provided the major data

source. Elaboration model was used to further understand

and explain the relationship between work status and the

degree of formal and informal social participation. Ten

control variables were introduced: work status of spouse,

marital status, occupational status, family income, satis-

faction with health, size of kinship network, race, gender,

and size of community of residence. Indices of formal and

informal social participation were constructed.

Disengagement and activity theories provided the

theoretical bases for the data. Gamma was the primary

statistical test to study relationship among variables.

The relationship between work status and the degree

of informal social participation was studied for both male

and female elderly respondents. The relationship between

work status and the degree of formal social participation was studied for male respondents. Due to a negligible association between work status and the degree of formal participation for female respondents they were excluded from the analysis of formal participation.

A relatively large proporton of retired respondents reported a high degree of informal social participation and a low degree of formal social participation. Conversely, relatively more non-retired respondents reported a low degree of informal social participation and a high degree of formal social participation. The relationship between work status and the degree of informal social participation was not significantly reduced by controlling for occupational status, family income, satisfaction with health, anomie, and size of community of residence. No significant differences were found by introducing the following specifier variables: work status of spouse, marital status, kinship network, gender, and race.

The relationship between work status and the degree of formal social participation was significantly reduced by controlling for family income for elderly male respondents. Controlling for occupational status, satisfaction with health, anomie, and size of community of residence did not significantly reduce the relationship. None of the following specifier variables exhibited a significant difference in the relationship between work status and the degree of formal

social participation: work status of spouse, marital status, kinship network, and race.

It was concluded that the relationship between work status and informal social participation was not significantly altered by the control variables, whereas the relationship between work status and formal social participation was significantly reduced by controlling for family income. Family income, rather than retirement, significantly reduced levels of formal social participation.

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CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND AND INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM

Statement of the Purposes

The purposes of the research are,

1. To compare and explain the degree of social participation, both formal and informal, of retired and non-retired persons in the same age category (sixty to sixty-nine years).

2. To compare and explain the differences in the degree of social participation by role categories and retirement status.

The dependent variable for the research is the degree of social participation. Social participation seems to integrate individuals with their groups and social systems. The degree of social participation of individuals may reflect the level of social integration. In this research two types of social participation are measured: informal and formal. Formal participation is measured by the number of memberships in organizations. Informal participation is measured by an index, which includes spending social evenings with relatives, neighbors, and friends (detailed operationalization is described on page 49).

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The major independent variable is work status of the respondent. Several other variables that are likely to affect the relationship between work status and the degree of social participation are introduced as control variables which have been shown in the previous literature to have affected the degree of social participation. In this research the following control variables (as specifier and explanatory variables) are included work status of respondent's spouse (working, retired, and keeping house), marital status (married, nonmarried), occupational status, family income, satisfaction with health, size of kinship network, race, gender, anomia, and the size of the community in which the person resides.

Theoretical Perspective

Retirement is a relatively recent phenomenon of industrial societies and has been characterized as a period of stress caused by the loss of work role and related factors such as social identity, life style changes and loss of other social support mechanisms, according to Parsons (29), Burgess (7), Miller (27), Kutner et al. (22), Cavan et al. (8) and Havighurst and Albrecht (19). Several investigators, such as Cottrell and Atchley (11), Simpson et al. (35), and Taitz and Larson (41) question this assumption on the basis of their research showing that the impact of retirement may not be as radical as the assumption supposes.

Retirement: Concept and Implications

Retirement has been defined differently by researchers. Friedman and Havighurst (18, p. 1) considered those persons as retired who had not worked for a living during the last ten or twenty years of their life. They also defined retirement as socially approved unemployment. Atchley (3) developed a more comprehensive definition of retirement.

> Retirement is a condition in which an individual is forced or allowed to be and is employed less than full time (whatever that may mean in his particular job) and in which his income is derived at least in part from a retirement pension earned through prior years of service as a job holder. Both of these conditions must be met for an individual to be retired (3, p. 1).

Atchley further described retirement as primarily the final phase of the occupational life cycle. He related the concept of retirement to the job rather than to the concept of work. Atchley (3) stated,

> No one could seriously contend that retirement means an end to work, because work is a very general term which encompasses the exertion of energy toward a wide variety of particular ends. A person's job, on the other hand, refers more specifically to his position of employment. The job connotes work performed for pay, and it is this linkage of position and pay that is crucial to understanding retirement (3, p. 2).

In addition to being a phase of occupational cycle, retirement can also refer to an event, a process, or a social role. Generally, retirement corresponds to the last stage of life cycle.

Orbach (28) defined retirement as an economically non-productive role for a person whose labor is not considered essential or necessary for the functioning of the economic order. Retirement is an institution which is defined by society and which puts an economically active person in the position of an economically nonactive person.

Cumming and Henry (13, p. 146) considered retirement as society's permission to disengage. They stated that "retirement signals the end of the central task and leaves men with a set of skills for which there is no further need and, indeed requires of them in many cases a new set of skills; it causes an important, if temporary discontinuity" (11, p. 146). Cumming and Henry (13, p. 147) emphasized three major problems caused by retirement for men: loss of 'pure sociability', loss of status identity, and loss of a peer group.

Donahue et al. (14, p. 331) developed a definition of retirement based upon the broad conceptual framework of role theory. They defined retirement as a role and status change. They stated that

> Retirement heralds a far reaching change in a person's social role as a functioning member of society and, as such, carries with it consequential implications of changes in status. . . . Retirement is the creation of an economically nonproductive role in modern societies which are capable of supporting large numbers of persons whose labor is not essential to the functioning of the economic order. As a process, retirement is the prescribed transition from the position of an economically nonactive person in accordance

with the norms through which society defines this change (14, p. 331).

Grant Youmans (45) differentiated between retirement among urban and rural workers. The major difference between urban and rural retirement patterns is that the complete cessation of work, as found in urban areas is not common in rural areas. There is substantial evidence that the typical rural pattern of retirement is associated with reduction of work rather than cessation of work.

Primarily all these definitions implied that retirement means the separation of individuals from their job (work performed for pay or livelihood). Generally, the emphases are placed upon loss of income, status, and identity. Sussman (40) suggested that the societal image of retirement in the United States has a negative connotation. Sussman (40) stated,

> Retirement counters the norms of youth and health, gainful employment, productivity, and active contributions to society. This societal view of retirement places limitations on the adjustment of retirees. However, it does not necessarily have negative consequences for all individuals. . . . by his exercise of options, the retiree may structure for himself a very pleasant and worthwhile life. Thus, while analysis of retirement from a societal perspective may indicate negative consequences, analysis from a socio-psychological perspective may reveal that a certain proportion of retirees reap positive consequences (40, p. 32).

Selected Social Gerontological Theories

Two major social gerontological theories provide the theoretical perspective of this research: disengagement

theory and activity theory. The postulates and axioms of both these theories are used to understand and explain the relationship between work status and the degree of social participation among elderly persons.

Disengagement theory.--The first and probably the most controversial theory of social gerontology is disengagement theory, developed by Cumming and Henry (13). Talcott Parsons mentioned that disengagement theory was "probably the most serious attempt so far to put forward a general theoretical interpretation of the social and psychological nature of the aging process in American society" (13, p. v). Cumming and Henry studied two samples of healthy, white Kansans: persons fifty to seventy years of age and persons over seventy. The process of disengagement between the individual and society was measured by three major instruments: the role count, interaction index, and social life space. The role count included various active roles of respondents such as household member, kinsman, neighbor, or worker. This role count was a measure of the number of interactions among the elderly. The interaction index was a measure of intensity of interaction, defined as the time spent each day in social interaction. The social life space was measured by the number of different contacts per month a respondent had with others. The older people scored lower on all the three measures of social involvement.

Cumming and Henry (13) emphasized that the individual and society withdraw from each other. The aging process was

> . . . an inevitable mutual withdrawal or disengagement, resulting in decreased interaction between the aging person and the social system to which the person belongs. The process may be initiated by the individual or by others in the situation. . . . Certain institutions in society may make this withdrawal easy for the older person (13, p. 14).

Disengagement is initiated by society through such institutions or mechanisms as age-grading and retirement. The loss of work through retirement, or widowhood leads to loss of morale and causes crisis.

One source of controversy surrounding disengagement theory stems from the claim of the authors that the disengagement process is inevitable and universal. Another controversy associated with this theory is the assumption that both individuals and society withdraw from each other voluntarily. For example, Prasad (31) tested the retirement postulate of the disengagement theory. Prasad (31, p. 22) postulated that in accordance with disengagement theory older people should be "ready" to disengage or to retire. Using a random sample of 900 retired workers drawn from an estimated universe of 1,800 retired industrial workers from five centers in the Midwest, he concluded that in all the five regions a relatively large proportion of respondents showed preference for "steady work" rather than for pension. There was no evidence to support the

assumption that workers were ready to retire or dis-
engage.

Numerous other researchers found evidence which was
contrary to the basic postulates of disengagement theory,
according to Hochschild (20) who advanced an alternative
theory of disengagement. The main point of departure
between Cumming and Henry and Hochschild was that Hochschild
removed the postulate that disengagement was inevitable and
universal. The basic statement of Hochschild's alternative
theory was

> Aging is a biological process; disengagement primar-
> ily a social process. Aging is not, but disengage-
> ment is, profoundly affected by socioeconomic
> conditions. During the aging process individuals
> pass through psychological stages; disengagement is
> accompanied by changes in the individual's social
> position (20, pp. 562-563).

Hochschild further stated that aging per se does not cause
disengagement but physical disability and widowhood do. These
conditions, coupled with other factors such as the nature
of society and an individual's social position, may lead
to disengagement or engagement. For social reasons, dis-
engagement is more probable for some people than for
others. Disengagement is not an innate, universal and
inevitable process.

Hochschild (20) further distinguished between two
types of disengagement: social and normative. Hochschild
stated that "social engagement refers to social bonds with
other people in three spheres--work, family, and leisure

. . . normative engagement refers to the degree of emotional investment in and meaning attributed to various social bonds. Normative and social engagement may vary independently with age" (20, p. 563). Hochschild theorized that, in an industrial setting, the degree of engagement will be affected by social class and sex roles. Both of these characteristics locate individuals in the social world. Both influence access to and orientation toward work and family. The access to work and social class are conceptualized in terms of control over means of production. If an individual has access to work and feels the necessity to work due to financial considerations after age sixty-five, the person may lack normative engagement. Workers in jobs having greater control over the conditions of work and having high prestige are more likely to enjoy their work and tend to continue working after age sixty-five.

Hochschild's theory is useful in explaining the disengagement process at the social and normative levels. The most overarching problem with this theory is that his classification of workers into those who have access to work and those who do not, is hard to operationalize. Access to work is determined by one's relation to the mode of production which often cuts across prestige and income of workers to some extent.

Activity theory.--Contrary to the postulates of
disengagement theory, the proponents of activity theory
maintain that a high level of activity can help people
adjust in old age when several social and family roles are
lost. Primarily, loss of work through retirement and fam-
ily role losses, due to the death of spouse, siblings and
friends, narrow the social radius of older people, and
often reduces their activities. Keeping active and adding
roles can help aging people adjust.

Havighurst and Albrecht (19, p. 54) stated that it may
be expected that personal adjustment was related to activity
in such a way that active people physically and socially
adjust better than passive ones. In the analysis of the
Prairie City survey, the authors concluded that active
people were definitely happier and better adjusted.

Activities, social interaction,and social participation
are the most important aspects of social integration which
bring and keep people together. Conceptually, social
integration can be defined at two levels, according to
Rosow (34). The first level involves the integration of
various institutions and subsystems with one another and
the functional connections between structures. At the
second level integration has been defined as the integration
of individual members with their personal groups, their
community and society. Integration functions as if it
were a sort of cement which draws and binds individuals

together into meaningful networks of interpersonal relationships. Clearly, this form of social integration has been a fundamental concern of sociologists dating back at least to the time of Durkheim's classical study of suicide (15). More recently, Rosow (34) looked into the integration of older individuals into their society. He viewed such integration as caused by forces which anchor individuals into the system and govern their participation and association with others. Rosow divided this network of bonds into three basic dimensions: "(1) social values, (2) formal and informal group memberships, and (3) social roles. People are tied into their society essentially through their beliefs, the groups that they belong to, and the positions that they occupy" (34, p. 9). Rosow further postulated that if older people can preserve their previous patterns of belief, activity and role playing, they can maintain the basis of their social integration. When older people cannot maintain such patterns, their integration may be undermined. Such change and disruption in the middle age activities may cause demoralization and alienation from society in old age.

A more comprehensive and systematic statement of activity theory was developed by Lemon, Bengston and Peterson (23) who stated the theory in an axiomatic form,

while using the interactionist perspective, as stated by

Maddox (25).

> The social self emerges and is sustained in a most
> basic way through interaction with others . . .
> (conversely) structural constraints will limit or
> deny contacts with the environment tend to be de-
> moralizing and alienating (25, pp. 195-204).

Lemon et al. (23) studied three types of activity:

(1) informal activity involving social interaction with

relatives, friends and neighbors; (2) formal activity

measured in terms of formal and voluntary organizational

memberships, and (3) solitary activity such as watching

television, reading, etc. Role loss was defined as an

"alteration in the set of behavior patterns expected of

an individual by virtue of the loss of some status posi-

tion within a given social structure," according to

Lemon et al. (23, p. 515). Lemon et al. (23) stated:

> Activity provides various role supports necessary
> for reaffirming one's self concept. The more
> intimate and the more frequent the activity, the
> more reinforcing and the more specific will be the
> role supports. Role supports are necessary for the
> maintenance of a positive self concept which in
> turn is associated with high life satisfaction
> (23, p. 515).

On the basis of this theory Lemon et al. (23)

suggested four postulates relating activity to life

satisfaction:

1. The greater the role loss, the less the activity.

2. The greater the activity, the more the role

support.

3. The greater the activity, the more role support one is likely to receive.

4. The more positive one's self concept, the greater one's life satisfaction is likely to be.

The results of Lemon's study showed that participation in an informal friendship group appeared to be an important correlate of life satisfaction.

Disengagement and activity theories are based upon different assumptions. The basic assumption of disengagement theory is that in old age people tend to withdraw themselves from the social activities due to role losses. Contrary to disengagement theory, activity theory assumes that people tend to remain active as long as they can and receive satisfaction from activities. Since neither theory has been able to explain the level of social participation among older persons, and since the theories are not mutually exclusive, some assumptions of both the theories are utilized in the present research. However, the main postulate underlying the research is from activity theory as delineated by Lemon et al. (23, p. 515). Their postulate is, "The greater the role loss, the less the degree of social participation."

This statement suggests that role loss is negatively related to the degree of social participation. Older persons with multiple role losses (work role and spouse

role) participate less than those with fewer losses. It is suggested from the literature that the degree of social participation is likely to be affected by other variables such as occupational status, race, gender, family income, and health. A more elaborate statement of research hypotheses derived from these postulates is stated on pages 34-39.

Review of Literature

From a review of the literature on social participation, the following variables have been selected as conceptually and significantly important: work status, income, health, kinship network, gender, anomia, and the size of the community of residence. The conclusion of the relationships of these variables with social participation, based upon a review of the literature, follow.

Work Status and Degree of Social Participation

Two types of social participation were studied: formal participation and informal participation. Both types of social participation were related to the work status of older individuals. Working and being retired affected the type (formal, informal) and degree of social participation. Formal and informal social participation varied independently with the work status. Generally, researchers did not study formal and informal social participation seperately. Informal interpersonal interaction and

organizational memberships were studied together. Emphasis was given to the membership in the voluntary organizations and their impact upon the well-being of the elderly. Some researchers found that a high degree of social participation was positively related to the personal adjustment while others observed that there was no relationship between social interaction and adjustment. Bultena and Oyler (6), Maddox (25), Riley and Foner (32), and Rosow (34) found that social participation was positively related to the well-being of older persons. Edwards and Klemmack (17) and Smith and Lipman (36) concluded that social participation and adjustment were unrelated, according to Conner et al. (10).

Russell Ward (43) studied a sample of 323 non-institutionalized persons who were at least sixty years old and concluded that active participation, voluntary work, access to age-related programs and discussions were more meaningful to elderly when participation yielded feelings of achievement, creativity or helping others. Purely social activities, such as playing cards, were negatively associated with life satisfaction. Controlling for health and socioeconomic status these activities were non-meaningful and non-satisfying. Even the meaningful activities did not have independent association with overall satisfaction.

Conner et al. (10) studied the phenomenon of inter-action by using a multiple-measurement approach. Their sample was constituted of 218 non-institutionalized persons aged seventy and older in Iowa. Three dimensions of social interaction were examined: (1) content-categories of persons with whom the respondents interacted; (2) age grading--extent to which interaction was concentrated among the respondents' age cohort; (3) exclusivity--the degree to which interaction was concentrated among specific categories of interactents. Conner et al. concluded that the number of interacting persons, and the frequency of interaction, were of little consequence for the adjustment of older people. These conclusions suggested that the quality of social interaction was crucial to predicting adaptations to old age.

Taietz and Larson (41) observed that retirement lead to a reduction of social participation only in formal organizational memberships. This decline was compensated by a greater participation in non-occupational organiza-tions. Retirement produced a change in the pattern of formal participation. Occupationally-oriented organizations were important and meaningful for one's occupational advancement or upward mobility. Such organizations were relatively useless for retired persons, whereas non-occupationally oriented organizations provided the social

contacts that were essential for social integration in retirement. This research finding suggested that the level of formal social participation was likely to be higher for non-retired persons and lower for retired persons. Similarly the degree of informal social participation was likely to be higher among retired persons because the absence of work role left a large part of the day without a specific job to do. This spare time was likely to be utilized in informal activities.

Work role is highly structured in the United States. It occupies a large portion of time in an adult's life. Most other activities are related to or subsidiary to the work activities. Retirement seems to affect the routine or continuity of work-related activities. The delicate balance between work and non-work activities is affected by the loss of work role. Retirement affects not only the retiree but also the spouse. Work status (working, retired, and keeping house) has been shown to be related to social participation.

Cavan et al. (8) studied a sample of 499 men and 759 women aged sixty or over by means of the Adult Activities Schedule and Attitude Inventory. They also used another sample of nearly 3,000 elderly respondents and census data to analyze the degree of social participation of elderly respondents. Cavan et al. concluded that working elderly

were better adjusted than non-working in later life. They considered retirement as a negative force; the status of retired was labelled as "dubious" and had no recognized function in American society. Retirement was one of the three major factors found to have a negative effect on adjustment in old age.

Havighurst and Albrecht (19) surveyed 100 persons aged sixty years or more who represented the entire old age population of Prairie City. They stratified the sample by age, sex, socioeconomic status, and marital status. Social participation was studied in terms of the different roles of the elderly: parental and home-centered roles, roles in associations, civic and church activities, informal social relationships, occupational roles, and leisure activity. These researchers observed that the personal adjustment scores were higher for employed than for retired respondents. They also noted that retired persons on old age assistance were viewed as "no good loafers," whereas those who were economically self supporting were viewed with a degree of tolerance.

Kutner et al. (22) examined a sample of 500 residents of Kips Bay-Yorkville. This sample represented 1 per cent of the population of the area over the age of sixty. They measured social participation by an activities scale which was based upon the respondents' report of "regular"

activities. The authors concluded that the activity level was related to employment. They mentioned that activity may help individuals to find outlets for their feelings or find meaningful relationships. Kutner et al. clearly established that unemployment among older persons was related to social isolation. The authors referred to Stern Karl (21) and maintained that employment tended to delay the degenerative processes by keeping the individual within certain rigidly proscribed limits of activity.

Cottrell and Atchley (11) studied a sample of nearly 6,000 retired school teachers and telephone company employees. They measured social participation by the number of contacts with friends, organizational memberships, and the degree of loneliness. They observed that nearly half of their respondents reported that retirement had made no change in their number of contacts with friends, and 30 per cent reported that retirement had actually increased contacts with friends. This finding was in accordance with the finding of Taitz and Larson (41) that informal social participation was likely to increase after retirement.

Simpson, Back, and McKinney (36) examined the relationship between retirement and social participation from questionnaires and interviews of 304 retired workers and 161 workers within five years of retirement in the Piedmont area of North Carolina and Virginia in 1960 and 1961. These respondents represented a wide range of occupations.

Social participation was measured in terms of social involvement. A total involvement score was computed for each respondent. A value of one was given to each kind of interest, for each friend seen often, and for each organizational membership. A composite score was developed which ranged from zero to thirteen. Scores of five or over which fell at or above the median were grouped together as high involvement. In general, they concluded that retirement did not cause as serious a reduction in the degree of social participation as has been believed by earlier gerontologists. This outcome could be the result of combining the formal and informal social participation in the same instrument to measure the degree of social involvement. Thus it was likely that the increase in informal participation was offset by the decrease in formal social participation.

Wan and Odell (42) studied a national sample of 6,603 males who were either married or widowed and working or were retired. They used the Longitudinal Retirement History Survey, which consisted of information collected biannually by the Bureau of Census for the Social Security Administration in order to study the retirement process. Data for the dependent variable (social participation) were for a single year 1971 but data for independent variables were derived longitudinally between 1969 and 1971. Two types of social participation were studied: informal

participation and formal participation. Informal partici-
pation was measured by the frequency of interaction with
children, siblings, parents, spouse's parents, relatives,
and friends. The frequency of such interaction was measured
at four levels: daily, weekly, monthly, and less than
monthly, and a score of four, three, two, and one was
assigned respectively. Absence of participation was scored
as zero. A composite score based upon the sum of all types
of informal participation was measured by the number of
social and professional memberships. Wan and Odell con-
cluded that retirement was negatively related to social
participation. Retirement explained relatively less var-
iance in informal participation than in formal participation.

Summary.--The relationship between retirement and
levels of formal and informal social participation is not
as simple as the preceding analyses suggest. Although
participation seems from the literature to vary with work
status, there are additional variables which mitigate the
relationships. Although there may be many relevant
variables, the following have been selected for additional
study: work status of spouse, kinship network, race,
gender, anomia, occupation, family income, health, and
size of the community of residence.

Work Status of Spouse

Previous research on social participation did not include the work status of spouse in analysis. The main reason of such exclusion seemed to be that the female labor force participation rate was relatively low in the previous decades when this research was done. Working spouse may have a positive impact upon the formal and informal social participation of older persons.

Marital Status

Married and nonmarried (widowed, divorced, separated, and never married) persons live in considerably different social worlds. The institutions of marriage and family provide individuals with the economic and emotional support, along with a sense of belongingness. Marital status assumes a greater importance in later adulthood when other roles (such as work role, parent role, friend role, etc.) are likely to be absent. Marital status (married and non-married) has been shown to have affected the degree of social participation. Cavan et al. (7) included family activities in their activities scale and concluded that such activities were related to adjustment in later life. Havighurst and Albrecht (19) found that respondents who were married and living with their spouses had the highest activities score. Kutner et al. (22) and Cottrell and Atchley (11) concluded that widowhood caused lower levels

of social participation and social isolation among the elderly retired persons.

Wan and Odell (42) maintained that marital status was significantly related to the level of both formal and informal social participation. In one study (42) married persons had the highest participation. Widowed persons showed a higher degree of participation than married persons in only a few areas. This pattern was evident as length of widowhood increased. The recently bereaved had the highest level of participation with parents and the second highest degree of participation with children and friends. Those widowed two years or more did not have high levels of participation in any area and showed the lowest level of total informal participation and participation with children. Data for the years 1969 and 1971 showed that the respondents "who are both widowed and retired had a lower level of total informal and formal participation than men with one or no role losses. Conversely, those who had no role losses had the highest level of participation," according to Wan and Odell (42, p. 12).

Occupational Status and Income

Job or occupation is one of the central roles in modern industrial societies and provides not only a certain level of income and social status, but also places individuals into the varying statuses of social structure.

Income is a vital source of social status and social activities. Numerous social activities and organizational involvements require substantial expenses. Both occupational status and income have been shown to be major predictors of social participation in old age.

Havighurst and Albrecht (19) observed that role-activity scores declined among the aged with decreasing social status. Males were more profoundly affected by this factor than females. Clark and Anderson (9) concluded that socioeconomic status was positively related to the level of social integration of elderly respondents. Simpson et al. (35) used a relatively wide range of occupations and divided statuses into three categories: upper-white collar, middle class statuses, and semi-skilled workers. The analysis of their data indicated that social participation or involvement was related to occupational status. The degree of social involvement declined with the occupational status. If the individual showed any loss of as much as a single interest or organizational membership, then the respondent was considered as a "loser." Using this criterion, the authors concluded that the retired upper-white-collar respondents had the highest percentage of loss of involvement (61 per cent), followed by semi-skilled retirees (51 per cent), and middle class retirees (40 per cent). These findings may be somewhat questionable, because upper-white-collar respondents probably were

highly involved in the first place, hence experiencing some loss may not be especially serious. However, semi-skilled workers who usually were not as highly involved before retirement, may have experienced a greater loss of involvement in retirement.

Wan and Odell (42) observed that socioeconomic status (measured in terms of occupation, income, and education) was positively related to the level of social participation in retirement. Socioeconomic status was a strong predictor of informal and formal social participation, although it accounted for considerably more variance in formal than in informal participation.

Health

Health is an essential part of all formal and informal activities for persons of all ages in general and for older people in particular. Poor health is likely to restrict the movement and social activities of the elderly. In the previous research health has also been shown to be related to the degree of social participation and employment status.

Kutner et al. (22) concluded that good health was significantly related to employment status. Nearly three-quarters of the employed were in good health compared with about half of the retired persons and housewives. Among unemployed respondents, 71 per cent were in poor health.

Clark and Anderson (9) noted that three-fourths of the respondents under seventy years of age were socially active but only half of those over seventy years of age attended social gatherings outside their homes. The researchers concluded that physical impairment and age together lead to greater social seclusion; age alone did not. Wan and Odell (42) concluded that a decline in health did not substantially affect formal or informal activity of men in their sample.

Kinship Network

Kinship networks (siblings and children) have changed considerably since the Industrial Revolution. Kinship structure and function are continually changing. Despite alterations, the kinship network plays a central role in the social life of most Americans and provides a sense of belonging. The size of the kinship network has been shown to have affected the level of social participation.

The kinship network was employed by Wan and Odell (42) as an independent variable to predict the degree of social participation. As operationalized by them, a kinship network consisted of the presence of living children, parents, siblings, and spouse's siblings as reported by the respondents. A total score was computed, ranging from zero to fifty-seven. Wan and Odell concluded that the size of

the kin network was positively related to the degree of social participation.

Bachrach (4) used a national probability sample of 2,797 individuals age sixty-five and over, conducted in 1974 by Louis Harris and Associates for the National Council on the Aging. Data on the probabilities of living alone and of having recent contact with persons living outside of the household indicated an inverse relationship between the number of children and social isolation. Social isolation was measured according to two criteria: whether living alone and whether contacts with persons outside the household had occurred in the past day or two. The proportion of respondents living alone declined, albeit unevenly, with an increasing number of children and was particularly high among the childless. Recent non-household contact was less likely among the childless than among those with children, particularly among older people who lived alone. Among those with at least one child, the probability of isolation from non-household contact declined with increasing number of children for those who did not live alone, but did not vary with the number of children for parents who lived alone.

For respondents who were living alone, the effect of childlessness on isolation was modified under certain circumstances. Among persons in poor health, and for those

with manual occupational backgrounds, the probability of
isolation was about three times higher among those with
children. However, among persons in good health or with
non-manual or farm occupations, the effect of childlessness
on isolation was much weaker.

Race

It has been suggested that whites are likely to have
a higher degree of social participation than blacks. Since
no previous research reviewed included this variable while
studying social participation of older persons, the inclu-
sion of race as a variable can be considered as a contri-
bution of the research.

Gender

The level of formal and informal social participation
is likely to be different between males and females.
Despite certain biological and psychological differences
between the genders, most sociologists believe that differ-
ential attitudes and behavior patterns among men and women
are primarily due to traditional 'sex roles' and sociali-
zation processes in the United States.

Review of previous research on social participation
showed that the respondent's gender was related to the
degree of social participation. Havighurst and Albrecht
(19) observed that women tended to have higher role

activity scores than men. Clark and Anderson (9) concluded that men were more isolated due to their poverty than women. Similarly, physical illness caused greater isolation among men. Cottrell and Atchley (11) noted that women were more likely than men to report no change in contacts with friends after retirement.

Kutner et al. (22) concluded that there was a significant difference in adjustment between recently retired men and women. Only 19 per cent of the recently retired men achieved a high morale rating compared with 42 per cent of the women with a high morale rating. They suggested that of the years immediately following the loss of the traditional male role of breadwinner is a period of considerable stress for males.

Cumming and Henry (13) noted that retirement was not an important problem for women because working or not working did not make much difference to them. Their sample did not include professional women. The women in their sample looked at working as a means to add to the family income and occupy time.

Cottrell and Atchley (11, p. 21) observed that retired women were significantly more likely to feel lonely than retired men. Nearly 29 per cent of the women felt lonely in retirement compared with 21 per cent of the men in their national sample.

Philblad and Adams (30) concluded that females were more activity-oriented than males. Their data showed that widowhood did not affect the activity patterns of females. Males showed a steady decline in most types of participation with increasing time in widowhood. This finding was in agreement with the findings of Wan and Odell (42). Philblad and Adams also noted that widowhood produced a more drastic change in the life style of small-town-elderly males than females.

Anomie

Towards the end of the nineteenth century, Durkheim (15) introduced the concept of anomie to describe the vivid and far reaching impact of the Industrial Revolution on the normative structure of societies. Generally, weak and conflicting norms were likely to cause anomie which was linked to the level of social integration of individuals. Srole (38) developed an anomie scale to measure an individual's sense of belongingness to others. This scale contained five questions with which the respondent either agreed or disagreed. The score on this scale ranged from 0 to 5; the higher the score, the higher the level of anomie.

Certain social conditions are likely to cause anomie for persons of all ages but it might be more prevelant among the elderly retired persons. Anomie has been shown to be related to the degree of social participation.

Council (12) studied a simple random sample of twenty dwelling units in a retirement village. The degree of community satisfaction and personal and family characteristics were attained through an interview schedule. Leo Srole's five-item Anomie Scale was used to determine the level of anomie among respondents. The researcher concluded that anomie was related to the degree of social participation. The anomic group was older, less apt to be married, more apt to be blue-collar or downwardly mobile in occupation, lacking in church affiliation but identified as Protestants, less active in formal groups, less satisfied with community, and friendly with fewer people. Persons identified as anomic spent more time alone and less time in primary contacts.

Meir and Wendell (26) studied a sample of 701 men aged twenty-one or over in four census tracts during the Spring of 1953. Leo Srole's Anomia Scale was used to measure the level of anomie among respondents. The researchers observed that anomie resulted when individuals lacked access to means for achievement of life goals and was negatively related to participation in formal organizations and in informal groups.

Size of Community of Residence

Despite the declining differences between urban and rural life styles in American society, there is overwhelming

evidence that the level of formal participation is relatively low among rural elderly, according to Youmans (45). Many elderly rural people are not members of any social and professional organization. Some of them never joined any organization, some are hampered by poor health. But the most important problem obstructing rural elderly from participating in formal organizations is lack of transportation.

Youmans (45) pointed out that clubs for older persons do not attract many rural elderly residents. The "Golden Age" type of club did not become popular until after 1950. Before then, organizations such as Townsend Club performed somewhat the same function but neither kind of organization drew much rural support. In Linn County, Iowa, and Thurston County, Washington, less than 4 per cent of the older persons were members of clubs for older persons, and in Casey County, Kentucky, none of the rural people belonged to such organizations, according to Youmans (45, pp. 81-82).

Rural-urban differences in the degree of informal social participation may be vague. Youmans (45) developed four types of leisure time activities: (a) immobile pastimes including reading or watching television, (b) explorative activities, such as travel or sight seeing, (c) creative activities, such as gradening, hunting, and most hobbies, and (d) social pastime, such as informal visits.

Informal ties in rural areas may perform many of the same functions as formal organizations in urban areas.

Social pastime is an important form of interaction among the rural elderly in the United States. "Visiting with friends enables an older person to share pleasant memories, to keep alive his current interests, and to reinforce his position as a member of the community," according to Youmans (45, p. 87).

The general pattern of the rural elderly showed that the amount of informal participation was relatively high compared to their other free time activities. According to Youmans,

> In Casey, Kentucky, 92 per cent of the old people knew others quite well in the community and over 60 per cent of them had either frequent or occasional visiting patterns. For elderly residents, the number of friends declined with retirement, departure of children, failing health, transportation difficulties, and death of spouse (45, p. 87).

Summary

Based upon the preceding review of literature in sociology and social gerontology, the relationships among role loss, retirement, activity and the other variables discussed seems complex. An intensive study of levels of participation, both formal and informal, concomitant with retirement might lead to a better understanding of the process of retirement and the nature of the extent of the loss of roles for persons in different categories. A

series of hypotheses are stated which suggest the varying
effect of retirement upon the extent of social participa-
tion. These hypotheses have been suggested from the
preceding review of the literature.

Hypotheses

I. Retired persons will have a lower degree of formal
social participation than non-retired persons.

II. Non-retired persons will have a lower degree of
informal social participation than retired persons.

III. Work status of spouse

a. Given that there is a relationship between
work status and informal social participation,
and work status of spouse and informal social
participation, then the relationship between work
status and informal social participation will be
weaker among respondents whose spouses are retired
and keep house than among respondents whose spouses
are still working.

b. Given that there is a relationship between
work status and formal social participation, and
work status of spouse and formal social participation,
then the relationship between work status and formal
social participation will be weaker among respondents
whose spouses are retired and who keep house than
among respondents whose spouses are still working.

IV. Marital status

   a. Given that there is a relationship between work status and informal social participation, and work status and marital status, then informal social participation will decrease more with retirement among respondents who are non-married than among respondents who are married.

   b. Given that there is a relationship between work status and formal social participation, and no relationship between marital status and formal social participation, then marital status will not affect the relationship between retirement and formal social participation. The decrease in formal social participation will be the same for respondents who are married as those who are not.

V. Occupational status

   a. Given that there is a relationship between work status and informal social participation, and work status and occupational status of the respondents, then controlling for occupational status will decrease the relationship between retirement and informal social participation.

   b. Given that there is a relationship between work status and formal social participation, and work status and occupational status of the respondents, then controlling for occupational status will

decrease the relationship between retirement and formal social participation.

VI. Family income

a. Given that there is a relationship between work status and informal social participation, and work status and family income, then controlling for family income will decrease the relationship between retirement and informal social participation.

b. Given that there is a relationship between work status and formal social participation, and work status and family income, then controlling for family income will decrease the relationship between retirement and formal social participation.

VII. Satisfaction with health

a. Given that there is a relationship between work status and informal social participation, and work status and health, then controlling for health will decrease the relationship between retirement and informal social participation.

b. Given that there is a relationship between work status and informal social participation, and work status and health, then controlling for health will decrease the relationship between retirement and formal social participation.

VIII. Size of kinship network

a. Given that there is a relationship between work status and informal social participation, and work status and size of kinship network, then the relationship between work status and informal social participation will be weaker among respondents with smaller kinship network and stronger among respondents with larger kinship networks.

b. Given that there is a relationship between work status and formal social participation, and no relationship between work status and the size of kinship network, then the size of kinship network will not affect the relationship between work status and formal social participation. The decrease in formal social participation will be the same for respondents with different sizes of kinship networks.

IX. Race

a. Given that there is a relationship between work status and informal social participation, and work status and race, then the relationship between work status and informal social participation will be higher among the white respondents than among black respondents.

b. Given that there is a relationship between work status and formal social participation, and work status and race, then the relationship between

work status and formal social participation will be higher among white respondents than among black respondents.

X. Gender

    a. Given that there is a relationship between work status and informal social participation, and work status and gender, then among female respondents retirement will have a stronger impact on informal social participation than it will have among males.

XI. Anomia

    a. Given that there is a relationship between retirement and informal social participation, and retirement and anomia, then controlling for anomia will reduce the relationship between retirement and informal social participation.

    b. Given that there is a relationship between retirement and formal social participation, and retirement and anomia, then controlling for anomia will reduce the relationship between retirement and formal social participation.

XII. Size of community of residence

    a. Given that there is a relationship between retirement and informal social participation, and retirement and size of community of residence, then controlling for size of community of residence will

reduce the relationship between retirement and informal social participation.

b. Given that there is a relationship between retirement and formal social participation, and retirement and size of community of residence, then controlling for size of community of residence will reduce the relationship between retirement and formal social participation.

These hypotheses will be tested in the research design described in the following chapter.

Justification for the Research

Within the field of sociology the area of retirement has largely been ignored, despite the fact that there have been several recent studies. The sociology of retirement contains a number of gaps compared with other areas of sociology, for example, the sociology of formal organizations, according to Atchley (3, p. 6). Atchley further notes that although several books can be filled with available information on retirement, it would take a hundred books to fill the gaps in our knowledge about retirement.

One of the major contributions of this research is the comparison and contrast of the degree of formal and informal social participation for retired and non-retired persons sixty to sixty-nine years of age.

The inclusion of race and gender in the analysis of the relationship between retirement and the degree of social participation are probably an additional dimensions. In addition to these variables several other variables are included in the analyses, which have not been included by earlier researchers. These additional variables are work status of respondent, work status of respondent's spouse, occupation, kinship network, family income, anomia, and size of the community of residence. Different researchers included some of these variables in their analyses of retirement and social participation, but no one researcher which was reviewed included all these variables in any one study.

Another contribution of the research is the variety of occupational categories. Whereas most previous studies included limited occupational categories in the analyses of retirement and social participation, for example, Cottrell and Atchley (11) studied retired teachers and factory workers only, this research utilizes various categories of retirees from different occupational backgrounds. This research provides recent data (1974-1978) for the analyses of social participation of retired and non-retired persons.

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CHAPTER II

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

Social participation and subsequent social integration
of individuals into their groups and networks of relation-
ships is primarily a sociological problem. Such integration
is significant for persons of all ages in general and older
persons in particular. As stated previously, researchers
in the field of social gerontology generally did not empha-
size the study of social participation among elderly
Americans. Earlier studies included primarily small or
regional samples and excluded studies of women and blacks
from analysis. The occupational categories of respondents
used were generally very limited.

The Data Set

In order to determine the degree of social partici-
pation among elderly Americans it is preferable that
respondents are chosen from a national probability sample.
General Social Surveys (GSS) contain a cross section of
adult population of the continental United States. Such
national samples are preferred because they often reduce
the chance of bias which existed in small and regional
samples. The use of national probability samples enables

the researcher to generalize to the larger population of the United States with less chance of error than with non probability or regional samples. The data set of the General Social Surveys contained a large number of elderly respondents of various occupational backgrounds, employment statuses, and both the sexes and races.

The General Social Surveys were designed to provide high quality data to the social scientists. These data were collected by the National Opinion Research Center (NORC), University of Chicago, for the National Data Program for the social sciences.

The cumulative data of seven General Social Surveys, conducted in the Spring of each year from 1972 through 1978, was available from the Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research. For the data set for this study, Davis (5) stated,

> For the base line items in the initial 1972 survey,
> 150 sociologists and social scientists reviewed
> drafts of the questionnaire, suggested revisions
> and additions, and expressed their question prefer-
> ence by vote. In addition, topic and question
> selection was monitored by the American Sociological
> Association through a committee of advisors (5, p. v).

The merged data set for seven years contained a total of 10,652 completed interviews. Each survey was an inde-pendently drawn sample of English-speaking persons eighteen years of age or over, living in non-institutional arrange-ments within the continental United States. Block quota sampling was used in the 1972, 1973, and 1974 surveys and

for half of the 1975 and 1976 surveys. Full-probability sampling was employed on half of the 1975 and 1976 surveys, and on the entire 1977 and 1978 surveys. Despite this sampling change these samples represented the same universe. In case of block data sampling, the sample was a multi-stage area probability sample to the block or segment level. At the block level, however, quota sampling was used with quotas based on sex, age, and employment status. Interviews were conducted only after 3:00 p.m. on weekdays and on weekends and holidays in order to avoid sampling bias. It was suggested that the respondents were a representative cross-section of the adult population of the continental United States, according to Davis (5).

Sampling in the General Social Surveys

The Primary Sampling Units (PSUs) employed were Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSAs) or non-metropolitan counties, which were selected in NORC's Master sample. These SMSAs and counties were stratified by regions, age, and race. The units of selection of the second stage were block groups (BG) and enumeration districts (ED) which were stratified according to race and income before selection. The third stage of selection was that of blocks. The blocks were selected with probabilities proportional to size. The average cluster size of five respondents per cluster was chosen to provide a

suitable balance of precision and economy, according to Davis (5), who also stated that a modified probability sample of 1,500 respondents could be considered as having the same efficiency as a simple random sample of 1,000 cases (5, pp. 171-173).

The 1972-1978 merged data set was available at North Texas State University. These data have been utilized through the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software package available at the North Texas State University Computer Center. The wording of the original NORC questions was determined by 150 prominent sociologists and social scientists. There was a major advantage in utilizing national data sets. The cost of primary data collection at a national level was prohibitive for most researchers. Such national data sets could provide many researchers with appropriate data based on a national sample, and permit generalization to the entire population of the continental United States.

Sub-sample.--Four subfiles were utilized out of seven files in the merged data set. These subfiles were selected to include all of the dependent variables related to social activities and organizational memberships. These data were collected in the Spring of 1974, 1975, 1977, and 1978.

The age category (sixty to sixty-nine years) had been included in the research and analyses. This age category

was very useful to study the relationship between work status, marital status, and the degree of social participation. This age category provided a good balance of working and retired elderly with varied marital and occupational statuses. There were 735 respondents in this age category in four subfiles of the cumulative data set.

The data for the five variables related to anomia were available only in one subfile, 1974. This was the year when all the questions related to anomia, formal, and informal social participation were asked, so the sample size for the analysis of anomia was 189.

Operationalization of Variables

In order to receive the benefits of utilizing a national probability sample the researcher may sacrifice some precision of measurement. Fortunately, General Social Surveys contained a variety of questions to measure the degree of formal and informal social participation. In addition, this data set contained a wide variety of variables appropriate for the research design of this research.

The Dependent Variable

Social participation was the dependent variable of this research. Social participation provided several functions, such as integrating individuals to their groups

and to their social systems. The level of social partici-
pation lead toward the inference about the level of social
integration of older persons into society. Social partici-
pation of the elderly could be studied in terms of their
social activities and memberships in formal and professional
organizations. As stated in Chapter I, two types of social
participation have been studied by most previous researchers--
formal social participation and informal social participa-
tion.

Formal participation.--Formal social participation was
measured in the study by Questions 275 through 291
(see Appendix). Formal social participation of respondents
was indicated by the number of memberships in formal
organizations. These formal or voluntary organizations
included fraternal groups, service clubs, veteran's groups,
political clubs, labor unions, sports groups, youth groups,
school service groups, hobby or garden clubs, school fra-
ternities or sororities, nationality groups, farm organiza-
tions, literary, art, discussion, or academic societies,
and church-affiliated groups. Each one of these organiza-
tions was included in a different question (see Questions
274 through 290 in the Appendix). The responses to these
questions were recoded into one category (see Question
291 in the Appendix). The computed variable showed the total
number of memberships in organizations. The total computed

score for this variable ranged from zero to fifteen. This variable was further reduced in order to reduce cells with frequency of less than five into two categories for analyses. The first category contained the respondents with low formal membership; the second category included those respondents with high formal participation with two or more organizational memberships. Over 60 per cent of the sample had low formal social participation (see Table I).

Informal participation.--Informal participation was measured in the study by Questions 268 through 270 (see Appendix). The respondents in the General Social Surveys were asked to indicate the frequency of the following social activities: a social evening with relatives, a social evening with someone who lives in your neighborhood, a social evening with friends who live outside the neighborhood. A composite measure of these three social activities (Index of Informal Social Participation) was developed. The response range to the three questions mentioned was as follows: (1) almost everyday; (2) once or twice a week; (3) several times a month; (4) about once a month; (5) several times a year; (6) about once a year; (7) never. All the three questions were recoded. The score of one was given to the respondents whose answer was "never," to all these questions. A score of two was given to the respondents who reported participation in such activities "about

TABLE I

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES
AS USED IN THE STUDY

Variable	All Cases		Males Only	
	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number
Formal Participation				
Low Formal Partic- ipation	60.4	444	51.9	167
High Formal Partic- ipation	39.4	291	48.1	155
Informal Participation				
Low Informal Partic- ipation	56.1	412	56.7	182
High Informal Partic- ipation	41.5	305	40.7	131
Other and Missing	2.5	18	2.8	9
Work Status				
Working	30.9	227	41.0	132
Retired	29.9	220	51.6	166
Keeping House	33.6	247	–	–
Other	5.6	41	7.5	24
Work Status of Spouse				
Working	22.6	166	23.3	75
Retired	18.9	139	6.5	21
Keeping House	21.6	159	70.2	226
Other	36.8	271	–	–
Marital Status				
Married	66.3	487	82.0	264
Non-Married	33.7	248	18.0	58
Occupation				
Farm, Service, and Non-Farm Manual	53.8	396	64.0	206
White Collar Professional	38.4	282	35.4	114
Other and Missing	7.8	57	0.6	2

TABLE I--Continued

Variable	All Cases		Males Only	
	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number
Family Income				
Under $8,000	47.8	351	37.9	122
$8,000 or Over	43.0	316	53.4	172
Missing	9.3	68	8.7	28
Satisfaction with Health				
Low	51.4	378	48.1	155
High	47.8	351	50.1	164
Missing	0.8	6	0.9	3
Number of Kins				
Seven or Less Kins	55.1	405	57.8	186
Eight or More Kins	44.9	330	42.2	136
Race				
White	90.2	663	91.6	295
Black	9.5	70	8.1	26
Missing	0.3	2	0.3	1
Gender				
Males	43.8	322	100	322
Females	56.2	413	-	-
Anomia				
Low	22.7	43	29.0	27
High	31.2	59	48.4	45
Missing	46.1	87	22.6	21
Size of Community				
Central Cities	52.5	386	54.0	174
Suburbs	19.9	146	18.9	61
Unincorporated Areas, and Non-Metropolitan	27.6	203	27.0	87

once a year;" a score of three, to "several times a year;"
a score of four to "about once a month;" a score of five
to "several times a month;" a score of six to "once or
twice a week;" and a score of seven to "almost every day."

The composite score of this index ranged from a
minimum of three, no informal activity, to a maximum of
twenty-one, the highest possible informal participation.
For the present research, the response range was four to
twenty-one. This composite measure was recoded into two
categories for further analysis in order to reduce cells
with frequency less than five. A score of one was given
to the respondents whose index score was from four through
twelve, and a score of two was given to the respondents
who scored from thirteen through twenty-one on the informal
participation index. The frequency distribution of all
categories for all variables is presented in Table I. Both
formal and informal social participation have been studied
and analyzed separately in this research.

The Independent Variable

Work status.--The major independent variable in this
research was the work status of the respondent. Work
status was operationalized in the study by Questions 3 and
8 (see Appendix). The work status of respondents was
placed into eight different categories: working full time;

working part time; with a job, but not at work because of
temporary illness, vacation, strike; unemployed, laid off,
looking for work; retired; in school; keeping house; and
other. In this research only two types of work statuses
were included for analyses: working (full time and part
time), and retired. The other categories of work status
were excluded because they were not related to the theoret-
ical perspective (framework) as developed in Chapter I.
Also, the number of respondents in these categories was
relatively low.

In the General Social Surveys the respondents who were
retired, in school, or keeping house at the time of inter-
view, were asked whether they ever worked for as long as
one year or more. This question was operationalized by
Question 8 (see Appendix). For those who had worked, their
occupation was recorded and coded. These occupations were
coded as previously held occupations. These occupations
were coded in the same manner as other working respondents
at the time of interview (see Question 9 in the Appendix).

Control Variables

The review of literature showed that in addition to
retirement status, numerous other variables affect the
degree of social participation of retired and non-retired
older persons. In this research the following control
variables were included: work status of spouse, marital

status, occupational status, family income, satisfaction
with health, kinship network, race, gender, anomia, and
the size of community of residence.

Work status of spouse.--This variable was coded in the
same manner as respondent's own work status. This variable
was operationalized by Question 20 in the Appendix. In the
General Social Surveys respondents were asked to classify
spouse in one of the eight categories of work status.
These categories were working full-time; working part-time;
with a job, but not at work because of temporary illness,
vacation, strike; unemployed, laid off, looking for work;
retired; in school; keeping house; and other. Only three
categories of work status of spouse were included in this
research for analysis: working (full-time and part-time),
retired and keeping house. The other categories of spouse's
work status were excluded from analysis because of their
relatively small number in the sample.

Marital status.--Marital status was measured
by Question 16 in the Appendix. The current marital status
of the respondents in the General Social Surveys was placed
into five categories: married, widowed, divorced, separated
and never married. For the purposes of analysis, the mari-
tal status of respondents was recoded into two categories:
married and non-married. The first category included
currently married respondents and the second category

was composed of those respondents who were currently widowed, divorced, separated, or never married.

Occupational status.--This variable was measured by Question 9 in the Appendix. In the General Social Surveys the occupational status of respondents was determined for ten categories (United States Bureau of the Census three digit occupational index); the code in the General Social Surveys represents the first digit of the Bureau of the Census three digit code. The occupations included in the General Social Surveys represented a wide variety of occupations. These categories were as follows: professional technical; managers and administrators, sales workers; clerical and kindred workers; craftsmen and kindred workers; operatives, except transport; transport equipment operatives, laborers; farmers, farm laborers, etc.; and service workers. For the purpose of analysis these categories were recoded into two broad categories: (1) white collar (professional, technical, managers and administrators, sales workers, clerical, and kindred workers); (2) non-farm manual (craftsmen and kindred workers, non-transport and transport operatives, laborers), and farm and service (farmers, farm laborers, service workers).

Family income.--Family income was measured by Question 78 in the Appendix. The income of the

respondents was measured by the total family income last year from all sources before taxes. In the General Social Surveys family income was coded into units of $1,000 up to an income of $9,999 per year. Incomes of $10,000 to $24,999 were coded into units of $5,000. Incomes above $25,000 per year were coded as "$25,000 per year and over." In this study income was recoded into two broad categories: under $7,999, and $8,000 and over.

Satisfaction with health.--Health was measured by Question 241 in the Appendix. All respondents in the General Social Surveys were asked to describe the level of satisfaction they derived from various aspcts of life, including health and physical condition. Respondents were asked to report their level of satisfaction which they derived from their health and physical condition into seven categories. These categories were as follows: (1) a very great deal, (2) a great deal, (3) quite a bit, (4) a fair amount, (5) some, (6) a little, and (7) none. These categories were recoded in this research for analysis. The recoded categories were as follows: (1) quite a bit of satisfaction, a fair amount of satisfaction, some satisfaction, a little satisfaction, and no satisfaction; and (2) a very great deal of satisfaction, and a great deal of satisfaction.

Kinship network.--This variable was measured
by combining two questions, Numbers 40 and 41 (see the
Appendix). All respondents in the General Social Surveys
were asked to report the number of siblings and the number
of children. Siblings included all brothers and sisters,
who were born alive, but no longer living, and those who are
alive now. This variable also included step-brothers,
stepsisters, and children adopted by respondent's parents,
the number of respondent's children who were born alive
and children from previous marriages. For the purposes
of analysis, in this research both the above mentioned
variables were merged into one variable called the kinship
network, which included the total number of all siblings
by birth or by adoption and all children by present marriage
or by previous marriages. The range of such kinship net-
work was from zero to twenty-eight. This variable was
recoded for analysis in this research into two categories:
zero through seven kins, and eight through twenty-eight
kins.

Race.--Race was measured by Question 56 in
the Appendix. The race of respondent in the General Social
Surveys was coded by the interviewers in most cases. Only
in a few cases when there was some doubt in the mind of
the interviewer were respondents asked to identify their
race. Race was coded in three categories in the General

Social Surveys. These categories were white, black, and others. In this research race was studied only for two categories: whites and blacks. Other categories were excluded from analysis because of relatively low numbers in the sample.

Gender.--This variable was measured by Question 55 in the Appendix. The gender of the respondents in the General Social Surveys was coded by the interviewer.

Anomie.--This variable was measured by combining five questions, numbers 302 through 306 in the Appendix. This five-item scale was first developed by Leo Srole (15) in 1956, and indicated an individual's level of anomie. Srole defined anomie as the individual's generalized pervasive sense of self-to-others belongingness at one extreme compared with self-to-others distance.

In the General Social Surveys respondents were asked to report their agreement or disagreement with the following statements: (1) Nowadays, a person has to live pretty much for today and let tomorrow take care of itself. (2) In spite of what some people say, the lot (situation or condition) of the average man is getting worse, not better. (3) It's hardly fair to bring a child into the world with the way things look for the future. (4) Most public officials (people in public office) are not really interested in the problems of the average man. (5) These days

a person does not really know whom he can count on. The responses to these questions, in the General Social Surveys were coded as one, agree and two, disagree. For the purposes of this research these questions were recoded as one, agree and zero, disagree. Scores for all the five questions were added. The range of anomie score for the respondents in the sample was zero to five. For the purposes of statistical analysis anomie scores were further recoded into two categories. The first category included anomie scores of zero, one, and two; and the second category included anomie scores of three, four, and five. The first category represented a low degree of anomie and the second category represented a high degree of anomie.

Size of community of residence.--This variable was measured by Question 101 in the Appendix. The size of community or place of residence of the respondents was coded by the National Opinion Research Center (NORC) in accordance with the 1970 United States Census population figures published in the Pc (1)-A series, Tables 6 and 10, according to Davis (5, p. 54). The two major categories were metropolitan and non-metropolitan counties. Further categories were based upon the size of the town or city. The ten categories of community size were as follows: (1) within a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA) and a large central city (over 250,000), (2) a medium size central city (50,000 to 250,000); (3) a suburb of a

large central city; (4) a suburb of a medium size central city; (5) an unincorporated area of a large central city (division, township, etc.); (6) an unincorporated area of a medium central city; (7) not within a SMSA (within a county) and a small city (10,000 to 49,999); (8) a town or a village (2,500 to 9,999); (9) an unincorporated area of 1,000 to 2,4999; (10) open country within larger civil divisions, e.g. township, division.

The size of community of respondent's residence was recoded in the research. Categories of this variable were reduced from ten to three. The recoded categories were as follows: (1) open country within larger civil divisions, e.g. township, division; an incorporated area less than 2,500 or an unincorporated area of 1,000 to 2,499; an unincorporated area of a large central city (division, township, etc.); a town or village (2,500 to 9,999); a small city (10,000 to 49,999); (2) a suburb of a large central city and a suburb of a medium size central city; (3) a large central city (over 250,000) and a medium size central city (50,000 to 250,000).

Validity and Reliability

Social participation or social interaction was one of the central concepts in the study of human behavior and social integration of individuals. An infinite number of questions or items can be used to measure the degree of

social participation, because almost all the activities individuals undertake are likely to be interpreted as social participation or social interaction. The basic question was whether or not a representative sample of all hypothetical items measuring formal and informal social participation had been included in the measurement instrument, selected from the larger General Social Surveys questionnaire (see Appendix). Since there was no test for this, the researcher's subjective professional judgment could be used as the basis to determine whether the sampling of questions is adequate or not. The major problem of such validity (content validity or face validity) is that it is subjectively determined. It is possible that what one researcher regards as high content validity may be regarded by another as low content validity, according to Black and Champion (2, p. 227). This particular problem of content validity is overcome to a considerable extent in the General Social Surveys, where the initial questions were considered and voted by 150 sociologists and social scientists (5).

The review of the literature, reported in Chapter I, clearly showed that the extent of participation in formal organizations has generally and consistently been indicated by the number of organizational memberships. A common measure of informal social participation has been the number of informal social contacts. There could be a very large

number of questions to measure these traits but it was not possible to include all items that might be relevant. Inclusion of all possible items could have made the General Social Surveys very large and unmanageable.

The reliability of Srole's anomie scale was reported by Miller (12, p. 375). According to Killian and Grigg (10, pp. 661-665) and Meir and Wendell (11, pp. 189-202), the coefficient of reproducibility when using a Guttman scale was .90. Miller (12) also reported the validity of Srole's anomia scale. The relationship between anomia and other scales was as follows: Anomia and Authoritarianism F r = .47; Anomia and Attitudes toward minorities r = .43; and Anomia and Socioeconomic status r = .30. Srole's anomia scale has been widely used and has been found to be a valid measure of anomie among individuals.

Techniques of Data Analysis

In this research various statistical techniques have been utilized. The major statistics used were Q for two by two tables and Kruskal's Gamma, for large-size tables in a research setting using the elaboration model. This statistical technique, developed by Goodman and Kruskal (7, 8), assumes intra-cell homogeneity.

Gamma is a measure of association which is frequently used to analyze contingency tables. This statistic assumes ordinal level data, but can be used for nominal

level or categorical data, according to Davis (6). Most
data studied and analyzed in this research is ordinal
level or nominal level. Gamma is considered the most
relevant and useful test for this type of data. Further-
more, according to Champion (3, pp. 223-224) Gamma is
designed to fit tables of any size. Gamma readily reflects
both positive and negative associations between variables
and offers an intrinsic interpretation. Gamma may also
handle small cell frequencies, whereas these provide a
restriction for other measures. Champion further empha-
sized that Gamma is also interpretable as a proportional
reduction-in-error measure. In this sense it has an
interpretation analogous to that of r^2. Value of Gamma may
vary from +1 to -1. If Gamma is .000 the independent and
dependent variables are statistically independent. It
equals +1.00 for the strongest positive association and
-1.00 for the strongest possible negative association.
Davis (6, p. 49) proposed the following generally accepted
interpretation of Gamma:

+.70 or more	a very strong positive association
+.50 to +.69	a substantial positive association
+.30 to +.49	a moderate positive association
+.10 to +.29	a low positive association
+.01 to +.09	a negligible positive association
.00	no association

-.01 to -.09   a negligible negative association

-.10 to -.29   a low negative association

-.30 to -.49   a moderate negative association

-.50 to -.69   a substantial negative association

-.70 or less   a very strong negative association

Gamma can also be used with variables to calculate partial correlation coefficient, according to Davis (4, 6). This characteristic of Gamma helps determine the relationship between two variables after controlling for one or more variables. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (13) program Crosstabs which provides Gamma, zero-order Gamma, and partial Gamma has been used for the analysis. The data are presented in the form of contingency tables showing percentages as well as raw scores.

Elaboration Model

The elaboration model is used to understand and explain the relationship between two variables through simultaneous introduction of additional variables. It was developed primarily through the use of contingency tables. This method portrays the logical process of scientific analysis, according to Babbie (1, p. 281). Generally, one starts with a simple hypothesis about two variables. Intervening variables that are theoretically related to both the independent and dependent variables may then be introduced into the hypothesis. According to Selltiz

et al. (14, pp. 44-45), this process has several purposes:

> . . . to specify further conditions under which
> particular relationships may occur, to make pre-
> dictions more accurate, to specify the presence
> or absence of processes, and to test a variety
> of other hypotheses that make the theory more
> complete in explanation and accurate in predic-
> tion.

After studying the zero-order relationship between two

variables, the researcher introduces additional variables

and determines the affect of such variables (test or con-

trol) on the original relationship between the two variables.

Such a technique utilizes partial relationship. As stated

by Babbie (1) several combinations of zero-order and partial

relationships can be studied, namely replication, explana-

tion, interpretation, and specification as designed by

Lazarsfeld. Davis (6, p. 82) discussed six combinations

of zero-order and partial coefficients: no relationship,

explanation, no effect, suppression, twilight zone, and

specification.

In this research the elaboration model was used. The

relationship between work status (working and retired)

and formal and informal social participation was studied.

Ten other variables were introduced as control variables

(see hypotheses in Chapter I). These variables were: work

status of spouse, marital status, occupational status,

family income, satisfaction with health, kinship-network,

race, gender, anomia, and size of community of residence.

All zero-order relationships between work status and formal

and informal social participation were calculated. Each of the control variables was then introduced one by one in order to explain the relationship between work status and formal and informal social participation.

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CHAPTER III

THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

As stated in the preceding chapter, two types of
social participation of elderly respondents were measured:
formal and informal social participation. Formal social
participation was measured by the number of organizational
memberships. Informal social participation was studied in
terms of an index which included three types of informal
activities: spending social evenings with relatives,
neighbors, and friends.

Informal participation was studied and analyzed for
all the male and female respondents in the age category
of sixty through sixty-nine. The study and analysis of
formal social participation was for only male respondents
in the same age category. Female respondents were excluded
from the analysis of formal social participation because
for female respondents, there was a negligible association
between work status and the degree of formal social par-
ticipation (Q_{xy} = .06).

As described in Chapter I, the degree of formal and
informal social participation varied independently of each
other but was associated with other variables. The degree
of formal and informal social participation of the elderly

respondents was affected by their work status. Working
seemed to have positively affected the degree of formal
social participation and negatively affected the degree
of informal social participation. Presumably, a large
proportion of time was spent on work and work-related
activities. In such situations the elderly were left with
relatively less time to be spent on informal activities.
On the other hand, retired respondents reported a low
degree of formal social participation and a high degree
of informal social activities. Probably, this increase
in informal activities was related to increase in available
time with retirement.

Analyses of Zero-Order Correlations

The analyses of the levels of formal and informal
social participation, as hypothesized in Chapter I, are
tested by zero-order and partial gammas. The zero-order
correlation coefficients of all variables for all respon-
dents is presented in Table II. The zero-order correlation
coefficients of all variables for only male respondents is
presented in Table III. These relationships indicate the
level of association between each variable with all other
variables.

Work status, marital status, satisfaction with
health, and formal social participation were significantly
related to informal social participation. Work status of
the spouse, occupational status, family income, satisfaction

TABLE II

ZERO-ORDER CORRELATIONS AMONG ALL VARIABLES FOR ALL RESPONDENTS (MALE AND FEMALE)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Informal Participation	1	.21*	-.14	.16*	.08	-.06	.19*	.14	.03	.02	.003	-.20*	.22
2. Formal Participation		1	-.02*	-.15	.50*	.49*	.23*	-.23*	-.40*	-.30*	-.04	.10	-.28
3. Work Status of Spouse			1	-1.0*	.09*	.49*	.003*	.04	-.19	.26*	-.03*	.20*	.18
4. Marital Status				1	.05	-.61*	-.15	.03	.41*	.59*	.27*	-.02	-.25
5. Occupational Status					1	.52*	.19*	-.40*	.63*	.23*	.06	.24*	-.59
6. Family Income						1	.38*	-.35*	-.60*	-.38*	.07*	-.43*	-.36*
7. Satisfaction with Health							1	-.06	-.05	-.11	-.001	.27*	-.33*
8. Size of Kinship Network								1	.23	.09	-.10	-.09	.21
9. Race									1	.15	.52*	-.20	.61*
10. Gender										1	.04	.37*	-.05
11. Size of Community											1	.12	-.06
12. Work Status												1	-.18
13. Anomie													1

*Significant at .05 level in a 1-tailed test.

TABLE III

ZERO-ORDER CORRELATIONS AMONG ALL VARIABLES FOR MALE RESPONDENTS

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Informal Participation	1	.24*	-.13	.04	.10	.004	.10	.17	.08	-.04	-.23	.57*
2. Formal Participation		1	.12	-.45*	.47*	.50*	.09	-.18	-.70*	-.09	.24*	-.20
3. Work Status of Spouse			1	-1.0*	.14	.60*	-.05*	-.03	-.07	.12	.19*	.17
4. Marital Status				1	-.17	-.59*	-.41*	.14	.58*	.35*	-.35*	-.01
5. Occupational Status					1	.55*	.23*	-.28*	-.64*	.09	.31*	-.49*
6. Family Income						1	.42*	-.31*	-.50*	.13*	.69*	-.44
7. Satisfaction with Health							1	-.02	-.24	.06	.52*	-.22
8. Size of Kinship Network								1	.09	-.12	-.16	.34
9. Race									1	.59*	-.17	1.0*
10. Size of Community										1	.05	.06
11. Work Status											1	-.16
12. Anomie												1

*Significant at .05 level in a 1-tailed test.

with health, size of kinship network, race, and gender were significantly related to formal social participation (Table II).

For only male respondents work status, anomie, and formal social participation were significantly related to informal social participation. Work status, marital status, occupational status, family income, race, and informal social participation were significantly related to formal social participation (Table III).

The degree of formal and informal social participation of elderly respondents was not only affected by the type of their work status, but also by numerous other factors. The zero-order association among variables, as described above, showed the relationship between each one variable with other variables studied. The zero-order relationship did not take into consideration the impact of other variables on such relationship. It is possible that zero-order relationships may be spurious. In order to overcome that possibility, other variables could be introduced in the analyses. As mentioned in Chapter II, the relationship between work status and the degree of formal and informal social participation can be studied through the use of the elaboration model. By using this model, the zero-order relationship between work status and formal and informal social participation was described. Then additional variables were introduced in order to determine

the affect of a test or control variable on the original relationship between work status and formal and informal social participation, as stated in the hypotheses.

The hypotheses as described in Chapter I, were tested by using the Crosstabs Subprogram of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. The statistics used for testing of hypotheses were zero-order gamma, conditional gamma, and first-order partial gamma. The findings are described below.

Hypothesis I: Retired persons will have a lower degree of formal social participation than non-retired persons.

Hypothesis I was confirmed by the relationship of work status and the degree of formal social participation (Table IV). There was a low positive association between

TABLE IV

WORK STATUS BY FORMAL PARTICIPATION FOR MALES

Work Status	Formal Participation		
	Low	High	Total
Retired	94 (57%)	72 (43%)	166 (100%)
Working	58 (44%)	78 (56%)	132 (100%)
Total	152 (51%)	150 (49%)	298 (100%)

$Q_{xy} = .25$
$p = .03$
Number of missing cases = 24

work status and the degree of formal social participation (Qxy = .25). Elderly male respondents in the General Social Surveys who were working had a high degree of formal social participation.

Hypothesis II: Non-retired persons will have a lower degree of informal social participation than retired persons.

As presented in Table V, Hypothesis II was confirmed by the relationship between work status and informal social participation. Data showed that there was a low negative association between work status and the degree of informal social participation (Qxy = -.21). Retired respondents reported a higher degree of informal participation than working elderly respondents.

TABLE V

WORK STATUS BY INFORMAL PARTICIPATION FOR
MALES AND FEMALES

Work Status	Informal Participation		
	Low	High	Total
Retired	114 (53%)	102 (47%)	216 (100%)
Working	140 (63%)	82 (37%)	222 (100%)
Total	254 (58%)	184 (42%)	438 (100%)

Qxy = -.21
p = .03
Number of missing cases = 297

Analyses of First-Order Partial
Correlations

The two zero-order correlations among formal and informal social participation and work status showed that the degree of formal and informal participation varied independently. Elaboration model, utilizing partial relationships, was used to analyze these zero-order relationships. Ten control variables were introduced to determine the affect of such variables upon the zero-order relationship. These partial relationships were analyzed in the following hypotheses.

> Hypothesis IIIa: Given that there is a relationship between work status and informal social participation, and work status of spouse and informal social participation, then the relationship between work status and informal social participation will be weaker among respondents whose spouses are retired and keep house than among respondents whose spouses are still working.

Because a significant relationship was not found between spouse's work status and informal social participation, it was not likely that spouse's work status would affect the relationship between work status and the degree of informal social participation.

The relationship between work status and the degree of informal social participation was not significant for

all the three conditional gammas for spouse's work statuses
(keeping house, retired, and working). Therefore, no
support was found for this hypothesis (Table VI).

TABLE VI

WORK STATUS BY INFORMAL PARTICIPATION BY SPOUSE'S
WORK STATUS FOR MALES AND FEMALES

Spouse's Work Status	Work Status	Informal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
Keeping House	Retired	41 (50%)	41 (50%)	82 (100%)
	Working	37 (60%)	25 (40%)	62 (100%)
Total		78 (54%)	66 (46%)	144 (100%)
Retired	Retired	16 (50%)	16 (50%)	32 (100%)
	Working	10 (77%)	3 (23%)	13 (100%)
Total		26 (58%)	19 (42%)	45 (100%)
Working	Retired	19 (61%)	12 (39%)	31 (100%)
	Working	49 (72%)	19 (28%)	68 (100%)
Total		68 (69%)	31 (31%)	99 (100%)

Zero-Order Gamma = -.30
Conditional Q: Keeping House = -.20, p = .32
Conditional Q: Retired = -.54, p = .18
Conditional Q: Working = -.24, p = .40
Number of missing cases = 447

Generally, all respondents reported a low degree of informal participation if they were working but there were considerable differences in the responses among respondents with spouses who were housewives, retired, or working. For respondents whose spouses were working or were keeping house there was a low negative association between work status and the degree of informal social participation ($Qxy = -.24$ and $-.20$). Among respondents whose spouses were retired, there was a substantial negative association between work status and the degree of informal social participation ($Qxy = -.54$). The degree of informal social participation was considerably lower for those elderly respondents who were working and whose spouses were retired than for those whose spouses were either working or were keeping house.

> Hypothesis IIIb: Given that there is a relationship between work status and formal social participation, and work status of spouse and formal social participation, then the relationship between work status and formal social participation will be weaker among respondents whose spouses are retired and who keep house than among those respondents whose spouses are still working.

The relationship between work status and the degree of formal social participation was not significant for

all the three conditional gammas for spouse's work statuses. Thus, there was no support for this hypothesis (Table VII).

TABLE VII

WORK STATUS BY FORMAL PARTICIPATION BY SPOUSE'S
WORK STATUS FOR MALES

Spouse's Work Status	Work Status	Formal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
Keeping House	Retired	40 (48%)	43 (52%)	83 (100%)
	Working	28 (44%)	36 (56%)	64 (100%)
Total		68 (46%)	79 (54%)	147 (100%)
Retired	Retired	12 (60%)	8 (40%)	20 (100%)
	Working	0 (0.0%)	1 (100%)	1 (100%)
Total		12 (57%)	9 (43%)	21 (100%)
Working	Retired	14 (50%)	14 (50%)	28 (100%)
	Working	19 (43%)	25 (57%)	44 (100%)
Total		33 (45%)	39 (55%)	72 (100%)

Zero-Order Gamma = .15
    Conditional Q: Keeping House = .08, p = .71
    Conditional Q: Retired = 1.00, p = .88
    Conditional Q: Working = .14, p = .74
Number of missing cases = 24

Generally, elderly respondents in all categories of spouse's work status reported a high degree of formal social participation if they were working. For those respondents whose spouses were keeping house there was a negligible association between work status and the degree of formal social participation. For respondents whose spouses were working there was a low positive association between work status and the degree of formal social participation (Qxy = .08 and .14, respectively). Elderly respondents with retired spouses reported a very strong positive association between work status and the degree of formal social participation. These relationships were not significant at .05 level. The pattern of relationship between the work status of spouse and the degree of formal participation was different for the respondents whose spouses were retired and keeping house.

> Hypothesis IVa: Given that there is a relationship between work status and informal social participation, and work status and marital status, then informal social participation will decrease more with retirement among respondents who are non-married than among respondents who are married.

Because a significant relationship was not found between work status and marital status, it was not likely that marital status would affect the relationship between work status and the degree of informal social participation.

Work status and the degree of informal social participation were found to be significantly related for married elderly respondents but not for non-married respondents. The difference between the conditional gammas for married and non-married respondents was found to be non-significant, hence this hypothesis was not supported (Table VIII).

TABLE VIII

WORK STATUS BY INFORMAL PARTICIPATION BY MARITAL STATUS
FOR MALES AND FEMALES

Marital Status	Work Status	Informal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
Married	Retired	78 (53%)	69 (47%)	147 (100%)
	Working	104 (68%)	49 (32%)	153 (100%)
Total		182 (61%)	118 (39%)	300 (100%)
Non-Married	Retired	36 (52%)	33 (48%)	69 (100%)
	Working	36 (52%)	33 (48%)	69 (100%)
Total		72 (52%)	66 (48%)	138 (100%)

Qxy = -.21
      Conditional Q: Married = -.30, p = .01
      Conditional Q: Non-Married = 0.0, p = 1.0
      Chi square for Conditional Qs = 2.3 (not significant at .05 level).
Number of missing cases = 297

Among married respondents there was a moderate negative association between work status and the degree of informal social participation ($Qxy = -.30$). Among non-married respondents there was no association between work status and the degree of informal social participation ($Qxy = 0.00$).

Married elderly respondents reported a significantly lower degree of informal social participation if they were working. Sixty-eight per cent of working respondents who were also married reported low degree of informal participation. Non-married respondents reported the same degree of informal social participation, whether they were working or not.

> Hypothesis IVb: Given that there is a relationship between work status and formal social participation, and no relationship between marital status and formal social participation, then marital status will not affect the relationship between retirement and formal social participation. The decrease in formal social participation will be the same for respondents who are married and those who are not.

Because a significant relationship was found between marital status and the degree of formal social participation, it was likely that marital status would affect the relationship between work status and the degree of formal social participation.

The relationship between work status and the degree
of formal social participation was found significant for
non-married elderly respondents, but not for married
respondents (Table IX). The difference between the condi-
tional gammas for married and non-married respondents was
not significant; hence, this hypothesis was supported.

TABLE IX

WORK STATUS BY FORMAL PARTICIPATION
BY MARITAL STATUS FOR MALES

Marital Status	Work Status	Formal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
Married	Retired	66 (50%)	65 (50%)	131 (100%)
	Working	51 (44%)	66 (56%)	117 (100%)
Total		117 (47%)	131 (53%)	248 (100%)
Non-Married	Retired	28 (80%)	7 (20%)	35 (100%)
	Working	7 (47%)	8 (53%)	15 (100%)
Total		35 (70%)	15 (30%)	50 (100%)

Qxy = .25
    Conditional Q: Married = .14, p = .34
    Conditional Q: Non-Married = .64, p = .04
    Chi square for Conditional Qs = 3.1 (not signifi-
        cant at .05 level).
Number of missing cases = 24

Marital status did not affect the relationship between work status and the degree of formal social participation.

Among married respondents there was a low positive association between work status and the degree of formal participation (Qxy = .14). For non-married respondents there was a substantial positive association between work status and the degree of formal participation (Qxy = .64). Data showed that among non-married retired respondents a substantially high proportion of respondents had a low degree of formal social participation. Eighty per cent of non-married retired respondents reported a low degree of formal participation. Being retired seemed to have reduced the degree of formal social participation of elderly male respondents.

> Hypothesis Va: Given that there is a relationship between work status and informal social participation and work status and occupational status of the respondents, then controlling for occupational status will reduce the relationship between retirement and informal social participation.

As shown in Table X, Hypothesis Va was not supported as stated. Controlling for the occupational status did not reduce the relationship between work status and the degree of informal participation. Instead controlling for occupational status had no effect on the relationship.

TABLE X

WORK STATUS BY INFORMAL PARTICIPATION BY OCCUPATION
FOR MALES AND FEMALES

Occupation	Work Status	Informal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
Manual, Farm, and Service	Retired	80 (60%)	54 (40%)	134 (100%)
	Working	74 (65%)	40 (35%)	114 (100%)
Total		154 (62%)	94 (38%)	248 (100%)
White-Collar Professional	Retired	34 (44%)	43 (56%)	77 (100%)
	Working	66 (61%)	42 (39%)	108 (100%)
Total		100 (54%)	85 (46%)	185 (100%)

Qxy = -.18
Qxy: controlling for Occupation = -.19
    Conditional Q: Manual, Farm, and Service = -.11,
        p = .47
    Conditional Q: White-Collar Professional = -.33,
        p = .03
Number of missing cases = 302

The relationship between work status and informal social participation was found to be significant for respondents with a white-collar background, but not for respondents with manual, farm, and service backgrounds, who had a low negative association between work status and the degree of informal social participation ($Qxy = -.11$). For elderly respondents with white-collar professional

background there was a moderate negative association between
work status and the degree of informal social participation
(Qxy = -.33). Elderly respondents with white-collar pro-
fessional background who were working, reported a low degree
of informal social participation. Fifty-six per cent retired
professionals reported a high degree of informal participa-
tion. Only 40 per cent of the retired elderly with manual,
farm, and service backgrounds reported a high degree of
informal social participation. These persons probably faced
a greater degree of isolation in retirement as compared with
elderly respondents of white-collar occupational backgrounds.

Hypothesis Vb: Given that there is a relationship

between work status and formal social participation,

and work status and occupational status of the

respondents, then controlling for occupational

status will reduce the relationship between work

status and formal social participation.

As presented in Table XI, Hypothesis Vb was not con-
firmed by the data. Controlling for the occupational
status did not reduce the relationship between work status
and the degree of formal participation. The relationship
between work status and formal social participation was
not significantly related for respondents with manual,
farm, and service and white-collar professional back-
grounds. There was a low positive association between

work status and the degree of formal participation for male respondents of both occupations (Qxy = .15 and .26, respectively). Data showed that more working respondents reported a high degree of formal social participation than those who were retired.

TABLE XI

WORK STATUS BY FORMAL PARTICIPATION BY OCCUPATION
FOR MALES

Occupation	Work Status	Formal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
Manual, Farm, and Service	Retired	73 (63%)	43 (37%)	116 (100%)
	Working	40 (56%)	32 (44%)	72 (100%)
Total		113 (60%)	75 (40%)	188 (100%)
White-Collar Professional	Retired	21 (43%)	28 (57%)	49 (100%)
	Working	18 (30%)	41 (70%)	59 (100%)
Total		39 (36%)	69 (67%)	108 (100%)

Qxy = .25
Qxy: controlling for Occupation = .18
Conditional Q: Manual, Farm, and Service = .15, p = .39
Conditional Q: White-Collar Professional = .26, p = .25
Number of missing cases = 26

Despite the fact that these findings were not statistically significant at the .05 level, 60 per cent of the respondents with the manual, farm, and service occupations reported a low degree of formal social participation compared with 36 per cent of those with white-collar background. Generally, a significantly high proportion of white-collar respondents reported a high degree of formal participation whether they were working or not.

Hypothesis VIa: Given that there is a relationship between work status and informal social participation, and work status and family income, then controlling for family income will reduce the relationship between work status and informal social participation.

As illustrated in Table XII, controlling for family income did not reduce the relationship between work status and the degree of informal social participation. Since the decrease was negligible, no statistical support was found for this hypothesis.

The relationship between work status and the degree of informal social participation among low income elderly respondents was negligible and not significant. For elderly respondents in the high income group there was a moderate negative association between work status and the degree of informal participation ($Qxy = -.41$). A large proportion of respondents in the high income category were working. Sixty-nine per cent of the working

respondents in this income category reported a low degree of informal participation. High income facilitated a high degree of informal participation, but high income required elderly respondents to work and working restricted their degree of informal social participation.

TABLE XII

WORK STATUS BY INFORMAL PARTICIPATION BY FAMILY INCOME
FOR MALES AND FEMALES

Family Income	Work Status	Informal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
Low	Retired	59 (54%)	51 (46%)	110 (100%)
	Working	38 (53%)	34 (47%)	72 (100%)
Total		97 (53%)	85 (47%)	182 (100%)
High	Retired	40 (48%)	44 (52%)	84 (100%)
	Working	94 (69%)	43 (31%)	137 (100%)
Total		134 (61%)	87 (39%)	221 (100%)

Qxy = -.24
Qxy: controlling for Family Income = -.24
    Conditional Q: Low Income = -.02, p = 1.0
    Conditional Q: High Income = -.41, p = .003
Number of missing cases = 332

The complex relationship between work, spare time, income and the degree of informal social participation seemed to have affected the elderly respondents. Retirement provided more time but reduced income; therefore income and retirement seemed to have affected the degree of informal participation.

Hypothesis VIb: Given that there is a relationship between work status and formal social participation, and work status and family income, then controlling for family income will reduce the relationship between work status and formal social participation.

As presented in Table XIII, Hypothesis VIb was substantiated by the data. Controlling for family income substantially reduced the relationship between work status and the degree of formal social participation. Nearly all of the variation in the relationship between work status and formal participation was explained away by family income among the elderly male respondents. The difference in the degree of formal participation might in fact be due to the family income and not due to the work status.

Hypothesis VIIa: Given that there is a relationship between work status and informal social participation, and work status and health, then controlling for health will decrease the relationship between work status and informal social participation.

TABLE XIII

WORK STATUS BY FORMAL PARTICIPATION BY FAMILY INCOME
FOR MALES

Family Income	Work Status	Formal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
Low	Retired	57 (66%)	29 (34%)	86 (100%)
	Working	14 (56%)	11 (44%)	25 (100%)
Total		71 (64%)	40 (36%)	111 (100%)
High	Retired	23 (37%)	39 (63%)	62 (100%)
	Working	42 (42%)	57 (58%)	99 (100%)
Total		65 (40%)	96 (60%)	161 (100%)

$Q_{xy} = .18$
Q_{xy}: controlling for Family Income $= -.03$
        Conditional Q: Low Income $= .21$, $p = .48$
        Conditional Q: High Income $= -.11$, $p = .61$
Number of missing cases $= 50$

As illustrated in Table XIV, Hypothesis VIIa was not confirmed by the data. Controlling for satisfaction with health did not reduce the relationship between work status and the degree of informal social participation. Although the partial Q (-.26) was higher than the zero-order Q (-.22), the difference was negligible.

Elderly respondents who were less satisfied with health showed a low negative association between work status

TABLE XIV

WORK STATUS BY INFORMAL PARTICIPATION BY SATISFACTION
WITH HEALTH FOR MALES AND FEMALES

Satisfaction with Health	Work Status	Informal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
Low	Retired	72 (59%)	50 (41%)	122 (100%)
	Working	55 (66%)	28 (34%)	83 (100%)
Total		127 (62%)	78 (38%)	205 (100%)
High	Retired	42 (45%)	51 (55%)	93 (100%)
	Working	85 (62%)	52 (38%)	137 (100%)
Total		127 (55%)	103 (45%)	230 (100%)

Qxy = -.22
Qxy: controlling for Satisfaction with Health = -.26
        Conditional Q: Low Health Satisfaction = -.16,
                p = .36
        Conditional Q: High Health Satisfaction = -.33,
                p = .01
Number of missing cases = 300

and the degree of informal social participation (Qxy = -.16),
but this relationship was not significant at .05 level. For
those elderly respondents who reported high satisfaction
with health there was a moderate negative association
between work status and the degree of informal participation
(Qxy = -.33), which was significant at .01 level.

Generally, all categories of respondents with differing degrees of satisfaction of health showed a negative association between work status and the degree of informal social participation. Working reduced the degree of informal participation but this affect was more pronounced among respondents with low satisfaction with health. Among retired respondents only 41 per cent with low satisfaction with health reported high informal participation, whereas among respondents with high health satisfaction nearly 55 per cent reported high informal participation. Health satisfaction seemed to have contributed to a high degree of informal participation.

Hypothesis VIIb: Given that there is a relation-
ship between work status and formal social partici-
pation, and work status and health, then controlling
for health will reduce the relationship between work
status and formal social participation.

As exhibited in Table XV, Hypothesis VIIb was not confirmed by the data. The relationship between work status and the degree of formal social participation was not reduced by controlling the degree of satisfaction with health.

Elderly respondents with low health satisfaction showed a moderate positive association between work status and the degree of formal participation ($Qxy = .31$) and respondents with high health satisfaction exhibited a low

positive association between work status and the degree of formal social participation (Qxy = .20). These relationships were not significant at .05 level.

TABLE XV

WORK STATUS BY FORMAL PARTICIPATION BY SATISFACTION
WITH HEALTH FOR MALES

Satisfaction with Health	Work Status	Formal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
Low	Retired	57 (57%)	43 (43%)	100 (100%)
	Working	16 (41%)	23 (59%)	39 (100%)
Total		73 (53%)	66 (47%)	139 (100%)
High	Retired	36 (55%)	29 (45%)	65 (100%)
	Working	41 (45%)	50 (55%)	91 (100%)
Total		77 (49%)	79 (51%)	156 (100%)

Qxy = .25
Qxy: controlling for Satisfaction with Health = .25
    Conditional Q: Low Health Satisfaction = .31,
        p = .13
    Conditional Q: High Health Satisfaction = .20,
        p = .26
Number of missing cases = 27

Hypothesis VIIIa: Given that there is a relationship between work status and informal social participation, and work status and size of kinship network, then the relationship between work status and informal

social participation will be weaker among respondents with smaller kinship network and stronger among respondents with larger kinship networks.

Because a significant relationship was not found between work status and kinship network, it was not likely that the size of kinship network would affect the relationship between work status and the degree of informal social participation.

As presented in Table XVI, Hypothesis VIIIa was not confirmed by the data. There was no significant difference between the conditional gammas for respondents of both small and large kinship networks. For elderly respondents with small and large kinship networks there was a low negative association between work status and the degree of informal social participation (Q_{xy} = -.23 and -.18, respectively), which was not significant at .05 level.

Hypothesis VIIIb: Given that there is a relationship between work status and formal social participation, and no relationship between work status and the size of kinship network, then the size of kinship network will not affect the relationship between work status and formal social participation. The decrease in formal social participation will be the same for respondents with different sizes of kinship networks.

TABLE XVI

WORK STATUS BY INFORMAL PARTICIPATION BY KINSHIP NETWORK
FOR MALES AND FEMALES

Kinship Network	Work Status	Informal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
Small	Retired	64 (54%)	54 (46%)	118 (100%)
	Working	85 (65%)	45 (35%)	130 (100%)
Total		149 (60%)	99 (40%)	248 (100%)
Large	Retired	50 (51%)	48 (49%)	98 (100%)
	Working	55 (60%)	37 (40%)	97 (100%)
Total		105 (55%)	85 (45%)	190 (100%)

Qxy = -.20
    Conditional Q: Small Kinship Network = -.23,
        p = .09
    conditional Q: Large Kinship Network = -.18,
        p = .28
    Chi square for conditional Qs = .08 (not signif-
        icant at .05 level).
Number of missing cases = 297

As illustrated in Table XVII, Hypothesis VIIIb was

confirmed by the data. Controlling for the size of kinship

network did not affect the relationship between work status

and the degree of formal participation (Qxy = .25 and Qxy:t =

.25, respectively). Elderly respondents for both kinship

categories reported a low positive association between work

status and the degree of formal participation (Qxy = .28 and
.18, respectively), which was not significant at .05 level.

TABLE XVII

WORK STATUS BY FORMAL PARTICIPATION BY KINSHIP NETWORK
FOR MALES

Kinship Network	Work Status	Formal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
Small	Retired	49 (54%)	42 (46%)	91 (100%)
	Working	33 (40%)	50 (60%)	83 (100%)
Total		82 (47%)	92 (53%)	174 (100%)
Large	Retired	45 (60%)	30 (40%)	75 (100%)
	Working	25 (51%)	24 (49%)	49 (100%)
Total		70 (57%)	54 (43%)	124 (100%)

Qxy = .25 (Qxy:t = .25)
    Conditional Q: Small Kinship Network = .28,
        p = .08
    Conditional Q: Large Kinship Network = .18,
        p = .42
    Chi square for conditional Qs = .17 (not significant at .05 level).
Number of missing cases = 24

Hypothesis IXa: Given that there is a relationship
between work status and informal social participation,
and work status and race, then the relationship
between work status and informal social participation

will be higher among white respondents than among
black respondents.

As presented in Table XVIII, Hypothesis IXa was not
confirmed by the data. The difference between the
conditional gammas for the white and black respondents was
negligible. Both white and black respondents reported a

TABLE XVIII

WORK STATUS BY INFORMAL PARTICIPATION BY RACE
FOR MALES AND FEMALES

Race	Work Status	Informal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
White	Retired	105 (54%)	88 (46%)	193 (100%)
	Working	130 (64%)	74 (36%)	204 (100%)
Total		235 (59%)	162 (41%)	397 (100%)
Black	Retired	9 (39%)	14 (61%)	23 (100%)
	Working	9 (53%)	8 (47%)	17 (100%)
Total		18 (45%)	22 (55%)	40 (100%)

Qxy = -.21
    Conditional Q: Whites = -.19, p = .07
    Conditional Q: Blacks = -.27, p = .58
    Chi square for conditional Qs = .07 (not significant at .05 level).
Number of missing cases = 298

low negative association between work status and the degree of informal social participation (Qxy = -.19 and -.27, respectively) which were not significant at .05 level.

Hypothesis IXb: Given that there is a relationship between work status and formal social participation, and work status and race, then the relationship between work status and formal social participation will be higher among white respondents than among black respondents.

As presented in Table XIX, the difference between the conditional gammas for white and black respondents was not significantly different; therefore Hypothesis IXb did not appear to be statistically supported. For white respondents, there was a low positive association between work status and the degree of formal social participation (Qxy = .25). This relationship was significant at .04 level. For black respondents there was a moderate negative association between work status and the degree of informal social participation (Qxy = -.31). This relationship was not significant at .05 level.

Though the relationship was not statistically significant, data indicated that a large proportion of black elderly male respondents (82 per cent) reported a low degree of formal social participation compared with only 49 per cent of white male respondnets. Among black

TABLE XIX

WORK STATUS BY FORMAL PARTICIPATION BY RACE
FOR MALES

Race	Work Status	Formal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
White	Retired	83 (55%)	69 (45%)	152 (100%)
	Working	51 (41%)	72 (59%)	123 (100%)
Total		134 (49%)	141 (51%)	275 (100%)
Black	Retired	11 (79%)	3 (21%)	14 (100%)
	Working	7 (88%)	1 (12%)	8 (100%)
Total		18 (82%)	4 (18%)	22 (100%)

$Q_{xy} = .24$
    Conditional Q: Whites = .25, p = .04
    Conditional Q: Blacks = -.31, p = 1.0
    Chi square for conditional Qs = .32 (not significant at .05 level).
Number of missing cases = 25

respondents the degree of formal participation was considerably lower than among white respondents.

Hypothesis Xa: Given that there is a relationship between work status and informal social participation, and work status and gender, then among female respondents, retirement will have a stronger impact on informal social participation than it will have among males.

As presented in Table XX, Hypothesis Xa was not con-
firmed by the data. There was no significant difference
between the conditional gammas for male and female respon-
dents. Elderly respondents of both sexes reported a low
negative association between work status and the degree of
informal participation ($Qxy = -.24$ and $-.18$, respectively).

TABLE XX

WORK STATUS BY INFORMAL PARTICIPATION BY GENDER
FOR MALES AND FEMALES

Gender	Work Status	Informal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
Male	Retired	86 (53%)	76 (47%)	162 (100%)
	Working	83 (65%)	45 (35%)	128 (100%)
Total		169 (58%)	111 (42%)	290 (100%)
Female	Retired	28 (52%)	26 (48%)	54 (100%)
	Working	57 (61%)	37 (39%)	94 (100%)
Total		85 (57%)	63 (43%)	148 (100%)

$Qxy = -.20$
    Conditional Q: Males = $-.24$, p = .05
    Conditional Q: Females = $-.18$, p = .38
    Chi square for conditional Qs = .1 (not signifi-
       cant at .05 level).
Number of missing cases = 297

The relationship between work status and the degree of informal social participation for male respondents was significant at .05 level.

Nearly 65 per cent of working male respondents reported a low degree of informal participation. For male respondents, working may have significantly restricted their degree of informal participation.

Hypothesis XIa: Given that there is a relationship between work status and informal social participation, and work status and anomie, then controlling for anomie will reduce the relationship between work status and informal social participation.

Because a significant relationship was not found between informal social participation and anomie, it was not likely that anomie would affect the relationship between work status and the degree of informal social participation. As illustrated in Table XXI, Hypothesis XIa was not confirmed by the data. Controlling for anomie did not reduce the relationship between work status and the degree of informal social participation. For elderly respondents with a low score on the anomie scale, there was a low negative association between work status and the degree of informal social participation (Q_{xy} = -.21).

Respondents who scored high on the anomie scale showed a low positive association between work status and the degree of informal social participation (Q_{xy} = .15), which

TABLE XXI

WORK STATUS BY INFORMAL PARTICIPATION BY ANOMIE
FOR MALES AND FEMALES

Anomia	Work Status	Informal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
Low	Retired	11 (55%)	9 (45%)	20 (100%)
	Working	15 (65%)	8 (35%)	23 (100%)
Total		26 (61%)	17 (39%)	43 (100%)
High	Retired	19 (58%)	14 (42%)	33 (100%)
	Working	13 (50%)	13 (50%)	26 (100%)
Total		32 (54%)	27 (46%)	59 (100%)

Qxy = .01
Qxy: controlling for Anomie = .02
    Conditional Q: Low Anomie = -.21, p = .71
    Conditional Q: High Anomie = .15, p = .75
Number of missing cases = 87

was not significant at .05 level. Presumably, respondents with high anomie scores participated in organizations only when they were working, whereas respondents with low anomie scores participated in organizations even when they were retired. Generally, participation in formal organizations was likely to reduce the degree of anomie and other related factors. Such formal participation seemed to have affected the respondents with high anomie scores, more when they needed it most.

Hypothesis XIb: Given that there is a relationship between work status and formal social participation, and work status and anomie, then controlling for anomie will reduce the relationship between work status and formal social participation.

Because a significant relationship was not found between work status and anomie, it was not likely that anomie would affect the relationship between work status and formal social participation. As illustrated by Table XXII, Hypothesis XIb was not confirmed by the data. Controlling for the degree of anomie did not reduce the relationship between work status and the degree of formal social participation (zero-order $Q = .44$, first-order partial $Q = .50$), instead it increased the relationship to a negligible extent. To some extent anomie suppressed the real relationship between work status and the degree of formal participation.

For respondents with low anomie scores there was a negligible negative association between work status and the degree of formal social participation ($Q_{xy} = -.07$) which was not significant at .05 level. For respondents in the General Social Surveys who scored high on the anomie scale there was a substantial positive association between work status and the degree of formal social participation ($Q_{xy} = .68$) which was significant at .02 level. A large proportion of working respondents with high anomie scores

reported a high degree of formal participation. Seventy-two per cent of such respondents with high anomie scores who were working reported a high degree of formal participation, whereas 67 per cent of retired respondents with high anomie scores reported a low degree of formal participation.

TABLE XXII

WORK STATUS BY FORMAL PARTICIPATION
BY ANOMIE FOR MALES

Anomia	Work Status	Formal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
Low	Retired	6 (43%)	8 (57%)	14 (100%)
	Working	6 (46%)	7 (54%)	13 (100%)
Total		12 (44%)	15 (56%)	27 (100%)
High	Retired	18 (67%)	9 (33%)	27 (100%)
	Working	5 (28%)	13 (72%)	18 (100%)
Total		23 (51%)	22 (49%)	45 (100%)

Qxy = .44
Qxy: controlling for anomie = .50
    Conditional Q: Low Anomie = -.07, p = 1.0
    Conditional Q: High Anomie = .68, p = .02
Number of missing cases = 21

Hypothesis XIIa: Given that there is a relationship
between work status and informal social participation,
and work status and size of community of residence,
then controlling for the size of community of residence
will reduce the relationship between work status and
informal social participation.

Because a significant relationship was not found be-
tween work status and size of community of residence, it was
not likely that size of community of residence would affect
the relationship between work status and the degree of in-
formal social participation. As presented in Table XXIII,
Hypothesis XIIa was not confirmed by the data. Controlling
for the size of community of residence did not reduce the
relationship between work status and the degree of informal
social participation to a significant extent (zero-order
gamma = -.21, first-order partial gamma = -.19).

Elderly respondents in the General Social Surveys who
resided in large or medium size central cities and suburbs
reported a low negative association between work status and
the degree of informal social participation (Qxy = -.13 and
-.21, respectively). Respondents who resided in unincor-
porated or in non-metropolitan counties reported a moderate
negative association between work status and the degree of
informal participation (Qxy = -.35). These relationships
were not significant at .05 level.

TABLE XXIII

WORK STATUS BY INFORMAL PARTICIPATION BY COMMUNITY SIZE
FOR MALES AND FEMALES

Community Size	Work Status	Informal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
Central City	Retired	67 (56%)	53 (44%)	120 (100%)
	Working	64 (62%)	39 (38%)	103 (100%)
Total		131 (59%)	92 (41%)	223 (100%)
Suburbs	Retired	19 (53%)	17 (47%)	36 (100%)
	Working	31 (63%)	17 (37%)	49 (100%)
Total		50 (59%)	34 (41%)	85 (100%)
Incorporated, Unincorporated and Non-Metropolitan	Retired	28 (47%)	32 (53%)	60 (100%)
	Working	45 (64%)	25 (36%)	70 (100%)
Total		75 (56%)	57 (44%)	130 (100%)

Zero-Order Gamma = -.21
First-Order Partial Gamma = -.19
    Conditional Q: Central City = -.13, p = .41
    Conditional Q: Suburbs = -.21, p = .45
    Conditional Q: Incorporated, Unincorporated,
       and Non-Metropolitan Counties = -.35, p = .06
Number of missing cases = 297

Hypothesis XIIb: Given that there is a relationship

between work status and formal social participation,

and work status and size of community of residence,

then controlling for size of community of residence

will reduce the relationship between work status and

formal social participation.

Because a significant relationship was not found

between work status and size of community of residence, it

was not likely that size of community would affect the

relationship between work status and the degree of formal

social participation.

As indicated in Table XXIV, Hypothesis XIIb was not

confirmed by the data. Controlling for the community of

residence did not reduce the relationship between work

status and the degree of formal social participation

(Zero-order gamma = .25, first-order partial gamma = .26).

Elderly respondents who resided in the central cities

showed a low positive association between work status and

the degree of formal social participation (Q_{xy} = .27).

Respondents who resided in suburbs reported a negligible

negative association between work status and the degree of

formal social participation. Respondents who lived in

unincorporated and non-metropolitan counties reported a

moderate positive association between work status and the

degree of formal participation (Q_{xy} = .39). These relation-

ships were not significant at.05 level.

TABLE XXIV

WORK STATUS BY FORMAL PARTICIPATION BY COMMUNITY SIZE
FOR MALES

Community Size	Work Status	Formal Participation		
		Low	High	Total
Central City	Retired	53 (56%)	42 (44%)	95 (100%)
	Working	29 (42%)	40 (58%)	69 (100%)
Total		82 (50%)	82 (50%)	164 (100%)
Suburbs	Retired	11 (41%)	16 (59%)	27 (100%)
	Working	13 (43%)	17 (57%)	30 (100%)
Total		24 (42%)	33 (58%)	57 (100%)
Incorporated, Unincorporated and Non-Metropolitan	Retired	30 (68%)	14 (32%)	44 (100%)
	Working	16 (48%)	17 (52%)	33 (100%)
Total		46 (60%)	31 (40%)	77 (100%)

Zero-Order Gamma = .25
First-Order Partial Gamma = .26
 Conditional Q: Central City = .27, p = .11
 Conditional Q: Suburbs = -.05, p = 1.0
 Conditional Q: Incorporated, Unincorporated,
 and Non-Metropolitan Counties = .39, p = .13
Number of missing cases = 24

Summary of Findings

As illustrated in Table XXV, the direction of findings were in accordance with the zero-order hypotheses. Retired respondents reported significantly low degrees of formal participation and high degrees of informal participation.

All hypotheses with the explanatory test variables were not confirmed when they were introduced to study the relationship between work status and the degree of informal social participation for all male and female respondents. Controlling for occupational status, family income, satisfaction with health, anomia, and size of community of residence did not reduce the relationship between work status and the degree of informal social participation.

In the study of the relationship between work status and the degree of formal social participation, one hypothesis with the explanatory test variable was confirmed. Controlling for family income considerably reduced the relationship between work status and the degree of formal social participation among elderly male respondents in the General Social Surveys. All the other hypotheses relating to explanatory test variables were not confirmed. Controlling for occupational status, satisfaction with health, anomia, and size of community of residence did not significantly reduce the relationship between work status and the

TABLE XXV

SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES AND FINDINGS

Hypothesis Number	Type of Test Variable	Finding
I	None	Confirmed
II	None	Confirmed
IIIa	Specifier	Not confirmed
IIIb	Specifier	Not confirmed
IVa	Specifier	Not confirmed
IVb	No effect	Confirmed
Va	Explanatory	Not confirmed
Vb	Explanatory	Not confirmed
VIa	Explanatory	Not confirmed
VIb	Explanatory	Confirmed
VIIa	Explanatory	Not confirmed
VIIb	Explanatory	Not confirmed
VIIIa	Specifier	Not confirmed
VIIIb	No effect	Confirmed
IXa	Specifier	Not confirmed
IXb	Specifier	Not confirmed
Xa	Specifier	Not confirmed
XIa	Explanatory	Not confirmed
XIb	Explanatory	Not confirmed
XIIa	Explanatory	Not confirmed
XIIb	Explanatory	Not confirmed

degree of formal social participation among elderly male respondents.

All the hypotheses with the specifier test variables were not confirmed. No significant differences were found by introducing the following test variables: work status of spouse, marital status, kinship network, gender, and race, while studying the relationship between work status and formal and informal social participation.

All the hypotheses with no-effect test variables were confirmed as stated. Controlling for marital status and kinship network did not affect the relationship between work status and the degree of formal social participation among elderly male respondents.

CHAPTER IV

INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS AND SUMMARY

In this chapter the findings of the research are
interpreted and explained. The meaning and substance of
the findings are summarized.

Interpretation

Social participation--informal social interaction and
formal organizational memberships--was hypothesized to be
related to the degree of social integration of individuals
to their primary groups and larger social systems. Social
integration was an important factor for persons of all ages
but it assumed additional dimensions for the elderly
respondents. Old age was usually accompanied with numerous
negative connotations such as poor health, loss of close
friends, associates and spouse and above all loss of job
in most cases. Declining health combined with other
factors tended to constrict the social world of elderly
persons. Retirement in the later life was hypothesized
to have reduced the degree of social participation, involve-
ment and consequent social integration. This postulate
was vigorously contested and was found unsubstantiated in
the present study which indicated that retirement reduced

only one type of social participation--membership in
formal organizations. This decrease was primarily a
function of declining income instead of retirement as such
among male elderly respondents. Informal participation
generally increased during retirement.

Another issue related to the degree of social partici-
pation is whether social participation helps the elderly
persons to adjust in the later years of life or adds to
their well-being. Earlier researchers with some exceptions
concluded that physically and mentally active elderly per-
sons were definitely happier and better adjusted. It was
assumed that social participation and subsequent social
integration lead to adjustment in later life and added to
the well being of older persons. Primary relationships
provided close interpersonal relationships which provided
the older persons with much needed emotional support.
Organizational memberships furnished the link between the
individual and the mass society. Such organizational
membership and informal interaction were likely to counter-
balance the negative affects of role losses in old age.

Generally, a relatively large proportion of retired
elderly male and female respondents reported a low degree
of formal social participation and a high degree of in-
formal participation. A relatively large proportion of
working male respondents reported a high degree of formal
participation and a low degree of informal participation.

These findings supported the findings of Taitz and Larson (1) who observed that working elderly respondents in their sample reported a high degree of membership in those organizations, which were related to their respective occupations. Such formal organizations had usually functioned to facilitate upward mobility. Organizational membership provided individuals with a platform, where they could share some common values and carry out common goals. Other types of voluntary organizations created a bridge between the individual and the larger social systems.

The association between work status and the degree of formal social participation was in the predicted direction, but the association was not strong. The difference between retired and working elderly respondents may have been in the areas of membership in professional or occupation-related organizations.

A relatively large proportion of retired male respondents reported a high degree of informal participation. This finding was in support of the findings of Taitz and Larson (1) who pointed out that informal organizational membership increased with retirement. The major contributing factor in explaining this phenomenon could be that retirement provided an increase in leisure time which was often utilized to contact neighbors, friends, and relatives. Such informal participation is likely to compensate for the loss of work role and other role losses.

Despite the lack of statistical significance, elderly respondents exhibited different patterns of informal social participation if their spouses worked or not. Working seemed to have restricted the degree of informal participation of all respondents. But a considerably larger proportion of working respondents whose spouses were retired reported a lower degree of informal participation than those whose spouses were either working or keeping house. For male respondents the work status of spouse affected the degree of formal participation. Working spouses added to the degree of formal participation. Data indicated that retired spouses were more likely to restrict the degree of informal participation of working respondents.

There was no statistically significant relationship between marital status and informal participation. However, the relationship between work status and informal participation was significant for married and not significant for non-married respondents. Contrary to the theoretical perspective developed in Chapter I, a moderate proportion of married respondents reported a low degree of informal participation if they were working.

Among non-married retired male respondents, a substantial proportion reported a low degree of formal participation. Eighty per cent of retired non-married male respondents reported a low degree of formal social participation. Among married male respondents, the relationship

between work status and formal participation was not significant. Being non-married may have caused isolation for the elderly males. Seventy per cent of all non-married male respondents reported a low degree of formal participation. This finding suggested that the formal links with the larger social system tended to be absent among a large proportion of non-married elderly male respondents. Retirement further added to their social isolation.

Relatively more married respondents reported a low degree of informal participation than non-married respondents. But more non-married male respondents reported a low degree of formal participation; therefore being married tended to reduce informal social participation and being non-married reduced the degree of formal participation. Married male respondents joined organizaions and continued their membership into retirement, whereas non-married male respondents seemed to have decreased the memberships after retirement.

Occupation significantly affected the relationship between work status and the degree of informal participation for white-collar respondents and not for manual, farm and service respondents. Working reduced the degree of informal participation of far more white-collar professionals than it did for respondents with manual, farm and service occupations. But overall, relatively more respondents with manual, farm and service background reported a lower degree of

informal participation than professionals. Obviously, retired respondents from white-collar professional background usually had a high degree of informal participation mainly due to higher income.

Despite the lack of statistical significance, working tended to increase the degree of formal participation. Sixty-nine per cent of working professional elderly reported a high degree of formal participation, compared with 40 per cent of working elderly with the manual, farm and service occupations. These findings were in accordance with the findings of earlier researchers, reviewed in Chapter I.

The relationship between work status and the degree of informal participation was significant for only high income group and not for low income group. For the high income category working reduced the degree of informal participation to a considerable extent. There was no significant difference between the degree of informal participation of low income working and retired respondents. A majority of low income respondents were retired, and may have had increased leisure time to add to their degree of informal participation.

Income emerged as an explanatory variable in the relationship between work status and the degree of formal participation among elderly male respondents. Controlling for family income reduced the relationship between work status and the degree of formal participation. It is

probable that the high degree of formal participation was due to high income. Formal participation was more affected by the family income than informal participation.

Satisfaction with health did not significantly affect the relationship between work status and the degree of informal and formal participation. Work restricted the degree of informal participation more for the respondents with a high degree of health satisfaction than for respondents with a low degree of health satisfaction. Retirement added to the degree of informal participation of respondents with high health satisfaction. Fifty-five per cent of retired respondents with a high degree of health satisfaction reported a high degree of informal participation compared with 41 per cent with a low degree of health satisfaction.

Health was one of the central factors which was associated not only with the degree of formal and informal social participation but also with the work status of the elderly respondents. Elderly respondents who were working generally reported a higher degree of health satisfaction. The health factor seemed to have affected the association between work status and the degree of informal participation. Being retired and having poor health affected the degree of informal participation to a considerable extent.

The size of the kinship network did not affect the relationship between work status and formal and informal social participation significantly. However, working reduced the degree of informal participation more for respondents with small kinship network than it did for elderly respondents with large kinship network. A larger proportion of male elderly respondents with a large kinship network reported a low degree of formal participation than respondents with small kinship network.

Working reduced the degree of informal participation for both white and black elderly respondents. Work status and formal participation were significantly related for white elderly male respondents but not for black elderly male respondents. Relatively more whites reported multiple memberships if they were working. Among black respondents multiple memberships were lower for working respondents than for retired respondents. The reason for low formal partici- pation among working black elderly respondents may be that they predominantly belonged to farm and manual occupations, had irregular working hours, and relatively lower incomes. Even among retired black elderly 79 per cent reported a low degree of formal participation. The lack of formal participation among black elderly respondents seemed to have been compensated by the prevalence of a high degree of informal social participation. Fifty-five per cent of black elderly respondents reported a high degree of

informal social participation. It is suggested that additional programs should be developed for a greater involvement of black elderly in various organizations.

The relationship between work status and informal participation was significant among elderly male respondents and not among female respondents. Both males and females reported a low degree of informal social participation if they were working, but the reduction was slightly greater for male respondents than it was for female respondents. A review of literature indicated that females showed a high degree of activities in old age. This research did not support such findings. One reason seemed to be that housewives were not included in this analysis. Only working and retired elderly female respondents were studied. It is probable that the working and retired women do not have the same characteristics as those who were keeping house. In this sample a large proportion of female respondents was non-married and had a low family income. These factors seemed to have reduced their degree of informal social participation.

Work status and informal participation were not significantly related to anomia. However, a larger proportion of respondents who scored low on the anomia scale reported a low degree of informal participation if they were working. On the other hand, relatively more respondents with high anomia scores tended to report a high degree of informal

participation, if they were working. Overall, more respondents with low anomia score (61 per cent) reported a low degree of informal participation than those who scored high on the anomia scale (54 per cent).

The relationship between work status and formal participation was significant for the male respondents who scored high on the anomia scale and not for those who scored low on the anomia scale. There was no significant difference in the degree of formal participation of working and retired male respondents who scored low on the anomia scale. Among elderly who scored high on the anomia scale, a large proportion of working male respondents reported a high degree of formal participation. Retirement seemed to have reduced organizational membership to a considerable extent of those male respondents who scored high on the anomia scale. Data indicated that male respondents with high anomia scores participated in organizations mainly when they were working and such membership was required. Among elderly male respondents with high anomia scores only 33 per cent reported a high degree of formal participation. It is suggested that elderly who scored high on the anomia scale dropped out of multiple organizational memberships when it was not necessary to continue their memberships. The lack of formal participation seemed to have adversely affected such elderly respondents in retirement, when they needed it most.

The relationship between work status and the degree of informal and formal participation was not significant for all the three categories of community of residence. All elderly respondents reported a low degree of informal participation if they were working. However, as the size of community decreased the negative effect of working on the degree of informal participation increased. Elderly respondents who resided in the central city reported the lowest negative association between work status and the degree of informal participation, followed by elderly residents of suburbs and unincorporated areas and non-metropolitan counties.

The relationship between work status and formal participation was positive only for the elderly male respondents who resided in the central cities or in unincorporated areas and non-metropolitan counties. For elderly male respondents who resided in suburbs there was a negligible negative association between work status and the degree of formal participation. Suburban elderly respondents reported high membership even when they were retired, whereas other respondents tended to join multiple organizations when they were working. Higher income and white-collar professional background seemed to have affected high formal participation for suburban elderly respondents in retirement.

Summary

The relationship between work status and informal and formal participation was studied for the elderly respondents in the age group of sixty through sixty-nine. Data from the National Opinion Research Center's General Social Surveys was used for this research. The subsample contained 735 elderly respondents from four subfiles out of seven of the cumulative data set.
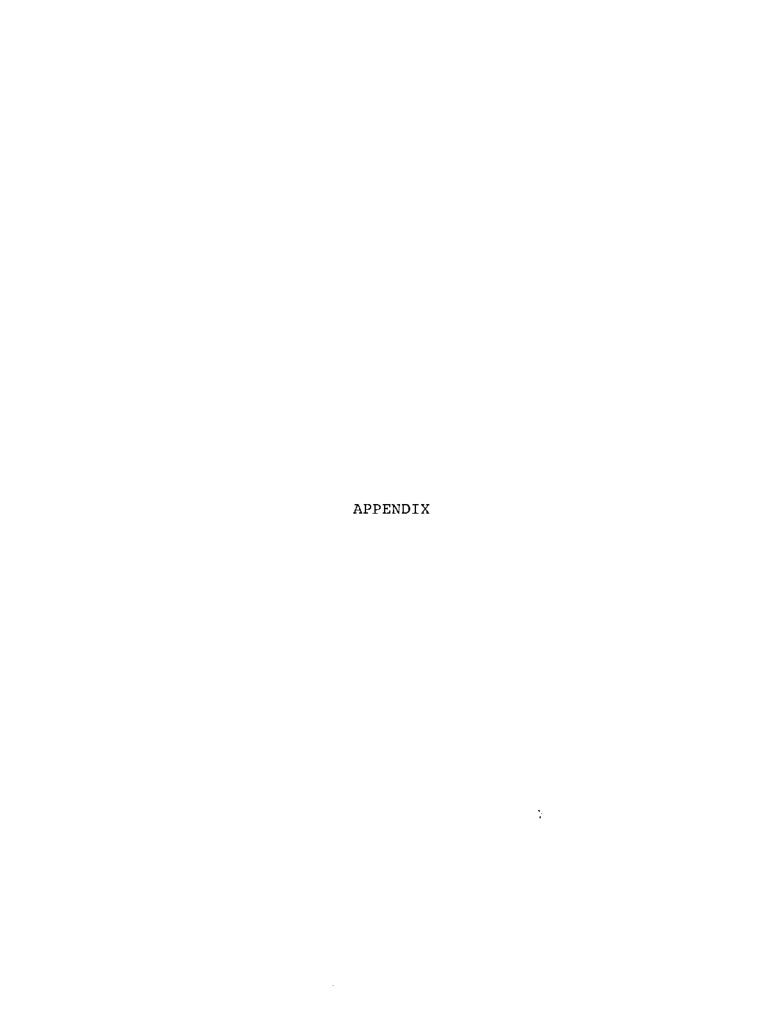
Informal social participation was studied for both male and female respondents. As hypothesized a relatively large proportion of retired respondents reported a high degree of informal social participation and a low degree of formal participation and vice versa in case of working elderly respondents. The elaboration model was used to further analyze this relationship with the inclusion of additional variables. Numerous test variables were introduced to determine the impact of those variables on the relationship between work status and informal participation. Controlling for occupational status, family income, satisfaction with health, anomia, and size of community of residence did not reduce the relationship between work status and the degree of informal participation significantly. In this relationship no significant differences were found by introducing the following specifier variables: work status of spouse, marital status, kinship network, gender, and race.

The relationship between work status and formal participation was studied only for elderly male respondents in the age category of sixty through sixty-nine. Controlling for family income reduced the relationship between work status and formal participation to a considerable extent. But controlling for occupational status, satisfaction with health, anomia, and size of community of residence did not reduce this relationship significantly. The following specifier variables were introduced: work status of spouse, marital status, kinship network, gender, and race. None of these variables exhibited a significant difference in the relationship between work status and the degree of formal participation among male respondents.

The relationship between work status and informal social participation was not significantly altered by the test variables, whereas the relationship between work status and formal social participation was significantly reduced by controlling for family income. The difference in the degree of male respondent's formal social participation was explained by family income instead of work status.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX

The following variables were used in the research. The text of these variables is presented here as it appeared in the Cumulative Codebook of the General Social Surveys 1972-78. The variable numbers are the same as placed in the data set.

Variable 3:   Last week were you working full time, part time, going to school, keeping house, or what?

    1.   Working full time
    2.   Working part time
    3.   With a job, but not at work because of
                temporary illness, vacation, strike
    4.   Unemployed, laid off, looking for work
    5.   Retired
    6.   In school
    7.   Keeping house
    8.   Other

Variable 8:   If retired, in school, keeping house, or other: Did you ever work for as long as one year?

    1.   Yes
    2.   No
    9.   No answer
    BK.   Not applicable

Variable 9:   Respondent's occupation (was coded according to Bureau of the Census three-digit classification):

    0.   Professional, technical
    1.   Professional, technical
    2.   Managers, administrators, and sales workers

3.	Clerical and kindred workers
4.	Craftsmen and kindred workers
5.	Craftsmen and kindred workers
6.	Operatives, except transport
7.	Transport equipment operatives, laborers
8.	Farmers, farm laborers, etc.
9.	Service workers
BK.	Not applicable, no answer, don't know

Variable 16: Are you currently married, widowed, divorced, separated, or have you never been married?

1.	Married
2.	Widowed
3.	Divorced
4.	Separated
5.	Never married
9.	No answer

Variable 20: Last week was your (wife/husband) working full time, part time, going to school, keeping house, or what?

1.	Working full time
2.	Working part time
3.	With a job, but not at work because of temporary illness, vacation, strike
4.	Unemployed, laid off, looking for work
5.	Retired
6.	In school
7.	Keeping house
8.	Other
9.	No answer
BK.	Not applicable

Variable 40: How many brothers and sisters did you have? Please count those born alive, but no longer living, as well as those alive now. Also include stepbrothers and stepsisters, and children adopted by your parents.

0.	None
1.	One
2.	Two
3.	Three
4.	Four
5.	Five

Through

28.	Twenty-eight
98.	Don't know
99.	No answer

Variable 41: How many children have you had? Please count all that were born alive at any time (including any you had from a previous marriage).

0.	None
1.	One
2.	Two
3.	Three

Through

8.	Eight or more

Variable 42: Respondent's age (recode in Decile).

1.	10 through 19
2.	20 through 29
3.	30 through 39
4.	40 through 49
5.	50 through 59
6.	60 through 69
7.	70 through 79
8.	80 or over
9.	No answer, don't know

Variable 55: Respondent's sex (coded by the interviewer).

1.	Male
2.	Female

Variable 56: Respondent's race (code without asking only if there is no doubt in your mind). If any doubt, then ask: What race do you consider yourself? (Recode verbatim and code.)

1.	White
2.	Black
3.	Other

Variable 78:   In which of these groups did your <u>family</u> income, from all sources, fall last year, before taxes that is? Just tell me the letter.

1.	Under $1,000
2.	$1,000 to 2,999
3.	$3,000 to 3,999
4.	$4,000 to 4,999
5.	$5,000 to 5,999
6.	$6,000 to 6,999
7.	$7,000 to 7,999
8.	$8,000 to 9,999
9.	$10,000 to 14,999
10.	$15,000 to 19,999
11.	$20,000 to 24,999
12.	$25,000 or over
13.	Refused
14.	Don't know
15.	No answer
BK.	Not applicable

Variable 101:   National Opinion Research Center size of place description:

Within a SMSA and

1.	A large central city (over 250,000)
2.	A medium size central city (50,000 to 250,000)
3.	A suburb of a large central city
4.	A suburb of a medium size central city
5.	An unincorporated area of a large central city (division, township, etc.)
6.	An unincorporated area of a medium central city

Not within a SMSA (within a county) and

7.	A small city (10,000 to 49,000)
8.	A town or village (2,500 to 9,999)
9.	An incorporated area less than 2,500 or an unincorporated area of 1,000 to 2,499
10.	Open country within larger civil divisions, e.g. township, division

(Note: The source of the data is the 1970 United States Census population figures published in the P C (1)-A series, Tables 6 and 10).

Variable 241:   For each area of life I am going to name,
                tell me the number that shows how much
                satisfaction you get from that area (READ
                ITEMS A. E. CIRCLE CODE FOR EACH):

                Your health and physical condition

1.   A very great deal
2.   A great deal
3.   Quite a bit
4.   A fair amount
5.   Some
6.   A little
7.   None
8.   Don't know
9.   No answer
BK.   Not applicable

Variable 268:   Would you use this card and tell me which
                answer comes closest to how often you do
                the following things.

                Spend a social evening with relatives?

1.   Almost every day
2.   Once or twice a week
3.   Several times a month
4.   About once a month
5.   Several times a year
6.   About once a year
7.   Never
8.   Don't know
9.   No answer
BK.   Not applicable

Variable 269:   Spend a social evening with someone who
                lives in your neighborhood?

1.   Almost every day
2.   Once or twice a week
3.   Several times a month
4.   About once a month
5.   Several times a year
6.   About once a year
7.   Never
8.   Don't know
9.   No answer
BK.   Not applicable

Variable 270:   Spend a social evening with friends who live outside the neighborhood?

    1.   Almost every day
    2.   Once or twice a week
    3.   Several times a month
    4.   About once a month
    5.   Several times a year
    6.   About once a year
    7.   Never
    8.   Don't know
    9.   No answer
    BK.   Not applicable

Variable 275 through Variable 290: Now we would like to know something about the groups and organizations to which individuals belong. Here is a list of various kinds of organizations. Could you tell me whether or not you are a member of each type? (READ EACH ITEM. CODE ONE FOR EACH.)

Variable 275: Fraternal groups

Variable 276: Service clubs

Variable 277: Veteran's groups

Variable 278: Political clubs

Variable 279: Labor unions

Variable 280: Sports groups

Variable 281: Youth groups

Variable 282: School service groups

Variable 283: Hobby or garden clubs

Variable 284: School fraternities or sororities

Variable 285: Nationality groups

Variable 286: Farm organizations

Variable 287: Literary, art, discussion, or study groups

Variable 288: Professional or academic societies

Variable 289:   Church affiliated groups

Variable 290:   Any other groups

Variable 291:   Any membership at all.

    0.   No membership
    1.   01 membership
    2.   02 memberships
    3.   03 memberships

      Through

   15.   15 memberships
   99.   No answer
   BK.   Not applicable

(Note: Variable 291 is a computed variable reflecting the total number of memberships mentioned from variable 275 through variable 290).

Variable 302:   Now I'd like your opinions on a number of different things.

                Nowadays, a person has to live pretty much for today and let tomorrow take care of it- self. Do you more or less agree with that, or more or less disagree?

    1.   Agree
    2.   Disagree
    8.   Don't know
    9.   No answer
   BK.   Not applicable

Variable 303:   In spite of what some people say, the lot (situation / condition) of the average man is getting worse, not better.

    1.   Agree
    2.   Disagree
    8.   Don't know
    9.   No answer
   BK.   Not applicable

Variable 304:   It's hardly fair to bring a child into the world with the way things look for the future.

1.	Agree
2.	Disagree
8.	Don't know
9.	No answer
BK.	Not applicable

Variable 305:   Now I'm going to read you several more statements.

Most public officials (people in public office) are not really interested in the problems of the average man.

1.	Agree
2.	Disagree
8.	Don't know
9.	No answer
BK.	Not applicable

Variable 306:   These days a person doesn't really know whom he can count on.

1.	Agree
2.	Disagree
8.	Don't know
9.	No answer
BK.	Not applicable

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