

1 AGE OF DESPAIR OR AGE OF HOPE?

2 PALESTINIAN WOMEN'S PERSPECTIVES ON MIDLIFE HEALTH

3

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6 **ABSTRACT**

7 There is limited evidence about women's experiences of the midlife, beyond a narrow –
8 frequently biomedical – focus on the menopause. The broader (physical, social, cultural,
9 political) dimensions of women's midlife health are poorly understood, particularly in low
10 and middle-income countries. Our study seeks to understand how women in the West Bank
11 (occupied Palestinian territories) conceptualise, experience and manage their health in the
12 midlife. We generated qualitative evidence using in-depth life history interviews in 2015
13 with women (n=35) living in the West Bank, analysed thematically. Women's
14 understandings of good health draw on indigenous and biomedical knowledge and include a
15 calm psychological state, ease of movement, as well as physical appearance and
16 complexion. Exposure to political violence was understood as impacting mental and
17 physical well-being. Most women articulated a positive view about midlife and ageing as a
18 natural process. A range of terms and expressions were suggested by women experiencing
19 this transition, internalised differently according to marital and motherhood status. For
20 many women, the menopause was merely one – often relatively unimportant – aspect of
21 changes associated with ageing. In dealing with midlife health issues women used multiple
22 strategies, or health pluralism, sequentially or simultaneously; drawing on multiple sets of

23 accrued resources. For never-married or childless women, formal healthcare services
24 represented a site of social exclusion. Our evidence highlights the importance of
25 considering the broader dimensions related to midlife health for understanding women's
26 health maintaining and care-seeking behaviours as they age.

27 **KEYWORDS**

28 occupied Palestinian territories

29 gender

30 health

31 midlife

32 menopause

33 health pluralism

34 **INTRODUCTION**

35 Midlife or the middle years of adulthood was until recently understood as little more than a
36 “staging area” toward older age (Baruch & Brooks-Gunn, 1984 p.1). Lifecourse approaches,
37 however, identify midlife as a distinct stage of life (Moen & Wethington, 1999). This follows
38 the conceptual emergence and widespread acceptance of adolescence as a distinct
39 lifestage. Together with adolescence, perimenopause has been identified as one of the
40 “extremes of reproductive life” (Penney, 2006: 20). Processes of change, whilst often linked
41 explicitly to biological transitions (eg: puberty, menopause), encompass much broader
42 processes of social change and demand a biosocial approach to understanding people’s
43 experiences of health – and health-seeking behaviours – across the lifecourse. This draws
44 attention to the ways in which health intersects with its social determinants, reflecting the
45 importance of socio-ecological context within which women age (Melby et al., 2005;
46 Obermeyer, 2000). For example, evidence from Thailand highlights women’s accounts of
47 the midlife as involving transformation and adaptation, but that was nonetheless negatively
48 stereotyped in their socio-cultural context (Arpanantikul, 2004). By identifying more fine-
49 grained understanding of the lifecourse we can identify the disparate ways in which
50 individuals conceptualise, navigate and experience role transitions.

51 The boundaries of midlife – as with any other lifestage – are fuzzy; an age range of 35 to 55
52 years is a crude proxy for diverse trajectories of individual change. The health concerns of
53 women in midlife have been neglected in low and middle income countries (LMICs) (Bustreo
54 et al., 2013). Health services tend to focus on reproductive needs, and as women age their
55 needs are neglected (Palacios et al., 2005). Healthcare provision, or its absence, can

56 operate as a site of social exclusion across intersectionalities, including gender and age.
57 Gaps in healthcare provision are an indicator of the privileging of some needs (eg:
58 reproduction) above others (eg: menopause). Or, where healthcare is provided, social
59 exclusion occurs because perceptions about that care, including its content and quality, act
60 as barriers to use (Hossen & Westhues, 2010).

61 In high income settings accounts of women's midlife have tended to be negative,
62 emphasising: loss, physical debilitation; emotional trauma; and, the challenges of navigating
63 multiple concurrent transitions (eg: menopause and adult children leave home or parents
64 age and die) (Dare, 2011). Menopause is most closely associated with the negative
65 connotations of the midlife, although studies from high and middle income countries find
66 that attitudes towards menopause are more positive or neutral than negative (Ayers et al.,
67 2010; Winterich, 2003). In resource-poor settings many women may not seek healthcare
68 because of a presumption that age-related needs are normal or natural and do not warrant
69 care (Elias & Sherris, 2003; Jejeebhoy et al., 2003).

70 Compared to high income settings, evidence for women's experiences of the midlife in
71 LMICs is sparse (Harlow et al., 2012). In work from LMICs focusing on women's health, the
72 absence of a focus on menopause might represent two different silences: a "culture of
73 silence" (Senanayake, 2000 p.63) surrounding older women's health reflecting the lack of
74 attention paid by providers or researchers; or, an extension of the "silent endurance"
75 (Khattab, 1992 p.1) of women's reproductive lives into their post-reproductive years. Silence
76 around menopause is highlighted in an ethnographic study of rural Egypt that identifies a

77 range of transitions (birth, circumcision, menstruation, marriage, pregnancy, motherhood,
78 widowhood), with menopause only mentioned in passing (Lane & Meleis, 1991).

79 The midlife has also been identified as a time of personal growth, satisfaction, creativity,
80 pleasure and power (Friedman & Pines, 1992; Friedman et al., 1992), emerging from
81 women's own accounts and meanings of their midlife, "hearing midlife voices" (Wadsworth,
82 2000 p.645), although much of this evidence is from high income settings (Dare, 2011). Our
83 study seeks to understand how women conceptualise, experience and manage their health
84 in the midlife. Women's accounts can reveal differences between biomedical discourses and
85 women's understandings, highlighting different midlife meanings and experiences in context
86 (Wray, 2007).

87

88 Context

89 Palestinians in the occupied Palestinian territories (oPt) live in two administratively
90 segregated areas: the Gaza Strip and the West Bank (WB). Compared to men, women in
91 oPt have lower labour participation rates and higher unemployment rates (PCBS, 2016a).
92 Inequities persist despite gender parity in achievement of Bachelor degree awards (PCBS,
93 2016b). Palestinian women's health needs are constrained by structural barriers to health
94 care, with men forming the majority of policy makers and physicians providing services
95 (Giacaman et al., 2003). Health policy in oPt is influenced by donor strategies emphasising
96 reproductive health care (Giacaman et al., 2003). Health services for women who are
97 unmarried or beyond childbearing, are under-resourced and scarce (UN, 2013). Use of the

98 phrase *age of despair* by some medical professionals to refer to the menopause highlights
99 negative biomedical attitudes (UN, 2013). At older ages, a lack of social security means that
100 family – especially children – serve an important welfare function. Poorer and older women
101 who are never-married or divorced or childless, experience increasing vulnerability and
102 marginalisation with age (Giacaman, 1997).

103 The socio-political context (political violence, stress, insecurity, Israeli blockades restricting
104 movement including for healthcare), deteriorating living conditions and resource-
105 constrained Palestinian healthcare system (donor dependency, out-of-pocket-payments and
106 corruption, fragmented services) are well established (Batniji et al., 2009; ESCWA, 2009;
107 Giacaman et al., 2009; Husseini et al., 2009; Rahim et al., 2009). Studies of women's health
108 in oPt focus on reproductive health (Giacaman et al., 2007; Hassan-Bitar & Narrainen, 2011;
109 Wick et al., 2005). A study of women's health seeking behaviours in rural oPt found reliance
110 on self-treatment, delayed seeking of formal healthcare, and low levels of preventive health
111 care, all mediated by women's gendered position in oPt society (Majaj et al., 2013). Some
112 aspects of religion (faith, prayer, participation in religious practices) have been identified as
113 being protective of women's health in oPt (Sousa, 2013).

114 There is substantial evidence on the links between political violence (and its mediators) and
115 health and well-being in oPt (Abu-Mourada et al., 2010; Abu-Rmeileh et al., 2012; Hobfoll et
116 al., 2012; McNeely et al., 2013). Females are more likely to be at risk from negative health
117 effects of political violence than males, linked to lower socio-economic status and access to
118 resources (Al-Krenawi et al., 2007; Hobfoll et al., 2011; Punamäki et al., 2005). Women are
119 more prone than men to a range of psychopathologies, including depression and PTSD, with

120 the effects of violence compounded by their roles as mothers and wives (Al-Krenawi et al.,
121 2007). A study following the winter 2008-2009 Israeli attack on the Gaza Strip revealed that
122 women had worse health related quality of life than men (Abu-Rmeileh et al., 2012).
123 Although both men and women experienced insecurity, women reported higher levels of
124 human insecurity, due to their roles as primary caregivers, and stresses and fears
125 associated with a possible loss of a male breadwinner (Ziadni et al., 2011).

126

127 **Methodology**

128 We collected (n=35) in-depth life-history interviews (February-August 2015), drawing on
129 two related strands of qualitative research within social and public policy: the call for more
130 use of life history methods to understand policy processes (Lewis, 2008); and, the 'reality
131 check approach' to gain insights into how people experience and engage with policy worlds
132 (Lewis, 2013). The question guide [INSERT LINK TO ONLINE FILE A] for this study was
133 developed, piloted (n=4) and refined. Questions sought to understand the lives of women
134 aged 40-55, with emphases on health. Interviews were conducted in the local Palestinian-
135 Arabic dialect. The question guide helped direct the conversation, but the interviewee led
136 the narrative direction. Conversations began with asking women about their life - where
137 they are from, education, marriage and family, employment, lifestyle - gradually moving on
138 to past and current midlife health concerns, including the menopause. Probing questions
139 focused specifically on health in older age, including questions about their mother's health
140 and experience of the menopause and descriptions of what 'good health' in the midlife
141 entails. Interviews were conducted in pairs, with the lead author guiding and responding to

142 the conversations, and a second interviewer taking detailed verbatim notes. Women were
143 interviewed in a location of their choice.

144 We used a purposive sampling approach to maximise heterogeneity for region of residence
145 (north, south and central WB), place of residence (rural, urban, camp) and socio-economic
146 indicators (education, employment, marital status). We were unable to interview women
147 from East Jerusalem due to restrictions denying access to WB researchers at the time of the
148 research, reflecting broader challenges of conducting research in oPt (Khatib et al., 2017).

149 Women were identified and recruited through personal and professional contacts, with
150 snowballing from earlier interviewees. This sampling approach brings all of the limitations
151 inherent in a non-probability sample, including the risk of a biased sample. To minimise this
152 we used an initial set of respondents that was as diverse as possible. There were no refusals
153 to participate.

154 Ethical approval for this research was sought and obtained from Birzeit University and
155 London School of Economics. Participants were presented with oral and written informed
156 consent and confidentiality statements in Arabic, and indicated whether or not they agreed
157 to participate in the study and to audio recording [INSERT LINK TO ONLINE FILE B]. All participants
158 agreed to oral interviews and detailed note-taking; eight respondents refused recording.
159 Informed consent and recording preferences were documented and signed by the
160 researchers prior to beginning each interview. Direct and indirect identifiers are removed
161 from quotes presented below.

162 For recorded interviews, verbatim Arabic transcripts were produced. After each interview,
163 researchers documented observations of emotion, body language and setting descriptions.

164 These notes were used to produce an analytical memo of the key emerging themes to draw
165 attention to data derived from each narrative, as well as an ongoing comparative analysis
166 building sequentially on earlier interviews. For unrecorded interviews, the detailed second
167 interviewer notes were used to produce equivalent memos. Transcripts were read and re-
168 read for emerging themes and sub-themes and key elements were translated. Words and
169 phrases in Arabic without direct equivalency in English have been transliterated into several
170 words to capture their essence. Both transcripts and analytical documents were read and
171 regular contribution was made by team members to highlight key issues, and to ensure
172 reflexivity across the team. Data presented below are drawn from a range of interviews to
173 maximise for heterogeneity. Our qualitative interview guide did not set out to establish
174 women's socio-economic status. We indicate a woman's socio-economic status on the basis
175 of information she provided (eg: occupation, education) supplemented by contextual
176 observations made by the interviewers.

177

178 **Results**

179 We first describe interviewees' general understandings of (ill-)health, and then health in the
180 midlife, with a particular focus on the menopause. Finally, we present women's approaches
181 to maintaining health and dealing with ill-health in the midlife. A key theme that cross-cuts
182 our analyses is women's biosocial understandings of (ill-)health incorporating an array of
183 biomedical and social (cultural, religious, spiritual, political) explanations. The implications
184 of these understandings for healthcare behaviours – both preventive and curative – is
185 analysed in the final sub-section.

186 Women's understandings of (ill-)health

187 Women's understandings of health combine indigenous and biomedical knowledge, and
188 include psychological health (*raha nafsiyah* and *hadat al-bal*), ease of movement, physical
189 appearance and complexion. *Raha nafsiyah* can most closely be translated to
190 'psychologically relaxed'; *Hadat el bal* can be most closely translated to 'calmness of the
191 mind' or 'peace of mind'. Women note that ill-health can be seen in the face, using the
192 phrase '*her face would look yellow*'.

193 Three idioms important to understandings of good health include *hamm*, *za'al*, and *nakad*.
194 They have no direct equivalency in English. *Hamm* is a combination of worry, disquiet,
195 upset, uneasy, grief, anxiety, sorrow, and affliction. *Za'al* is a combination of feelings
196 including anger, distress, frustration, grief, incapacitation, worry, and sorrow. *Nakad* is a
197 combination of distemper, bitterness, disturbing, troubling and sombreness. These idioms
198 of distress which are often linked to ill-health were used by women irrespective of
199 background:

200 *Health has a hereditary factor, or it is related to za'al. Sometimes someone diabetic has*
201 *no family history of diabetes, but za'al caused the diabetes.* [49 years, married, 10 births,
202 South WB, rural]

203 *Hamm* is said to be embodied, and visible in a woman's appearance. One woman cited a
204 proverb '*akbar samm el hamm*', rhyming in Arabic, meaning that *hamm* is the biggest of
205 poisons. Health issues were often connected to life events, such as widowhood, economic
206 hardship or political violence. These events were considered to cause health deterioration,

207 both physical and mental. Some women made connections to the past, referring to times of
208 heightened political tension and violence, such as during the two Palestinian uprisings, or
209 *intifada*. For other women, depending on residence and the degree to which they had been
210 exposed to political violence, these were very much matters of the present. Area C refers to
211 an area, accounting for more than 60 per cent of the WB, where there is almost exclusive
212 control over law enforcement, planning and construction by Israel with significant
213 consequences for the population (eg: uncertainty and threats of demolition orders, aid
214 dependency, exposure to violence and disrupted livelihoods) (UNOCHA, 2017; UNOHCHR,
215 2016). One participant living in Area C reported:

216 *The problems with the military, Israel, affects psychological health. When you are
217 afraid, you get shaken up, depressed from your life... The children are frightened, and
218 the mothers feel helpless and unable to do anything.* [46 years, no formal schooling,
219 housewife, married, 6 births]

220 Women's experiences of periods of heightened violence informed contemporary fears and
221 anxieties. For example, a woman living in a WB area that is now subject to fewer Israeli
222 military incursions, noted:

223 *This kind of anxiety is one that I constantly think about ... I do not cross any
224 checkpoints, because I do not go far. That experience [Second Intifada] really
225 impacted me, so I cannot imagine the people that cross checkpoints everyday, and
226 suffer on a regular basis, the humiliation...If I were one of those people, I would look
227 20 years older... You either keep in the anger and suppress it, or you want to scream.*

228 *And either way, you are impacting your health negatively.* [50 years, married,
229 employed, 7 births, Master's level education, urban]

230 Health in midlife

231 The midlife was an important phase for women, both in its own right and representing a
232 transition from younger adulthood to older age. The women we interviewed were acutely
233 aware of being in their midlife; but this extended to much more than simply the
234 menopause. Many women articulated a positive view about midlife and ageing as a natural
235 process, not meriting particular significance:

236 *Any person is like the seed of the plant, it slowly develops, reaches a peak with
237 blossoming and then slowly starts to deteriorate. Humans are also like this and must
238 accept this is a matter of life.* [47 years, married housewife, primary education, 4 births,
239 rural]

240

241 Women referred to menopause by saying that the menstrual cycle has 'been cut from her'
242 or that 'el-kabar 'abar,' which rhymes in Arabic [lit. ageing has entered]. A range of
243 expressions were suggested by women, including: 'age of despair' (*sin el yaas*), 'age of hope'
244 (*sin al amal*), 'age of the 40s,' 'age of power,' 'age of life' and 'age of security' (*sin al
245 amman*). Reflecting on the various phrases, one woman noted:

246 *It's not despair, hope, safety or anything, it is just a phase like any other phase in life
247 such as adolescence, or adulthood and it has its own issues and concerns. I don't like to
248 live through it, but I deal with it and I don't think about it as a negative thing—this is my*

249 *age and this is the phase that I am living with.* [50 years, married housewife, secondary
250 education, 6 births, urban]

251 Another woman suggested that this lifestage should be called the 'age of security,' because:

252 *Practically speaking, women during this time do not get pregnant and do not have young
253 children, so there is peace of mind and relaxation in that sense. She can live her life for
254 herself, before that, her life is not hers. It is for her family, her children and her husband.*

255 [42 years, married, working, college diploma, 3 births, Central WB, rural]

256 Age of despair was often ridiculed, although there were generational differences:

257 *I heard women say the 'age of despair.' Our generation says the 'age of despair' but
258 those before us just used to say that "after 50, it [her period] split from her".* [53 years,
259 married, previously employed, secondary education and vocational training, 3 births,
260 South WB, urban]

261 *We just say it's the period of your menses coming to an end. I hear some women saying
262 it is 'the age of despair' but not our mothers. It is this [younger] generation that refers to
263 it in that way.* [49 years, married, employed, secondary education, 10 births, South WB,
264 rural]

265 Another woman laughed when the researcher mentioned the 'age of despair', noting that

266 *it is the age of 40s, not the 'age of despair'* [47 years, married, not working, rural,
267 secondary education, 4 births]

268 One woman wondered why it would be associated with negative feelings:

269 *I don't know why it's called 'age of despair,' the end of menses does not mean that life is*
270 *over [48 years, married housewife, secondary education, 4 births, Central WB, rural]*

271 One woman laughing noted:

272 *How can it be called the 'age of despair' when this is the age of power and control? The*
273 *woman becomes a mother-in-law, and a grandmother. She is the head of the house! [41*
274 *years, married, employed, post-secondary education, 5 births, South WB, urban]*

275 Use of the term *age of despair* in common parlance may be linked to its established use
276 among – overwhelmingly male – doctors (UN, 2013).

277 Our findings confirm studies reporting that Arab women in Qatar (Murphy et al., 2013),
278 Jordan (Mahadeen et al., 2008) and Bahrain (Jassim & Al-Shboul, 2009) were critical of the
279 term *age of despair*. A study of Palestinian-Arab women in Israel found that women aged
280 45-55 years reported an increase in perceived power in midlife compared to younger
281 women (Friedman & Pines, 1992). In only one study (Lebanon) did some women fear the
282 menopause as a “hopeless age” (Azar et al., 2016 p.12). In our study, women’s general
283 rejection of the phrase could be interpreted as micro-resistance to an externally (male,
284 medical) conceptualised construction of a female lifecourse phase. The negative biomedical
285 aspects of menopause were rather less important than the positive socio-cultural accrual of
286 power through age. Women internalised this differently according to marital and
287 motherhood status. One unmarried woman explained:

288 *It is really the age of despair, you feel physically exhausted and you feel you cannot*
289 *continue. But for me, what made me despair was that I no longer have a future with the*

290 *possibility of marriage and children.* [50 years, never married, employed, secondary
291 education, 0 births, North WB, rural]

292 For women who had not been mothers the age of despair indicated their permanently lost
293 chance of having children. Marriage and childbearing in Palestinian society are extremely
294 important for men and women. Married women talk about unmarried women as being
295 more sensitive about the menopause:

296 *A woman continues having some faith and hope that she may get married and bear
297 children, but when her period ends, that's it. It would be a sad time.* [50 years, married,
298 working, Master's degree, 7 births, Central WB, urban]

299 Some married women perceive unmarried women's midlife health to be superior because
300 there were no pressures from childbearing or motherhood. However, these views were
301 dependent upon the unmarried woman's level of economic (in)dependence; unmarried
302 women who are economically independent have access to different forms of social
303 protection than poorer married women.

304 Women's sources of knowledge on midlife and menopause are almost invariably linked to
305 older women's experiences:

306 *You learn from the women. They would sit and talk about how their periods start
307 becoming irregular, or discontinue for three to four months, or six and then eventually
308 cuts off. The knowledge travels from the women and we also read about it.* [49 years,
309 married, employed, secondary education, 10 births, South WB, rural]

310 Sources of information also included conversations with other women and health-related
311 stories in magazines, television, or educational sources, especially for those with higher
312 levels of education:

313 *I used to know a little from my mother and what I would overhear from the women at
314 gatherings. The women used to sit together and talk about how it [menstruation] split
315 from them at so and so age. But I learned about it more depth through my studies. [48
316 years, never-married, college diploma, employed, 0 births, South WB, urban]*

317 Women assessed the processes of ageing in the midlife by reference not only to changes in
318 menstruation, but also to physical appearance (body weight and size, facial complexion) and
319 their ability to do housework.

320 *I was able to clean the entire house in a couple of hours, all in the same day. Now, I
321 can't. You don't have the energy like before. I break down the work, and finish it in
322 two days, and I get tired. Age plays a big role...you just aren't the same anymore. [43
323 years, widow, employed, degree, 4 births, Central WB, urban]*

324 The women we interviewed were clear that processes of ageing had started. However,
325 complaint was noticeable by its absence from women's accounts, even among women with
326 reported chronic conditions. While quantitative studies which explicitly ask about
327 symptoms of menopause may find that, for example Moroccan, women complained mostly
328 about hot flashes and fatigue (Obermeyer et al., 2002), in our study complaint was absent
329 despite probing questions specifically on the menopause. Women acknowledged
330 menopausal symptoms but referred to them as natural ageing phenomena.

331

332 Managing midlife health

333 Midlife women in our study deployed a wide range of strategies – preventive pluralism - to
334 prevent ill-health and avoid the use of formal care, including: physical activity; good diet;
335 avoidance of *hamm*; and, engagement with faith, spirituality and *tawakul* (reliance on God
336 whilst also taking personal responsibility). Women emphasised the importance of physical
337 movement, citing a rhyming Arabic proverb, *el-harakeh barakeh* (movement is a blessing):

338 *I do not like sitting, because sitting around and doing nothing brings disease and death.*

339 *The body needs to move, your movement is your blessing. And it is central to life.* [55
340 years, never-married, college diploma, employed, 0 births, South WB, Camp]

341 How women achieve physical activity depended on individual circumstances; for wealthier
342 urban women, gym membership was important. For many women – irrespective of their
343 circumstances - walking with friends in the evening was important. In rural areas, women
344 talked about *yisrah*, derived from *sareh* which means to escape mentally or to dream and
345 'space out'; the physical freedom of walking is integral to, and associated with, mental
346 freedom. Walking was presented as providing relief for both body and soul, and a link to
347 past generations when women did more agricultural work.

348 Consuming healthy (*Baladi*, lit. 'from the country') food was also presented as connecting
349 women across generations and incorporated into women's health management. *Baladi*
350 refers to locally-grown, rain-fed (not irrigated), native and chemical-free food:

351 *Fruits and vegetables used to be better before, there were no chemicals. They were*
352 *baladi ... people would eat natural fruits and vegetables and never have to deal with a*
353 *doctor.* [54 years, married, unemployed, primary education, 6 births, Camp]

354 Food consumption patterns have changed since the 1980s, with military occupation
355 impacting on the population; incorporation of the Palestinian labour force into the Israeli
356 economy, and the opening of oPt to Israeli manufactured products (Giacaman, 1984). Land
357 confiscation and control of water sources led to the neglect of agricultural land, and food
358 consumption shifted towards more processed foods. Women contrasted the food available
359 in the markets for their mother's generation and their own, linked to health. In rural areas
360 some families still grow produce but there is greater reliance on purchased food. In urban
361 contexts, women reported feeling constrained in their inability to buy *baladi* food, and
362 compensated for this by avoiding processed foods.

363 Women emphasised the need to maintain good psychological health, most frequently
364 expressed as keeping away from *hamm*. Women noted unavoidable stress, anxiety, fear
365 and uncertainty about the future, linked to the political context. Children and grandchildren
366 played a central role in women's descriptions of resources to reduce mental ill-health linked
367 to *hamm*.

368 *a main determinant of a woman's health is her children, the grandchildren...this really*
369 *improves a woman's health.* [50 years, married, employed, Master's degree, 7 births,
370 Central WB, urban]

371 Women talked about *istislam* (giving in) and its relationship with health; to maintain
372 physical and mental health, one should not give in and instead build internal resistance:

373 *I was torn apart when my husband died, I got sick, drained... I needed to get up on my*
374 *feet, you are forced to get up on your feet regardless of the situation for your*
375 *children...you need to stand strong, you cannot give in.* [43 years, widow, employed,
376 university degree, 4 births, urban]

377 Sources of good mental health extended beyond the family; women described a strong
378 sense of collective in coping with difficulties. A commonly repeated saying '*al mot ma' al*
379 *jama'a rahme*,' (death with the collective is a blessing) among women underlined this need
380 for collective strength.

381 The importance of faith and *tawakul* for health were essential for understanding and
382 managing health. This does not signify a fatalist attitude however, as women are vocal
383 about having to *do something* to maintain health:

384 *Health is from God, and illness is from God. One must take precautions and seek*
385 *treatment when needed. I diet and I take my precautions. It's true that it is all from*
386 *God at the end, but you still have to stay away from what is harmful to you.* [54
387 years, married, unemployed, primary education, 6 births, Camp]

388 Women identified faith and engagement with religious texts as providing strength.

389 Women's pluralistic approaches to health maintenance were mirrored in multiple strategies
390 – including biomedical and traditional self-care and formal healthcare – deployed to manage
391 ill-health. In most cases, irrespective of background, women start with traditional practices

392 and remedies and if deemed necessary (and accessible), resort to formal healthcare. This
393 medical pluralism has been noted by other evidence from midlife and older women in oPt
394 (Majaj et al., 2013) and elsewhere in the region (Gerber et al., 2014). Such practices in oPt
395 are based on classical Arabic medicine – *al-tib al-Arabi* - including herbal and dietary
396 remedies along with physical and spiritual forms of healing. Many remedies contain
397 physiologically active compounds with recognised therapeutic value (Daoud, 2008).

398 Women commonly reported an incrementalist strategy towards curative care, beginning
399 with self-care using a mix of biomedical (eg: drugs) and traditional (eg: herbs) medicine, and
400 resorting to formal services only when they felt unable to manage with self-care. One
401 relatively well-off urban woman emphasised that “*one must be their own doctor*”. A much
402 less wealthy camp resident similarly noted:

403 *I treat myself at home—if I have a headache, I take acomol [paracetamol], and if my
404 stomach hurts, then I take maramiya (sage)...Mostly, I only go to the doctor for diabetes
405 treatment. Herbal remedies, chamomile, sage, mint...the last thing I think about is taking
406 medicine.* [54 years, married, unemployed, primary education, 6 births, Camp]

407 Most women subscribed to an attitude of approaching doctors only when absolutely
408 necessary. This may reflect a pragmatic response to the generally poor availability of
409 healthcare services in oPt. However, we infer it might also indicate older women’s feelings
410 of exclusion from healthcare provision, or concerns about the service quality. Women
411 reported a general sense of mistrust and perceived a lack of expertise among formal
412 healthcare providers:

413 *doctors' diagnoses don't always work...I benefit from myself, I don't need anyone to*
414 *tell me what to do.* [49 years, married, housewife, primary education, 9 births,
415 Central WB, rural]

416 Another woman noted that she only goes to the doctor for something serious:

417 *going to the doctor means wasting a lot of time doing lots of tests, and then trying*
418 *different medications, with different doctors giving different diagnoses ...I felt like*
419 *they test things on you.* [46 years, married, employed, secondary education, 5
420 births, urban]

421 For issues related to mental health, particularly in rural areas, women use spiritual and
422 faith-based healing. Mental ill-health and associated symptoms are perceived as related to
423 evil spirits, *sihr* (witchcraft) and '*ain al-hassoud* (the evil eye). Mental ill-health would rarely
424 be addressed using formal healthcare:

425 *it is stigmatized and they don't usually go to the doctor, but if they do, they do in*
426 *secret. Sometimes, they really just need someone to talk to, but doctors just want to*
427 *give pills.* [42 years, married, employed, college diploma, 3 births, rural]

428 There is one important sub-group of women - midlife women who were unmarried and/or
429 childless – that emerged as being excluded from healthcare services. Unmarried childless
430 women were perceived, both by themselves and by married women, as being less likely to
431 use health services in general. In part this stems from the emphasis of health services on
432 reproduction in oPt. Women not seeking reproduction-related care are less likely to
433 interact with the health system over their lifetime.

434 *For unmarried women, it is probably more difficult to discuss these issues and attend to*
435 *doctors. For a married woman, it's more acceptable and she probably has children...She's*
436 *experienced and has gone through the phases society expects of her. But for an*
437 *unmarried woman, it is probably very difficult to talk about these things, since she did*
438 *not experience some of the phases, and she is still a bint [virgin; young girl]...She has not*
439 *gone through all of the childbearing phases, and only hears about them, so I would*
440 *imagine that unmarried women would not go to the doctor. [50 years, married,*
441 *employed, Master's degree, 7 births, Central WB, urban]*

442 These women may reach midlife with little or no interaction with the health system since
443 childhood. Not only does this reinforce the perception that services are focused on
444 reproduction, but it also disempowers women from seeking healthcare because they lack
445 familiarity with the health system.

446 Our evidence shows how women pursue health-maintaining or health-seeking behaviours
447 within and across multiple realms: in/formal services; biomedical/folk medicine knowledge
448 and use; religious and secular constructions of health; and care of the self (including
449 foodstuffs). The midlife women in our study used multiple strategies, sequentially or
450 simultaneously. By midlife many women had accrued multiple sets of resources upon which
451 to draw. Such pluralism has been documented in diverse contexts and is particularly
452 relevant in resource-constrained contexts with complex health systems (Ahmed et al., 2013;
453 Pescosolido & Kronenfeld, 1995; Scott et al., 2014; Tribe, 2007).

454

455 **DISCUSSION**

456 Our research gives voice to Palestinian women's experiences and management of health in
457 their midlife (after Wadsworth 2000). Globally, there is limited evidence on this beyond a
458 narrow – frequently biomedical – focus on the menopause. The broader (physical, social,
459 cultural, political) dimensions of women's health in the midlife are poorly understood,
460 particularly in low and middle-income countries. Using the midlife as a lifestage lens
461 through which to understand women's health provides unique insights. Women have
462 assembled five decades' of experiences, and are likely to have at least two more decades of
463 life. Eliciting women's voices during the midlife allows us not only to situate their accounts,
464 but also to understand how (and if) women look forward – with apprehension, hope,
465 uncertainty – to their future health as they age.

466 The women we interviewed were born 1960-1975; and whilst gendered norms are changing
467 in oPt, women's narratives reflected continued emphases on marriage and motherhood
468 (Halabi, 2007). Exposure to prolonged political violence adds an important contextual layer
469 to women's understandings of their health. Women mentioned the conflict as shaping their
470 health, both directly and indirectly. The influences tended to relate to contemporary issues
471 of access, specifically mobility (Israeli army checkpoint and blockades) restrictions combined
472 with feelings of fear, anxiety, stress and humiliation, rooted in experience. Many women
473 did not, however, refer explicitly to the political context in their life histories; this absence
474 might appear surprising. However, it is exactly that pervasiveness – the normalcy of the
475 political context on peoples' everyday lives – that means that women sometimes felt it too
476 obvious to mention, "normalising the abnormal" (Nguyen-Gillham et al., 2008 p.291).

477 Similar lacunae were identified in qualitative work among rural Palestinian women, which
478 concluded that women “allowed it [conflict] to appear in between the lines” of their
479 accounts rather than mentioning it explicitly (Majaj et al., 2013 p.7). We suggest that
480 overlapping socio-cultural norms of not giving in (*yitsalim*) and gendered expectations of not
481 usually publically complaining are important to understand the silences around health,
482 including the menopause. Many of the women in our study had experienced the symptoms
483 of menopause; but even in response to focused and probing questions, described it matter-
484 of-factly. Silences around complaint may mirror the cultures of silence identified elsewhere
485 in health policy and service provision for older women (Khattab, 1992; Senanayake, 2000).
486 But there are important aspects of women’s lives – notably marriage and fertility – that
487 might also explain these silences. Most women who were mothers presented a relatively
488 positive view of their midlife. Social power, particularly within the family, was emphasised
489 as something that changed over a woman’s lifetime. When childbearing and childrearing
490 was finished, many women reported a phase of increased social power. A woman’s relative
491 social power in a household may alter when she: has an adult son; is no longer co-resident
492 with her mother-in-law; or becomes a grandmother or mother-in-law. Evidence from a
493 range of settings suggests that increases in social power with age are not independent of
494 socio-economic status; women of higher socio-economic status tend to have more
495 opportunities to take advantage of age-related social power (Friedman et al., 1992; Mitchell
496 & Helson, 1990; Todd et al., 1990). Research among middle class Palestinian-Arab women in
497 Israel showed substantial differences in social power between young women compared to
498 middle-aged and older women, with much smaller differences in power between middle-
499 aged and older women (Friedman & Pines, 1992). We found that mothers in particular felt

500 their social power increased in midlife, attributable to changing familial relationships and
501 status. Even for never-married childless women, perceived by their married counterparts to
502 be less fortunate, perceptions of despair were attenuated by independence (economic,
503 employment) for some. The age of despair appears to be something that some women do
504 not recognise as such; it is a phrase that has been shown to be used by (mainly) male
505 medical professionals (UN, 2013), which, given the power and prestige afforded to doctors,
506 might have influenced the term's societal use, including among women. The age of despair
507 may be internalised to a greater extent by never-married childless women; the absence of a
508 social security system in the oPt can mean destitution in older age. Unless a woman is highly
509 educated and has worked and saved money she will be reliant on her parents and her
510 brother(s) for her older age care.

511 The reproductive focus of formal healthcare provision meant that it was accessed only as a
512 last resort. Such "socially excluded spaces" of healthcare have been identified in other
513 settings (Hossen & Westhues, 2010 p.1192). In the oPt this social exclusion from healthcare
514 was magnified for nulliparous women; never having had a pregnancy or birth, these women
515 had little opportunity for engaging with the health system.

516 The health pluralism evidenced by the women in our study might also be considered as an
517 individual-level, but socially contextualised, form of bricolage. The term bricolage is used
518 here to denote an "emphasis upon making do, restricted resources, innovation, imagination
519 and necessity" (Phillimore et al., 2016 p.3), with women acting as *bricoleuses* (fem., pl.) to
520 manage their health in the midlife. Bricolage is more than simply assembling whatever
521 resources are to hand; it also implies "reordering, subversion and transformation"

522 (Phillimore et al., 2016 p.3). Our evidence suggests that bricolage is a useful way of
523 understanding women's health maintaining and seeking behaviours in the complex
524 environment of the oPt. Whilst bricolage is often constructed as a response to a lack of
525 resources, the women in our study draw on multiple resources (personal, familial, religious,
526 spiritual, financial, physical, time) to navigate their midlife health. Socio-economic status
527 was salient for the kinds of resources that women could access: wealthier urban women
528 with disposable income might go to the gym; women with more developed social networks
529 would use these to seek out health information and advice. Our finding that women using
530 bricolage is not necessarily related to a lack of resources, resonates with a recent study of
531 women using complementary and alternative medicine (CAM) in Qatar who were found to
532 have higher education than women who did not (Gerber et al., 2014). Links between health
533 and *baladi* food is one component of the bricolage that Palestinian women practised.
534 Changes in food systems affect people's health in most societies, but our evidence suggests
535 a micro-politics in which women operate small local sites of resistance to these wider
536 changes as part of strategies for managing their own health. Trying to eat *baladi* food could
537 be interpreted as one way of not giving in (*yistaslim*) by building resistance from within
538 through food. In many women's accounts, the juxtaposition of stories of older generations
539 having health that was perceived as better because of greater access to *baladi* food, was
540 striking.

541 Our qualitative evidence highlights the importance of the midlife for understanding
542 women's health maintaining and care-seeking behaviours as they age. In the oPt context, as
543 elsewhere, the midlife is more than just a transition from younger adulthood to older age

544 primarily defined by illnesses. Supporting arguments to reduce the over-medicalization of a
545 natural phase of life (Erol, 2009, 2011), the nuances and complexities elicited in women's
546 narratives attest to the need for broader health policy engagement with women,
547 incorporating their voices and lived experiences into health systems and policies in ways
548 which accommodate the notion of midlife as a social and biological process.

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