The Bowen Family Theory and Its Uses

SCIENCE



C. Margaret Hall

Science

C. Margaret Hall

e-Book 2016 International Psychotherapy Institute

From The Bowen Family Theory and Its Uses by C. Margaret Hall

All Rights Reserved

Created in the United States of America

Copyright © 2013 C. Margaret Hall

Table of Contents

Scientific Reality

Scientific Process

Society and Science

Conclusion

REFERENCES

SCIENCE

Throughout the construction of his theory, Bowen made explicit use of conceptual models used in biology, such as symbiosis. Bowen's efforts have consistently striven toward the disciplines and knowledge in natural sciences such as biology, although his resulting theory cannot yet be described as rigorously scientific. Bowen goes beyond recording impressions to observe and accumulate facts. However, in spite of these systematic measures, the Bowen theory is not made up of a series of equations or formulas about highly predictable relationships between clearly defined variables. Many of Bowen's hypotheses remain relatively unsubstantiated and cannot produce the definitively accurate formulas or equations characteristic of more developed sciences.

There are some important similarities between the Bowen theory and science. In general, scientific theory may be described as a shorthand representation of patterns of phenomena that occur repeatedly and are relatively predictable. The Bowen theory consists of concepts that describe repeated and predictable patterns of behavior and that are fairly consistent with each other. Each concept has distinctive qualities but is at the same time fairly congruent with physical and natural sciences, especially with biology. For example, differentiation can be used to describe cellular processes, as well as qualities of human relationships.

An example of a fairly predictable pattern of behavior in a family is that physical symptoms of dysfunction run a more rapid and irreversible course in a tight emotional system than in a loose emotional system. Also, under most circumstances, life expectancy appears longer in a relatively calm emotional system than in an intense emotional system.

Although much of the Bowen theory may be perceived as abstract, the concepts have been developed from family observations. Attempts to concretize these abstractions may "fix" or "freeze" the theory and inhibit its primary function of summarizing empirical reality. Concretizing the abstractions of any theory makes its intrinsic limitations disproportionately narrow and rigid.

Perhaps the most useful characteristic of a theory is its potential for generating questions that can be asked in any given research situation. A scientist cannot observe behavior objectively from a posture of "knowing what is wrong." Under optimal conditions, a researcher works with a hypothesis that can be reformulated in response to observed facts rather than in reaction to opinion. This exchange between thought and observation

ensures a focus on working ideas rather than on preformulated answers. A theory generated by observation and experiment becomes part of a thinking system. By contrast, conceptualization that proceeds on an intuitive basis becomes part of a feeling system. The Bowen theory is oriented toward a goal of objectivity in observation, thinking, and research.

Science suggests a frame of reference and a series of principles applicable to the study of family behavior. A scientific perspective may indicate the extent to which family interaction may be viewed as orderly behavior. The Bowen theory delineates facts of functioning in human relationship systems taking into account some of the circumstances of particular events. Bowen's systems thinking is an effort to avoid a preoccupation with why something happens. The Bowen theory focuses on what people do and largely discounts verbal explanation of why they do it. In contrast, cause-effect thinking can be viewed as an emotional response to empirical reality. Cause-effect thinking suggests a much narrower theoretical base than the intrinsic interrelatedness of systems concepts.

Family Systems

Several theories of human behavior have been based on scientific models in attempts to conceptualize psychic and emotional functioning with some degree of objectivity. Although the medical sciences have tried to apply

neurophysiology to the study of emotional functions, a solid bridge between the two fields does not exist. Most theories about emotional illness have been developed in isolation from other sciences. Bowen's use of the family systems concept is an attempt to relate human emotional functioning to the natural and physical sciences. Through the use of this frame of reference, the assumptions of the Bowen theory are generally broader than those of more conventional theories of human behavior.

Some contrasts can be drawn between Bowen's work and that of traditional scientists. For example, the scope of Bowen's perspective is comprehensive rather than selectively analytical. The assumptions underlying Bowen's conceptualizations suggest a more inclusive, long-range relatedness than many specialized scientific inquiries.

A preliminary phase in the formulation of the Bowen theory was the structuring of hard-to-define observations into facts of functioning. This effort was an attempt to find some form and consistency in the shifting, subjective world of human experience. Bowen's focus on facts of functioning eventually provided a formula for the initial stages of the development of his emotional systems theory. An example of a delineation of a functional fact is the following proposition: It is a fact that people dream, think, feel, talk, love, or hate, but what people dream, think, feel, say, love, or hate is not a fact. The content of people's dreams, thoughts, and feelings is largely determined by particular affective states that occur in response to a variety of stimuli. The affective States are manifested in many ways and in varying degrees of intensity. Experiences are behavioral consequences of given emotional systems. Functional definitions of these kinds of feeling states may be viewed as relationship facts. Although it is difficult to give an accurate functional definition of love, it is a fact that statements to another important person about the presence or absence of love in self or in the other predictably result in an emotional reaction in the relationship.

The Bowen theory developed in response to the dilemma created when conventional medical and psychiatric practices excluded family members, other than a patient's parents, from treatment. Conventional theory, which is based on the study of individuals, postulates that illness in a patient developed in relation to the parents or to other close family members. In contrast to this rather narrowly defined frame of reference, the Bowen theory views each person as an occupant of a position in an extended family emotional field or network. This network includes each parent's extended families of origin. Instead of requiring diagnosis and treatment directed only toward patient and parents, the Bowen theory considers a multitude of relationships in several generations of the same family. A person is coached on how to interact more maturely with many family members, with the goal of becoming a more responsible self.

Bowen's systems concepts describe family behavior rather than explain it in terms of cause and effect. without using a cause-effect model, the Bowen theory defines a chain of events. In characterizing relationships between physical symptoms of dysfunction and a family emotional field, emotional factors are perceived as "having something to do with" the symptoms rather specifically causing them.

People tend to be so deeply entrenched in cause-effect thinking that the use of these concepts becomes fixed. Cause-effect thinking appears particularly rigid where conceptualizations that "explain" social relations are examined. In the fields of medicine and psychiatry, the cause-effect medical model has remained the cornerstone of most practice. The Bowen theory is considered conceptually and therapeutically out of step with medicine and conventional psychiatry in spite of its working effectiveness in treating emotional problems.

The ability to think or theorize in terms of family systems appears inversely correlated with the degree to which one is emotionally involved in one's family. The ability to observe and understand a family system depends on the level of emotional tension a therapist or researcher experiences. A molecular scientist may move beyond cause-effect thinking in his specialty area but will generally lose objectivity and revert to cause-effect thinking when participating in an emotional system. A family therapist who uses an emotional systems perspective may also be able to remain objective and to refrain from blaming others as long as emotional tension in the clinical setting is within comfortable limits. The therapist automatically reverts to causeeffect thinking in conditions of high tension.

In general, people think in terms of cause and effect most of the time in calm periods and all of the time in tense periods. In its assignment of specific causality to human problems, such thinking is frequently inaccurate, unrealistic, irrational, and overly righteous. In this respect, some contemporary scientists may be viewed as imitating their "expert" ancestors, although they may pursue different kinds of evil influences, eliminate different kinds of witches and dragons, and build different kinds of temples to benevolent spirits (Bowen 1973).

Although there are several critical differences and discrepancies between a systems frame of reference and what is generally considered to be the realm of science, there are some important similarities. Systems thinking tends to be a more general and a more comprehensive means of description and conceptualization than is usually found in science. Scientific analysis does not adequately account for the interdependency implicit in systems thinking. However, prediction remains a primary goal for both systems thinking and science, and the thrust of both kinds of inquiry is similar. When a family is selected as a unit of study in scientific research, boundaries are defined in terms of membership and nonmembership. Although ascribed membership (being born or adopted into a family) is generally a more potent emotional relatedness than achieved membership (being married into a family), both kinds of membership are significant within the complexities of overlapping and interdependent relationships.

A family may be regarded as a large system when viewed from a multigenerational perspective, even though family membership may be more restricted than membership in social or work systems. Examining several generations in the same family increases objectivity, as this focus broadens the basis for comparing different processes and behavior. This broad definition of family is relatively alien to conventional definitions of family, although research based exclusively on nuclear families is necessarily fragmented and unrepresentative of the entire emotional field of a family. Scientific inquiry may be more productive if it is focused on the extended parts of a family system.

Scientific Reality

Science is a way of perceiving and describing phenomena. Science is widely thought of as "superior" knowledge in that it is derived from relatively objective observation and records of changes in phenomena. The ultimate test of a scientific proposition is generally considered the verifiability and accuracy of its predictions (Cotgrove 1967).

Through observations and experiments based on a perceived underlying order of varied physical and chemical phenomena, scientists have articulated discovered regularities as compact scientific laws. Laws that have been combined and related to each other become theories, which are regarded as a reliable basis for further calculation and prediction. A scientific theory is essentially a system of information-laden descriptions of alreadyknown facts and a system of general explanations. In physics, for example, the theory of relativity and the quantum theory are inclusive theories with which most laws of physics can be explained. Since these theories explain many laws, they can also explain a multitude of different phenomena. An important objective of science is the construction of such comprehensive theories (Zetterberg 1965). Science defines the interdependence of phenomena. In families, this focus can be on the complex network of emotional relationships in several generations (Kerlinger 1964).

Scientific knowledge tends to emphasize shared uniformities and regularities in phenomena. The accepted reference point of "natural law" within physical sciences suggests that there are certain relatively fixed or settled aspects of human behavior. In contrast, religion and the humanities focus on unique, unpredictable, and unexpected aspects of human behavior.

The supernatural and miraculous are thought to be manifested infrequently rather than continuously or periodically. They are perceived to break through natural laws by interrupting a sequence of predictable events (Darwin 1896). As a result of some of these distinctive differences, science is frequently considered antireligious or irreligious.

Science and evolutionary frames of reference juxtapose human beings and animals with the implication that there are ways to know more about human beings through studying animals. Although this kind of thinking is much criticized, a comparison of human beings and animals implies no more of a lowering of human dignity than does a recognition of the origin of the species. The essence of creative organic evolution may be that it produces completely new and higher characters that are in no way indicated or even implicit in the preceding state of evolution where they originated (Lorenz 1954).

One of the most significant revolutions in the natural sciences during the last thirty years took place in our understanding of animal behavior and human links to the animal world. Primatology and sociobiology are two of the research endeavors that point out the relatedness of human and animal behavior. Until this time, science's unwillingness to reappraise the evolutionary basis of human society appears to have done much to maintain the traditional religious doctrine of human uniqueness, which upholds the concept of human separateness and distinctiveness from other animals.

From an historical perspective, science is a relatively new kind of knowledge. The view that human relations are not yet generally considered proper subjects for serious scientific study could perhaps be substantiated by public opinion measures. Resistance to the application of scientific methods to human behavior is in some respects the result of tradition. Contemporary conventional social theory and social thought tend to regard social problems as essentially legalistic or moralistic. These "literary" perspectives, which are products of literary traditions, are deeply entrenched in the emotional and aesthetic feelings of people and are difficult to change. Although vested interests in society's status quo generally oppose scientific "progress" in these areas, scientific findings appear to carry with them certain compulsions for acceptance. As scientific methods provide increasing numbers of reliable predictions, scientific criteria become increasingly widely accepted as decisive (Lundberg 1947).

Scientific Process

Scientific process is the objective study and prediction of relations among varied phenomena. This enterprise has a unique characteristic of selfcorrection. Checks are used to control and verify research findings to attain dependable knowledge. The formulation and application of theories are

means of attaining increased objectivity (Kerlinger 1964).

Owing to the many difficulties inherent in empirical measurement, a scientist often has to accept an explanation "in principle" (Bertalanffy 1968). Scientific concepts characteristic of organized wholes or systems include interaction, sum, mechanization, centralization, competition, and finality (Bertalanffy 1968). Laboratory control in applying these concepts varies considerably among different scientific disciplines. For example, the solar system has never been brought into the laboratory (Lundberg 1947).

Scientific research moves from a phase of definition, during which terminology is formulated, to a phase of proposition and theory construction (Zetterberg 1965). In both stages of development, facts are accumulated and categorized until laws emerge. A distinction that can be made between findings and laws relates to the different degrees of generality and empirical support that findings and laws have. " Lawlike" propositions may be confirmed into systems or theories depending on the strictness of the selected criteria of verification (Zetterberg 1965).

One paradigm of scientific assertion is frequently expressed as "If so..., then so." This model indicates that certain deductions can be drawn from a specific set of circumstances. This criterion of predictability is considered an indispensable component of scientific truth, and it is a cornerstone of the

Bowen theory. In more developed sciences, equations are used to represent rich, substantive concepts and highlight relationships between concepts. Where possible, the overly simplistic and commonly accepted language of causality may be replaced by the formulation of relationships that describe systems (Buckley 1968).

Science is frequently an analytical process that includes isolating variables and tracing their relationship with each other. In this way, some systems and sub systems of interrelated elements can be mapped out (Cotgrove 1967). This process involves abstracting certain aspects of complex phenomena. Although some sub systems of natural phenomena may be isolated and examined with respect to their functions for larger systems, families are very complex and difficult to examine in relation to larger social systems. Bowen focuses on a family as a relatively independent emotional unit.

Modern science tends to move in a direction of ever- increasing specialization. This specialization appears necessary because of the vast amounts of available data and the complexity of techniques and theoretical structures used. Such a development has precipitated a breakdown of science as one integrated realm and a move toward the compartmentalization of different sciences (Demerath 1967). One difference between general systems theory and more traditional sciences is that characteristics of organization such as wholeness, growth, differentiation, hierarchical order, dominance, and control appear in systems theory but are not generally found in sciences such as physics. The many levels of organization constitute a frequently cited unifying principle in a systems perspective (Demerath 1967). The fragmentation of any single science into schools is not uncommon, even in as rigorous a discipline as mathematics. What is striking in behavioral science is how unsympathetic and even hostile to one an other such schools tend to be (Kaplan 1964).

Although fact gathering is necessary in all kinds of research, science does not primarily consist of data collection. Without a hypothesis, a researcher cannot determine which facts are important for substantiation or refutation and which facts are less significant. Effective experiments cannot be made without several preconceived ideas, and the adequate statement of research problems is a critical research activity.

A research problem generally involves the definition of a particular relationship between two or more variables. A hypothesis is a conjectural statement or tentative proposition that begins to specify the nature of this relationship. Optimally, hypotheses incorporate theory or part of a theory into testable or near-testable forms. A hypothesis may be viewed as abridge between theory and empirical inquiry, and it may be one of the most useful tools invented to develop dependable knowledge (Kerlinger 1964).

Human Nature and Scientific Process

Recent developments in the natural sciences suggest that human beings are not unique and that human nature, like a body, may be largely a product of evolution (Ardrey 1966). Although some studies have examined human reflexes or reactive behavior, the observation of spontaneous human behavior was undertaken largely by vitalists or mystics until comparatively recently.

Perception of and participation in scientific activities is limited by inherent personal characteristics. Human perception of relationships between systems in the universe is very much influenced by the system of human nature itself. All living species, particularly human beings, can be viewed as a system. Through striving for some understanding of the inner workings of nature, a scientist is a mechanist or a physicalist in believing that the universe is a unit that can be explained, at least in principle (Lorenz 1971). Most human interests to date have focused on a scientific or systems understanding of the universe outside of self, and not on human relationship systems. Even though a physical technology may be gradually supplanted by a psychological technology, science appears to have relatively conquered the universe while at the same time forgetting or even actively suppressing

investigation into the essential characteristics of human nature (Bertalanffy 1967).

One important influence on the reticence shown in this area of study is that human beings are necessarily instruments of observation in the scientific process. A posture of objectivity is perhaps one of the most difficult achievements toward which a human being can work. With view to this difficulty, there can be an inclination to become overly rigid in conceptualizing research on behavior. A danger associated with the necessity of theoretical orientation for a scientific observer, for example, is the possibility of premature closure of ideas. The use of concepts that demand exact definitions of meaning and terms may serve to inhibit an observer who would not normally operate with such controls (Kaplan 1964).

The Bowen theory is based on the observation that similarities exist in all forms of animal behavior. The concepts reflect some awareness of the fact that scientific knowledge has provided a more conscious view of human life. Human beings perceive the universe in entirely different ways than do animals, even though in many respects people's behavior may not be so different. Human beings alone know that their bodies and behavior have evolved and are still evolving and that existence can be placed into a conceptual framework of space and time. Although people have limited options, they possess purpose and exercise choice to a unique degree.

Although much human behavior may be perceived as emotionally reactive and responsive, only human beings have a conscious and orderly sense of values.

Accumulated knowledge, though perhaps a relatively ineffective "force" compared to emotional reactivity, may be important in evolution. Through knowledge, especially scientific knowledge, people can exert some control over their lives and a degree of influence in their own evolution. However, this power may frequently be potential rather than actual, and possible choices are inevitably bound by strict limits (Simpson 1949). Belief in the human capacity to increase awareness through knowledge replaces a robotlike concept of human nature with a systems concept. A systems concept includes imminent activity as well as outwardly directed reactivity and has the potential to account for the specificity of human nature and human culture as well as similarities with animal behavior (Bertalanffy 1968).

There are many opposing views within science. These do not appear to reflect irreducible differences between physical and biological laws as much as the complexity of life processes. One way to overcome some of these contradictions and inconsistencies may be to focus on ways in which systems components are organized (Buckley 1968). By a focus on system s' interrelatedness, common denominators between different disciplines may be identified more clearly.

Society and Science

The scientific understanding of inanimate and animate phenomena is part of a broader process of secularization in society. In many respects, modern science has supplanted the view that human beings were specially created and are subject to divine guidance. Purposive vital urges are symbolic descriptions of evolution rather than realistic scientific explanations (Huxley 1942). The development of science has brought about a demystification of society and life processes.

Science has altered the frame of reference used by most people in contemporary industrialized society. Systems theory offers a new and different perspective on society, even though this frame of reference cannot always be clearly articulated. Owing to its recent development, systems thinking is not widely practiced and is used by only a few professionals, academicians, and researchers (Bertalanffy 1968). Although some parallels have been drawn with engineering, systems concepts can represent living phenomena adequately.

Science has revealed that many facts fail to accord with the wishes or logical preconceptions of human beings. Faced with the necessity for some kind of organization, society faces the dilemma of seeking goals that are not in accord with the limits set by nature (Huxley 1942). One adaptation is to focus scientific investigation on examining limits to which social organization must

minimally conform if it is to be viable. Human freedom exists when a group is not subject to widespread victimization through ignorance of the relationship between natural laws and human desires and aspirations.

In recent years, scientists have become more naturalistic in their studies of animal behavior. As a consequence, society has begun to acknowledge the possibility that individual and social behavior may be based on a wide range of animal-like reactiveness. Whereas past studies of animal behavior were based on observations of animals in captivity, recent studies have examined animal behavior in relatively free environmental conditions. Freud's generation knew comparatively little about these kinds of broad patterns of animal instincts. Society's acceptance of Freud's theories was conditioned before discoveries about animal behavior in natural settings were made (Ardrey 1968). Recent findings from animal studies have provided additional support for the development of the Bowen theory.

Although group behavior is widely acknowledged as more predictable than individual behavior, the application of scientific and systems perspectives to human behavior has been resisted by those who hold traditional beliefs and who view such endeavors as attempts to control relations in society. In society's everyday activities, some degree of predictability is assumed for minimal social organization. If human behavior were unpredictable, people would not be able to have viable relationships with each other (Cotgrove 1967).

When social behavior is a focus for scientific research, relatively predictable characteristics are suggested and described in the hypotheses formulated. "Understanding," a subjective state in which one feels that things make sense, is qualitatively distinct from scientific proof, which depends on the actual demonstration of the interrelatedness of phenomena. As science is ultimately based on verification, one goal is to discover ways of testing "understanding" empirically (Cotgrove 1967). In its applications to social phenomena, science may be described as a search for constancies and invariants in social behavior. Scientific laws are not mere generalizations that are made when facts have been established. The laws themselves play a significant part in determining what the facts are (Kaplan 1964).

Scientific inquiry is frequently specific and limited. Scientists or researchers do not generally study society but focus instead on some restricted portion or aspect of it. Observation also frequently consists of an active search for what is not readily apparent or is even hidden. Through exposure or discovery, an intimate, sustained, and productive relationship between scientist and social phenomena may be facilitated (Kaplan 1964).

Science is frequently thought to have added a fatalistic or deterministic dimension to interpretations of social reality. However, if society has been

evolving automatically under the influence of irresistible impersonal forces, this assertion is far from suggesting that individuals must submit to these forces. Science has increased social freedom in that one can be said to have a more reliable range of options when one's limits in relation to the universe are defined. Social resistance to such a science of society may itself be described as a product of social education largely derived from deduction, dogma, revelation, and guesswork (Keller 1931).

Conclusion

Bowen's research on interrelationships and behavior within families is distinct from cause-effect studies that generally focus on fewer variables. from the Bowen systems perspective, interaction within the whole family is examined, whereas in cause-effect studies only certain aspects of the whole are analyzed.

Although the prediction of behavior is an important long-range goal for both scientific analysis and systems thinking, the "essence" of the two approaches is different. Scientific analysis generally consists of explanations articulated in terms of "why," whereas systems thinking focuses more on functional descriptions of "how" parts relate to the whole and to each other.

As the most significant family memberships are generally ascribed, it is frequently easier to isolate variables related to behavior in these groups than in less clearly defined work and social systems. The probability of attaining some degree of precision or reality in the study of families may be markedly greater than in the study of other groups. As family interaction is a primary means of socialization throughout life, a family is a significant emotional system to research in an overall effort to describe some of the principles of the most complex human interaction. By a close examination of family dependencies, concepts for a general theory of human behavior can be developed. It is perhaps only through an adequate knowledge of basic principles of family interaction that behavior in other social settings will be understood.

REFERENCES

Ackerman, N. W. (1971). The growing edge of family therapy. Family Process 10:143-156.

Adams, B. N. (1968). Kinship in an Urban Setting. New York: Markham.

- ____(1970). Isolation, function, and beyond: American kinship in the 1960s. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 32:575-591.
- Aldous, J. (1970). Strategies for developing family theory. *Journal o f Marriage and the Family* 32:250-257.
- Aldous, J., and Hill, R. (1967). *International Bibliography of Research. Marriage and the Family,* 1960-1964. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Alexander, J. F. (1973). Defensive and supportive communications in family systems. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 35:613-617.
- Anderson, M. (1971). Family structure in nineteenth century Lancashire. Cambridge Studies in Sociology, no. 5. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Andres, F.D., and Lorio, J.P., ed. (1974). *Georgetown Family Symposia*, Vol. 1 (1971-1972). Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Medical Center.
- Ardrey, R. (1966). The Territorial Imperative: a Personal Inquiry into the animal Origins of Property and Nations. New York: Atheneum.
- ____(1968). African Genesis. New York: Atheneum.

Argyle, M. (1958). Religious Behavior. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Athos, A., and Coffey, R. (1968). *Behavior in Organizations, a Multidimensional View.* New York: Prentice-Hall. Bales, R.F. (1950). Interaction Process analysis. Cambridge: Addison-Wesley.

Barakat, H. (1969). Alienation: a process of encounter between utopia and reality. British Journal of Sociology 20:1-10.

Bartell, G. D. (1971). Group Sex. New York: Peter H. Wyden.

Barzun, J. (1941). Darwin, Marx, Wagner- Critique of a Heritage. Boston: Little, Brown.

Beard, B. B. (1949). Are the aged ex-family? Social Forces 27:274-279.

Bell, C. R. (1968). Middle Class Families. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Bennis, W. G., and Shepard, H. A. (1956). A theory of group development. *Human Relations* 9:415-437.

Bernard, J. (1971). Women and the Public Interest. Chicago: Aldine-Atherton.

(1973). My four revolutions: an autobiographical history of the ASA. American Journal of Sociology 78:773-791.

Berne, E. (1967). Games People Play. New York: Random House.

Bertalanffy, L. von (1967). Robots, Men, and Minds. New York: George Braziller.

____(1968). General Systems Theory. New York: George Braziller.

Bezdek, W., and Strodtbeck, F. L. (1970). Sex-role identity and pragmatic action. American Sociological Review 36:491-502.

Bion, W. R (1948). Experience in groups. Human Relations 1:314-320.

Bittner, E. (1963). Radicalism and the organization of radical movements. *American Sociological Review* 28:928-940.

Blood, R.O., and Wolfe, D. M. (1960). Husbands and Wives. New York: Free Press.

Bobcock, R.J. (1970). Ritual: civic and religious. British Journal of Sociology 21:285-297.

Boszormenyi-Nagy, I., and Spark, G. M. (1973). Invisible Loyalties. New York: Harper.

Bott, E. (1957). Family and Social Network. London: Tavistock.

- Boulding, K. E. (1956). General systems theory—the skeleton of a science. *Management Science* 2:197-208.
- Bowen, M. (1959). Family relationships in schizophrenia. In *Schizophrenia— an Integrated approach*, ed. A. Auerback, pp. 147-178. New York: Ronald Press.
- ____(1960). A family concept of schizophrenia. In *The Etiology o f Schizophrenia*, ed. D. Jackson, pp. 346-372. New York: Basic Books.
- ____(1961). Family psychotherapy. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry 31:40-60. (1965a). Intra family dynamics in emotional illness. In Family, Church, and Community, ed. A. D'Agostino, pp. 81-97. New York: P. J. Kennedy and Sons.
- ____(1965b). Family psychotherapy with schizophrenia in the hospital and in private practice. In *Intensive Family Therapy*, ed. I. Boszormenyi-Nagy and J. L. Framo, pp. 213-243. New York: Harper.
- ____(1966). The use of family theory in clinical practice. Comprehensive Psychiatry 7:345-374.
- ____(1971a). Family and family group therapy. In *Comprehensive Group Psychotherapy*, ed. H.T. Kaplan and B.J. Sadock, pp. 384-421. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins.
- ____(1971b). Principles and techniques of multiple family therapy. In Systems Therapy, ed. J.D. Bradt and C. J. Moynihan, pp. 388-404. Washington, D.C.: Groome Child Guidance Center.
- ____(1972). On the differentiation of self. In M. Bowen, *Family Therapy in Clinical Practice*, pp. 467-528. New York: Jason Aronson, 1978.
- ____(1973). Cultural myths and realities of problem solving. Paper presented at Environmental

Protection Research Symposium on alternative Futures and Environmental Quality, March. 280

- ____(1974). Societal regression: viewed through family systems theory. In *Energy: Today's Choices, Tomorrow's Opportunities*, ed. A.B. Schmalz. Washington, D.C.: World Future Society.
- Bowen, M., Dysinger, R.H., and Basamania, B. (1959). The role of the father in families with a schizophrenic patient. *American Journal of Psychiatry* 115:117-120.
- Bradt, J.O., and Moynihan, C.J., ed. (1971). *Systems Therapy.* Washington, D.C.: Groome Child Guidance Center.
- Britton, J. H., and Britton, J.O. (1971). Children's perceptions of their parents: a comparison of Finnish and American children. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 33:214-218.
- Broderick, C. B. (1971). Beyond the five conceptual frameworks: a decade of development in family theory. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 33:139-159.

Broom, L., and Selznick, P. (1963). Sociology. 3rd ed. New York: Harper.

Bry, A. (1972). Inside Psychotherapy. New York: Basic Books.

- Buckley, W. (1967). Sociology and Modern Systems Theory. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- ____(1968). Modern Systems Research for the Behavioral Scientist—a Sourcebook. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company.
- Bultena, G. L. (1969). Rural-urban differences in the familial interaction of the aged. Rural Sociology 34:5-15.

Burger, R. E. (1969). Who cares for the aged? Saturday Review 52:14-17.

Burgess, E. W., Locke, H. J., and Thornes, M. M. (1971). The Family: from Traditional to Companionship. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold. Burns, T., and Stalker, G. (1961). The Management of Innovation. London: Tavistock.

- Caplow, T. (1968). *Two against One: Conditions in Triads*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Christensen, H.T. (1964). Development of the family field of study. In *Handbook of Marriage and the Family*, ed. H.T. Christensen. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Cohen, M.G. (1973). *Proceedings and debates of the Ninety-third Congress,* first session, 119 (174). Washington, D.C.

Congressional Research Service (1975). Publication HJ2005 U.S., 75-60E, February 24.

Cooper, D. (1970). The Death of the Family. New York: Pantheon.

Cotgrove, S. (1967). The Science of Society. New York: Barnes and Noble.

Croog, S., Lipson, a., and Levine, S. (1972). Help patterns in severe illness. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 34:32-41.

Darwin, C. (1871). The Descent of Man and on Selection in Relation to Sex. London: John Murray.

- ____(1896). The Origin of the Species by Means of Natural Selection or the Preservation of Favored Races in the Struggle for Life. New York: Appleton.
- DeJong, P.Y., Brawer, M.J., and Robin, S.S. (1971). Patterns of female intergenerational occupational mobility: a comparison with male patterns of intergenerational occupational mobility. *American Sociological Review* 36:1033-1042.

Demerath, N.J., III (1965). Social Class in American Protestantism. Chicago: Rand McNally.

- Demerath, N.J., III, and Hammond, P.E. (1969). *Religion in Social Context*. New York: Random House.
- Demerath, N.J., III, and Peterson, R.A., ed. (1967). System, Change, and Conflict— a Reader on Contemporary Sociological Theory and the Debate over Functionalism. New York:

Free Press.

- Dennis, N. (1962). Secondary group relationships and the preeminence of the family. International Journal of Comparative Sociology 3:80-90.
- Dinkel, R. (1944). Attitudes of children toward supporting aged parents. *American Sociological Review* 9:370-379.
- Dohrenwend, B., and Chin-Shong, E. (1967). Social status and attitudes toward psychological disorder: the problem of tolerance of deviance. *American Sociological Review* 32:417-433.

Durkheim, E. (1947). The Division of Labor in Society. Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press.

- Dysinger, R. H., and Bowen, M. (1959). Problems for medical practice presented by families with a schizophrenic member. *American Journal of Psychiatry* 116:514-517.
- Eckhardt, a. R. (1954). The new look at American piety. In *Religion, Society, and the Individual,* ed. J. M. Yingar. New York: Macmillan.
- Edgell, S. (1972). Marriage and the concept of companionship. *British Journal of Sociology* 23:432-461.

Elliott, K., ed. (1970). The Family and Its Future. London: J. And a. Churchill.

- Ellwood, C. (1972). Preparation for the year 2000. Adult Education 45:27-31.
- Epstein, C. F. (1973). Positive effects of the multiple negative: explaining the success of Black professional women. *American Journal of Sociology* 78:912-935.

Etzioni, A. (1975). Alternatives to nursing homes. Human Behavior 4:10-11.

Farber, B. (1964). *Family: Organization and Interaction.* San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company.

Ferm, D. W.(1971). Responsible Sexuality-Now. New York: Seaburg Press.

Festinger, L. (1954). A theory of social comparison processes. Human Relations 7:117-140.

- Fichter, J. H. (1972). The concept of man in social science: freedom, values, and second nature. Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion 11:109-121.
- Finnegan, R. (1970). The kinship of ascription of primitive societies: actuality or myth? International Journal of Comparative Sociology 11:171 -194.
- Fletcher, R. (1962). The Family and Marriage. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin.
- Freilich, M. (1964). The natural triad in kinship and complex systems. *American Sociological Review* 29:529-540.
- Gibson, G. (1972). Kin family network: overheralded structure in past conceptualizations of family. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 34:13-23.
- Glock, C. Y. (1960). Religion and the integration of society. Review of Religious Research 2:49-61.
- ____(1962). On the study of religious commitment. *Review of Recent Research Bearing on Religious and Character Formation,* research supplement to *Religious Education,* S98-S110.

Goode, E. (1968). Class styles of religious sociation. British Journal of Sociology 19:1-16.

Goode, W. J. (1963a). The process of role bargaining in the impact of urbanization and industrialization on family systems. *Current Sociology* 12:1-13.

____(1963b). World Revolution and Family Patterns. New York: Macmillan.

____(1971). Force and violence in the family. Journal of Marriage and the Family 33:624-636.

Goody, J. (1973). Evolution and communication: the domestication of the savage mind. *British Journal of Sociology* 24:1-12.

Gouldner, A.W. (1970). The Coming Crisis in Western Sociology. New York: Basic Books.

- Gove: W.R., and Howell, P. (1974). Individual resources and mental hospitalization: a comparison and evaluation of the societal reaction and psychiatric perspectives. *American Sociological Review* 39:86-100.
- Gray, R. M., and Kasteler, J.m. (1967). Foster grandparents and retarded children. Research Report, Utah Foster Grandparent Project, Salt Lake City.
- Gurman, a. S. (1973a). The effects and effectiveness of marital therapy: a review of outcome research. *Family Process* 12:145-170.
- ____(1973b). Marital therapy: emerging trends in research and practice. Family Process 12:45-54.
- Gursch, W.E. (1967). Quarterly Narrative Report: Foster Grandparent Project. Denton State School.
- Hall, C.M. (1971). *The Sociology of Pierre Joseph Proudhon (1809-65).* New York: Philosophical Library.
- ____(1972). The aged and the multigenerational cut-off phenomenon. Paper presented at Georgetown University PreSymposium on Family Psychiatry, Washington, D.C., November.
- ____1973). Vital Life: Questions in Social Thought. North Quincy, Massachusetts: The Christopher Publishing House.
- ____(1974). Efforts to differentiate a self in my family of origin. In *Georgetown Family Symposia*, vol. 1 (1971-1972), ed. F. D. Andres and J. P. Lorio. Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Medical Center.
- ____(1976). Aging and family processes. Journal of Family Counseling 4:28-42.
- Hall, C. M., and Sussman, M. B. (1975). Aging and the family: alternatives to institutional care. American Sociological association annual Meeting, report and recommendations of Committee on Public Issues and the Family.

Hammond, M.A. (1963). Effects of the foster grandparent project upon the Oral Language

Development of Institutionalized Mental Retardates. Ph.D. Dissertation, North Texas State University.

Hammond, P. E. (1963). Religion and the "informing of culture." *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion* 3:97-106.

Hare, P. (1962). Handbook of Small Group Research. New York: The Free Press of Glencoe.

Harper, R. A. (1974). Psychoanalysis and Psychotherapy—36 Systems. New York: Jason Aronson.

Harris, C.C. (1969). The Family. London: Allen and Unwin.

- HEW (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare) (1972). AOA projects to test alternatives to institutionalization of aged. *Aging*, No. 215-216. Administration on aging.
- ____(1972b). Cost Benefit Profile of the Foster Grandparent Program. Booz, Allen Public administration Service.
- Heidensohn, F. (1968). The deviance of women: a critique and an enquiry. British Journal of Sociology 19:160-175.

Henderson, L. J. (1935). Pareto's General Speiology. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Herberg, W. (1960). Protestant-Catholic-Jew. Garden City, New York: Doubleday.

Hochschild, A. R. (1973). Communal life-styles for the old. Society 10:50-57.

Hollingshead, A., and Redlich, F. (1958). Social Class and Mental Illness. New York: Wiley.

Homans, G. (1950). The Human Group. New York: Harcourt Brace.

(1964). Bringing men back in. American Sociological Review 29:809-818.

Humphreys, L. (1970). *Tearoom Trade: Impersonal Sex in Public Places*. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company.

Huxley, J. S. (1942). Evolution: The Modern Synthesis. London: Allen and Unwin.

- Ibsen, C.A., and Klobus, P. (1972). Fictive kin term use and social relationships: alternative interpretations. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 34:615-620.
- Jaco, E.G. (1957). Attitudes toward an incidence of mental disorder: a research note. *Southwestern* Social Science Quarterly 38:27-38.
- Jacobs, J. (1971). from sacred to secular: the rationalization of Christian theology. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion* 10:1-9.
- Johnson, W.T. (1971). The religious crusade: revival or ritual? *American Journal of Sociology* 76:873-890.
- Jones, N.F., and Kahn, M.W. (1964). Patient attitudes as related to social class and other variables concerned with hospitalization. *Journal of Consulting Psychology* 18:403-408.
- Kanter, R. M. (1968). Commitment and social organization: a study of commitment mechanisms in utopian communities. *American Sociological Review* 33:499-517.

Kanter, R. M., ed. (1973). Communes: Creating and Managing the Collective Life. New York: Harper.

Kaplan, A. (1964). The Conduct of Inquiry. San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company.

- Kaplan, H.I., and Sadock, B.J., ed. (1971). Comprehensive Group Psychotherapy. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins.
- Kaplan, J. (1972). An editorial: alternatives to nursing home care, fact or fiction? *The Gerontologist* 12:114.
- Keller, a. G. (1931). Societal Evolution— a Study of the Evolutionary Basis of the Science of Society. New York: Macmillan.

Kelman, H. (1961). Process of opinion change. Public Opinion Quarterly 25:57-78.

Kenkel, W. F. (1966). The Family in Perspective. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

- Kent, D. P., and Matson, M. B. (1972). The impact of health on the aged family. *The Family Coordinator* 21:29-36.
- Kerlinger, F. N. (1964). Foundations of Behavioral Research. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Ketcham, W., Sack, a., and Shore, H. (1974). Annotated bibliography on alternatives to institutional care. *The Gerontologist* 14:34-36.
- Kirkendall, L. A., and Whitehurst, R. N. (1971). *The New Sexual Revolution*. New York: Donald W. Brown.
- Kistin, H., and Morris, R. (1972). Alternatives to institutional care for the elderly and disabled. *The Gerontologist* 12:139-142.
- Lacey, W. K. (1968). The Family in Classical Greece. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press.
- Laumann, E. O. (1969). The social structure of religious and ethnoreligious groups in a metropolitan community. *American Sociological Review* 34:182-197.
- Lawrence, P. R., and Seiler, J. A. (1965). *Organizational Behavior and Administration*. Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc. and The Dorsey Press.
- Lawrence, P. R., and Lorsch, J.W. (1967). Organization and environment: managing differentiation and integration. Cambridge: Division of Research, Harvard Business School.
- Lee, G. R. (1974). Marriage and anomie: a causal argument. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 36:523-532.

Lewin, K. (1947). Frontiers in group dynamics. Human Relations 1:5-41.

____(1951). Field Theory in Social Sciences. New York: Harper.

Lindenthal, J.J. et al. (1970). Mental states and religious behavior. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion* 9:143-149.

- Litwak, E. (1960a). Geographical mobility and extended family cohesion. *American Sociological Review* 25:385-394.
- ____(1960b). Occupational mobility and extended family cohesion. *American Sociological Review* 25:9-21.
- Litwak, E., and Szelenyi, I. (1969). Primary group structures and their functions: kin, neighbors, and friends. *American Sociological Review* 34:465 481.
- Litwak, E., Hollister, D., and Meyer, H.J. (1974). Linkage theory between bureaucracies and community primary groups—education, health, political action as empirical cases in point. Paper presented at the annual Meeting of the American Sociological association, Montreal.
- Litwin, G., and Stringer, R.A. (1968). *Motivation and organizational climate*. Cambridge: Division of Research, Harvard Business School.

Lorenz, K. (1954). Man Meets Dog. London: Methuen.

____(1963). On aggression. Trans. M. K. Wilson. New York: Harcourt Brace.

- ____(1965). Evolution and Modification of Behavior. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- ____(1971). *Studies in animal and Human Behavior*, vol. 3, Trans. Robert Martin. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Loudon, J. B. (1961). Kinship and crisis in South Wales. British Journal of Sociology 12:333-350.

Lowenthal, M.F., and Boler, D. (1965). Voluntary versus involuntary social withdrawal. *Journal of Gerontology* 20:363-371.

Luckman, T. (1967). The Invisible Religion. New York: Macmillan.

Lundberg, G. A. (1947). Can Science Save Us? New York: David McKay.

Lynd, R.S. (1939). Knowledge for What? Princeton: Princeton University Press.

- Lyness, J. L., and Lipetz, M. E. (1972). Living together: an alternative to marriage. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 34:305-311.
- Marciano, T. D. (1975). Variant family forms in a world perspective. *The Family Coordinator* 24:407-420.
- Martin, R.J. (1974). Cultic aspects of sociology: a speculative essay. *British Journal of Sociology* 25:15-31.
- Maslow, A. H. (1954). Motivation and Personality. New York: Harper.
- Mawson, A. R. (1970). Durkheim and contemporary social pathology. *British Journal of Sociology* 21:298-313.
- McGregor, D. (1960). The Human Side of Enterprise. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Mills, C. W. (1959). The Sociological Imagination. London: Oxford University Press.
- Mills, T. M. (1954). Coalition pattern in three-person groups. *American Sociological Review* 19:657-667.
- Mishler, E.G., and Wazler, N.E. (1968). Interaction in Families. New York: Wiley.
- Moberg, D. (1962). The Church as a Social Institution. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Muncy, R. L. (1973). Sex and Marriage in Utopian Communities—19th Century America. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Press.
- Musil, J. (1971). Some aspects of social organization of the contemporary Czechoslovak family. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 33:196-206.
- Myers, J., and Bean, L. (1968). A Decade Later: a Follow-up of Social Class and Mental Illness. New York: Wiley.
- Nelson, H. M., and Allen, H.D. (1974). Ethnicity, Americanization, and religious attendance. *American Journal of Sociology* 79:906-922.

- Nelson, H. M., Yokley, R. L., and Madron, T. W. (1973). Ministerial roles and societal actionist stance: Protestant clergy and protest in the sixties. *American Sociological Review* 38:375-386.
- Neugarten, B. L. (1973). Patterns of aging: past, present, and future. *Social Service Review* 47:571-572.
- Nimkoff, M. F., ed. (1965). Comparative Family Systems. New York: Houghton Mifflin.
- Noble, T. (1970). Family breakdown and social networks. British Journal of Sociology 21:135-150.
- Noelker, L. (1975). Intimate relationships in a residential home for the elderly. Ph.D. dissertation, Case Western Reserve University.
- Olson, D. H. (1972). Marriage of the future: revolutionary or evolutionary change? *The Family Coordinator* 21:383-393.
- O'Neill, N., and O'Neill, G. (1972). Open marriage: a synergic model. *The Family Coordinator* 21:403-409.
- Orden, S.R., and Bradburn, N.M. (1968). Dimensions of marriage happiness. American Journal of Sociology 73:715-731.

____(1969). Working wives and marriage happiness. American Journal of Sociology 74:392-407.

- Osofsky, J. D., and Osofsky, H. J. (1972). Androgyny as a life style. *The Family Coordinator* 21:411-418.
- Paden-Eisenstark, D. (1973). Are Israeli women really equal? Trends and patterns of Israeli women's labor force participation: a comparative analysis. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 35:538-545.
- Parsons, T. (1943). The kinship system of the contemporary U.S. *American anthropologist* 45:22-38.

____(1966). Societies—Evolutionary and Comparative Perspectives. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey:

Prentice-Hall.

- ____(1967). Christianity and modern industrial society. In *Sociological Theory, Values, and Sociocultural Change*, ed. E. Tiryakian. New York: Harper.
- ____(1971). The System of Modern Societies. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Parsons, T., and Bales, R.F., eds. (1955). *Family, Socialization, and Interaction Process*. New York: Free Press of Glencoe.
- Payne, G. (1973). Comparative sociology: some programs of theory and method. *British Journal of* Sociology 24:13-29.
- Pechman, J.A., and Timpane, P.M., ed. (1975). *Work Incentives and Income Guarantees*. Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institution.
- Petroni, F. (1969). Significant others and illness behavior: a much neglected sick role contingency. *Sociological Quarterly* 10:32-41.
- Queen, S., and Habenstein, R. (1967). The Family in Various Cultures. New York: Lippincott.
- Ramey, J.W. (1972). Communes, group marriage, and the upper middle class. *Journal of Marriage* and the Family 34:647-655.
- Riesman, D., Glazer, N., and Denney, R. (1950). *Lonely Crowd: a Study of the Changing American Character*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Riley, M. W. (1968). *Aging and Society, Vol. One: an Inventory o f Research Findings*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Roberts, B. S. (1968). Protestant groups and coping with urban life in Guatemala City. *American Journal of Sociology* 73:753-767.
- Roethlisberger, F.J. (1953). Administrators skill: communication. *Harvard Business Review* 31:55-62.

Rogers, C. R. (1961). On Becoming a Person. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

- Rose, A.M. (1968). The subculture of aging: a topic for sociological research. In *Middle age and aging*, ed. B. L. Neugarten. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Rose, A. M., and Peterson, W. A., ed. (1965). *Older People and Their Social World*. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis Co.
- Rosenberg, G.S. (1967). *Poverty, aging, and Social Isolation.* Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Social Research.

Rosow, I. (1967). Social Integration of the aged. New York: The Free Press.

- Rosser, C., and Harris, C. C. (1965). *The Family and Social Change*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Rubin, Z. (1968). Do American women marry up? American Sociological Review 33:750-760.

Ruitenbeek, H.M., ed. (1963). Varieties of Classic Social Theory. New York: Dutton.

- Schlesinger, B. (1970). Family life in the kibbutz of Israel: utopia gained or paradise lost? International Journal of Comparative Sociology 11:251-271.
- Schneider, D. M., and Smith, R.T. (1973). *Class Differences and Sex Roles in American Kinship and Family Structure.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Schorr, A. (1960). *Filial Responsibility in the Modern American Family.* Washington, D.C.: Social Security administration Report.
- Schutz, W.C. (1958). FIRO: a Three-Dimensional Theory of Interpersonal Behavior. New York: Rinehart.
- Scott, W. G., and Mitchell, T. R. (1972). *Organization Theory: A Structural and Behavioral analysis.* Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc. And The Dorsey Press.

Shanas, E. (1961). Family Relationships of Older People: Living Arrangements, Health Status, and

Family Ties. New York: Health Information Foundation.

- Shanas, E., and Streib, G.F., ed. (1963). Social Structure and the Family: Generational Relations. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Shanas, E., and Sussman, M. B. (1975). *Older People, Family and Bureaucracy*. Durham, North Carolina: Duke University Press.
- Shands, H.C. (1969). Integration, discipline and the concept of shape. *Annals of the New York* academy of Sciences 174:578-589.
- Sheper, J. (1969). Familism and social structure: the case of the kibbutz. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 31:567-573.
- Shepherd, C. R. (1964). *Small Groups: Some Sociological Perspectives.* San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company.
- Sherif, M., and Sherif, C. (1953). Groups in Harmony and Tension. New York: Harper.

Shore, H. (1974). What's new about alternatives? The Gerontologist 14:6-11.

Simpson, G. G. (1949). The Meaning of Evolution. New Haven: Yale University Press.

Simpson, I.H., and McKinney, J.C., ed. (1966). *Social aspects o f Aging*. Durham: Duke University Press.

Slater, P. E. (1963). On societal regression. American Sociological Review 28:339-364.

Solomon, B. (1967). Social functioning of economically dependent aged. *The Gerontologist* 7:213-217.

Speck, R., and Attneave, C. (1973). Family Networks. New York: Pantheon.

Sprey, J. (1969). The family as a system in conflict. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 31:699-706.

Streib, G. (1958). Family patterns in retirement. Journal of Social Issues 14:46-60.

- ____(1965). Intergenerational relations: perspectives of the two generations of the older parent. Journal of Marriage and the Family 27:469-476.
- Stryker, S., and Psathas, G. (1960). Research on coalitions in the triad: findings, problems, and strategy. *Sociometry* 23:217-230.
- Sussman, M.B. (1953). The help pattern in the middle class family. *American Sociological Review* 18:22-28.
- ____(1955). Activity patterns of post-parental couples and their relationship to family continuity. *Marriage and Family Living* 17:338-341.
- Sussman, M. B., and Burchinal, L. (1962). Kin family network: unheralded structure in current conceptualizations of family functioning. *Marriage and Family Living* 24:320-332. Also in *Kinship and Family Organization*, ed. B. Farber. New York: Wiley, 1966.
- Sussman, M.B., and Cogswell, B. E. (1972). The meaning of variant and experimental marriage styles and family forms in the 1970s. *Family Coordinator* 21:375-381.

Szasz, T. S. (1963). Law, Liberty, and Psychiatry. New York: Macmillan.

Taietz, P., and Larson, O. F. (1956). Social participation and old age. Rural Sociology 21:229-238.

Talmon, Y. (1959). The case of Israel. Human Relations 12:121-146.

____(1972). Family and Community in the Kibbutz. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

- Tarnowiesky, D. (1973). The changing success ethic. American Management association Survey Report.
- Taylor, I., and Walton, P. (1970). Values in deviancy theory and society. *British Journal of Sociology* 21:362-374.

Teilhard de Chardin, P. (1970). Let Me Explain. Trans. R. Hague et al. London: Collins.

Thompson, G. (1961). The Inspiration of Science. London: Oxford University Press.

Tolman, E.C. (1932). Purposive Behavior in animals and Men. New York: Appleton-Century.

Toman, W. (1972). Family Constellation. New York: Springer.

Townsend, P. (1957). The Family Life of Old People. Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press.

- Tremmel, W.C. (1971). The converting choice. Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion 10:17-25.
- Troll, L. E. (1971). The family of later life: a decade review. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 33:263-290.
- Turner, R.H. (1969). The theme of contemporary social movements. *British Journal of Sociology* 20:390-405.

____(1970). Family Interaction. New York: Wiley.

- United States Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare (1975). Nurse Training and Health Revenue Sharing and Health Services Act. Calendar no. 29, report no. 94-29. Washington, D.C.
- Weintraub, D., and Shapiro, M. (1968). The traditional family in Israel in the process of change crisis and continuity. *British Journal of Sociology* 19:284-299.
- Weitzman, L.J. (1972). Sex-role socialization in picture books for pre-school children. *American Journal of Sociology* 77:1125-1150.
- Wells, R. A. et al. (1972). The results of family therapy: a critical review of the literature. *Family Process* 11:189-207.
- White House Conference on aging (1971). *Toward a National Policy on aging*. Final Report, vol. 2, Washington, D.C.
- Whitehurst, R. N. (1972). Some comparisons of conventional and counter-culture families. *The Family Coordinator* 21:395-401.

Williams, W. (1957). Class differences in the attitudes of psychiatric patients. *Social Problems* 4:240-244.

Wilson, B. (1969). Religion in Secular Society: a Sociological Commentary. Baltimore: Penguin.

- Winer, L.R. (1971). The qualified pronoun count as a measure of change in family psychotherapy. *Family Process* 10:243-247.
- Winter, G. (1961). The Suburban Captivity of the Churches. Garden City, New York: Doubleday.
- Woof, W. B. (1959). Organizational constructs: an approach to understanding organization. Journal of the academy of Management, April.
- Wolff, K.H., ed. And trans. (1950). The Sociology of Georg Simmel. New York: The Free Press.
- *Work in America* (1972). A report of a special task force to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Young, M., and Willmott, P. (1962). *Family and Kinship in East London*. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Pelican.
- Zelditch, M., Jr. (1955). Role differentiation in the nuclear family: a comparative study. In *Family, Socialization, and Interaction Process,* ed. T. Parsons and R. F. Bales. New York: Free Press of Glencoe.
- Zetterberg, H.L. (1965). *On Theory and Verification in Sociology.* Totowa, New Jersey: The Bedminster Press.
- Zimmerman, C. C. (1972). The future of the family in America, *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 34:323-333.

Zinberg, N. (1970). The mirage of mental health. British Journal of Sociology 21:262-272.