Balance, Balancing and Health

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Abstract
In this article we explore the concept of balance in the context of health. We became interested in balance during a grounded theory study of lay conceptualizations of cancer risk, in which participants were concerned with having a good life, which relied heavily on balancing processes. This led us to the qualitative literature about balance in the context of health, which was large and in need of synthesis. We identified 170 relevant studies and used Thomas and Harden’s technique of “thematic synthesis” to identify key balance-related themes and to develop these into more abstract analytic categories. We found that balance and balancing were salient to people in three health-related contexts: health maintenance, disease or disability management and lay or professional caregiving. In each of these contexts, balance or imbalance could be a state or a process. In addition, those using the word had either an internally- or externally focused orientation to the world around them. Clinicians and public health practitioners might benefit from using these insights in their research and communication.

Keywords
communication, medical; concept analysis; health and well-being; health promotion; qualitative analysis

Qualitative research sheds light on the ways in which people understand and experience health, disease and health care. Qualitative researchers elicit rich accounts of people’s beliefs about specific diseases and experiences of particular illnesses and also empirically examine more abstract concepts such as risk (e.g., Hay, Shuk, Cruz, & Ostroff, 2005), health (e.g., Smith-DiJulio, Windsor, & Anderson, 2010), disability (e.g., Lutz & Bowers, 2005), community (e.g., Wong,
Sands, & Solomon, 2010), and quality of life (e.g., Hendry & McVittie, 2004). Such concepts are central to communication and have a powerful capacity to organize thought and shape behavior but their meanings cannot be assumed. This makes the systematic and comparative study of concepts is necessary (Quinton, 1988). Qualitative research also allows us to explore lay knowledge and its meanings. As Popay and Williams have argued in relation to public health:

If research in the field of public health is to develop more robust and holistic explanations for patterns of health and illness in contemporary society, then it must utilize and build on lay knowledge—the meanings health, illness, disability and risk have for people (Popay & Williams, 1996, p. 760).

In this research we explored the meanings of one abstract concept with particular salience in health: balance. We became interested in this concept while conducting a grounded theory study into lay people’s conceptualizations of cancer risk. The central question in the study was: how do lay people understand the risk of getting cancer? We found that people thought of cancer risk only when cancer was personally salient. Their focus was not on disease but rather on having a good life, and this relied on balancing processes.

In retrospect, this is unsurprising, given that balance is a concept that appears in many major systems of thought. Although varying in emphasis from time to time and (sub)culture to (sub)culture, the concept is central to accounts of human security and flourishing. Psychology, sociology, philosophy, law, politics and medicine all have long histories of inquiry into balance, and all stress its importance for individual and social wellbeing. To give just a few examples: In psychology a desirable lifestyle is one in which roles, especially “work” and “life,” are balanced (Bulger, Matthews, & Hoffman, 2007). In philosophy, a virtuous person with a strong personal morality is one who is moderate in thought, emotion and action (Clor, 2008). Balance is also salient in major healing systems, both ancient, e.g., the ancient Greek balance of earth, air and water, and modern, e.g., our current focus on homeostasis within physiological systems (Arcury, Quandt, & Bell, 2001).

When we found that lay people seemed more focused on living a balanced life than on managing risk we investigated what the qualitative literature said about balance in health and illness. We found that the word “balance” emerged frequently in the talk of those contemplating health and risk, those navigating a wide variety of illnesses and disabilities, and those engaged in both lay and professional care-giving. Even where the word “balance” was not used by the lay people themselves, qualitative researchers often interpreted participants’ accounts as representing talk about “balance.” We noted, however, that most authors did not focus on understanding the concept of balance, which was seen as just one of many themes to emerge in their participants’ accounts. Moreover, authors seldom referred to other studies. This observation has also been made by Campbell et al (2003), who carried out the only synthesis we found (the focus in this article was on the concepts that enabled a person with diabetes to achieve balance in their lives). This lack of cohesion is understandable considering that most studies explored very specific aspects of health and were published in specialist
journals. It does, however mean that current work on balance is inaccessible to researchers and practitioners.

Syntheses of qualitative research, like meta-analyses of quantitative studies, can inform clinical and public health practice (Atkins et al., 2008; Campbell, et al., 2003; Kuper, Reeves, & Levinson, 2008; Thomas et al., 2004). Thomas and Harden, for example, have argued for the use of qualitative synthesis to better understand particular health-related behaviors, such as healthy eating, in order to better plan interventions that can bring about sustainable behavior change, and to identify future research needs (Thomas et al., 2003). We therefore reviewed and synthesized the existing qualitative health literature on balance to determine what it could tell us about the meaning of balance in the context of health and to provide empirical evidence to support the use of the concept of balance in clinical and public health communication and action.

Method

Methods for synthesizing qualitative research are currently under debate (Kuper, et al., 2008). Our method of qualitative synthesis was based on Thomas and Harden’s description of “thematic synthesis” (Thomas & Harden, 2008), a method designed for use in health promotion. Like methods such as Noblit and Hare’s (1988) “meta-ethnography” (Campbell, et al., 2003; Noblit & Hare, 1988) and Sandelowski’s (2007) approach to “metasynthesis,” thematic synthesis involves identifying key concepts from published studies, and then “going beyond” the studies to identify similarities and conflicts and to offer novel interpretations, “lines of argument” or “third order” concepts not found in any single study (Britten et al., 2002; Noblit & Hare, 1988). We describe our methods below.

Identification of Articles for Review

We searched Medline, PsycINFO, and Web of Knowledge using the terms “balance” and “balancing” in combination with “qualitative” and the names of qualitative methodologies (such as “grounded theory,” “ethnography,” “case study,” “discourse,” “action research” and “narrative”) and data collection techniques (such as “interview” and “focus group”). As proposed by Margarete Sandelowski (Sandelowski & Barroso, 2007), our aim was to recall as many articles as possible—that is, we sought sensitivity more than specificity. We kept our search terms broad in order to avoid missing important articles. We identified more than 3000 qualitative studies, even when we limited our search to articles in which “balance” or “balancing” emerged in the title or abstract. We could not devise reliable exclusion criteria, so we scanned all articles to identify those in which balance appeared to be a significant concept in the context of health. Through this iterative procedure, we identified three key contexts or situations in which balance was relevant to health: (a) balance as a means of maintaining health and managing risk—for example, studies about people’s attempts at health improvement or responses to being told they were at risk of disease; (b) balance as a means of managing illness or disability; or (c) balance as a means of navigating lay or professional care-giving. We subsequently included manuscripts if they met the following criteria: (a) the article was relevant to health by fitting one of our three health-related categories (the most common exclusion
according to this criterion were articles on work-life balance), (b) the data collection and analysis methods were reported as qualitative by the authors, and (c) the article was published in English in a peer-reviewed journal. We did not set date limits because we felt that old insights into the concept of balance might remain relevant. Nor did we exclude articles that did not focus exclusively on balance—indeed, some key insights emerged from research studies in which balance was just one of many concepts explored. By applying the above criteria, we identified 170 relevant articles, including 18 published in this journal.\(^1\) Although this was a large number of articles compared to some thematic syntheses, the process was manageable because many of the articles had relatively short discussions of balance.

**Appraisal**

We found it difficult to exclude studies on the basis of methodological quality because of the frequent lack of detail in reporting methods and methodology, and the well-recognized epistemological challenges of critically comparing different qualitative methodologies (Kuper, et al., 2008). Given that our aim was to find maximum variability and usefully interpret the literature, not to identify the “best” publications on the topic, we decided, like Thomas and Harden (2008) and others (e.g., Atkins, et al., 2008), to err on the side of inclusion and to judge quality on the basis of conceptual contribution as much as methodological rigor.

**Extracting Data from Studies and Thematic Synthesis**

Following Thomas and Harden, we approached analysis of the manuscripts inductively with the broad research question: what does this research study tell us about the role of balance in health and illness? We kept the research question deliberately broad to facilitate inductive analysis. We were interested in balance as a central concept, but otherwise did not have preconceptions as to how the concept would manifest itself. The synthesis involved an initial phase of open, line-by-line coding, during which we tried to identify key balance-related concepts in each article. We then looked for similarities and differences between the codes to start grouping them into a hierarchical tree structure of “descriptive themes.” We developed these descriptive themes into more abstract “analytic themes” and then grouped these into four overriding “analytic categories” (Table 1). We repeated this cyclical process until all of the line-by-line and descriptive themes were adequately captured in one or more analytic theme and category. Descriptive themes were first developed by WL. All authors were involved in generating analytic themes and categories from these descriptive themes.

A note on data presentation: The references and examples included in the results section represent only a small number of possible inclusions and are intended to illustrate the more abstract points.

**Table 1**: please refer to pages 18 onwards

\(^1\) This bibliography is available from the corresponding author.
Results

Two things soon became evident. First, balance could be used to describe a state of balance or imbalance, or a process of balancing. Second, those using the word differed in their orientation to the world around them. Some had a strongly external orientation, focusing on the communities in which they were embedded. We called these “externalist balancers.” Others were primarily inwardly orientated. We called these “internalist balancers.” We identified a general tendency for externalist balancers to identify more with balance as a state and for internalist balancers to be more concerned with balancing as a process (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Balance and Balancing in Health

Balance as a State vs. Balancing as a Process

Balance as a state of health and wellbeing. In some cases, the word balance was used as a noun, to refer to a state of balance, or the opposite state of imbalance (see Figure 1 part A). In most cases, the state of balance was associated with physical or psychological health: the more one was balanced, the more likely one was to be healthy. Indeed, in some cases, people saw the state of balance as the definition of health. This was particularly common in non-Western populations, for whom health was defined as balance among the physical, spiritual, cognitive, emotional, and/or social domains of life. For Iranian migrants in Sweden, for example, continuity and balance resulted from having a well-functioning social network in combination with mental strength, as well as a harmonic, holistic balance in which body and mind mutually responded to each other (Emami, Benner, Lipson, & Ekman, 2000). For Westerners, balance as
a state also had associations with health and wellbeing, but the focus was less on the meaning of health and illness in general, and more on the trajectory of a particular experience of illness or care-giving. Illness and care-giving were seen as upsetting a preexisting state of balance, or being thrown off balance; illness itself was then experienced as a life out of balance; and recovery was associated with regaining balance in everyday life. This kind of trajectory was illustrated in Keady, Williams, and Hughes-Roberts’ (2007) narrative analysis of a woman in the early stages of Alzheimer’s disease, “Sarah,” whose initial experience of her illness was of a life “out of balance” because of the uncertainty and fear of her symptoms. In this case diagnosis, and its explanation for her distressing mistake-making, enabled Sarah to recover a sense of balance in her life.

In addition to connoting health, people also saw balance as a state as an optimal way of relating to oneself, to time, and to one’s life narrative. Achieving a state of balance was associated with being creatively engaged with the world and not needing to be in conscious control of every moment; growth; finding meaning; a sense of “standing on solid ground” (Finfgeld & Lewis, 2002) and with emergence of “a new cadence of life” (Whittemore, Chase, Mandle, & Roy, 2002).

The objects of balance as a state. Balance had objects, that is, something was in or out of balance. For people of both Western and non-Western origin, these objects were most commonly the major domains of life, i.e., some combination of the physical, emotional, cognitive, spiritual, social and/or environmental (e.g., Canales, 2004). Although people usually saw the state of balance as incorporating several domains of life, balance or imbalance could also inhere within a single domain. Some emphasized balance within the physical/bodily domain such as Yin and Yang (e.g., Jovchelovitch & Gervais, 1999), others emotional balance (e.g., Mendelson, 2002), or balance within relationships, family systems, societies and even the whole universe (e.g., Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999). Balance in the physical domain was a common motif, for example, in women at risk of ovarian cancer who were unwilling to undergo prophylactic oopherectomy because it would involve “upsetting the natural balance of the body” (Hallowell, 1998).

Participants could not always clearly or easily describe the objects of balance as a state. Indeed, the state of balance often had a subtle, almost transcendent quality as something that was sensed, or experienced in moments, or felt as an undercurrent (e.g., Borruff et al., 1998). Nor did people see these objects as isolated domains. Rather, they could interact, and loss of one—such as social and family support—could make one susceptible to loss of another—such as physical robustness. For example migrants in one study saw mental strength—the psychological domain—as being nourished by a well-functioning social and family support system and a confident feeling of belonging, and felt that physical disease could only assault a body that was already vulnerable because of preexisting disruptions in continuity and balance (Emami, et al., 2000). Balance as a state also reflected the complexities of life as a whole, and the interrelatedness of all dimensions of life. In other words, people tended to relate balance as a state not only to health, but rather to a whole life in balance.

The stability of balance as a state. When talking about a state of balance or imbalance, people used related metaphors and analogies. These included synonyms of balance such as
stability and steadiness. Sometimes these terms had natural connotations, such as wholeness, continuity, coherence, harmony and holism. At other times, the connotations were more scientific, such as equilibrium, homeostasis, proportion and synthesis. Balance as a state was, however, never completely stable. Rather, people described it as fragile, delicate, tentative, temporary, precarious and easily disrupted, threatened or lost. Its fragility could stem from lack of control of the objects of balance, or from personal weakness, such that people were not able to maintain the state of balance (see the “burdens of balancing” below). This related balance as a state to balancing as a process. People spoke of “balancing on a tightrope” (Proot et al., 2003) or “walking a fine line” (Thulesius, Hakansson, & Petersson, 2003). Sarah, the woman with early dementia, for example, described life out of balance as a state in which a see-saw was tilted too far from the middle-line—the middle line represented stability and an ideal state of being. The see-saw was pushed upward by the uncertainty and fear that surrounded her life at the time of symptom onset. She recognized, however, that although movement—and momentum—were constantly changing and stability went “up and down,” balance was never completely lost. Sarah described this background stability as a “horizon” of balance, representing good quality of life (Keady, et al., 2007). In summary, balance as a state was closely associated with health, wellbeing and more abstract optimal states. It usually involved simultaneous incorporation of several domains of life, but could also entail balancing within these domains, which were all related to each other. As seen above, balance as a state as something fragile, easily disrupted and in constant need of attention.

Balancing as a process. People used balance as a state to articulate relatively static concepts such as health and wellbeing. Others spoke of balancing as a process, usually to describe their active approaches to managing health, risk, illness, disability or care-giving (see Figure 1, part B).

The objects of balancing as a process. Balancing had objects—that is, something had to be balanced. When people sought to maintain their health or reduce their risk of disease, they tended to balance the benefits of health-promoting activities against either the risks associated with these activities—for example, balancing the risks and benefits of immunization—or against desirable, unhealthy activities. People making food choices, for example, balanced “food-related values” including taste, cost, time and social relationships against health benefit (Connors, Bisogni, Sobal, & Devine, 2001). In the context of illness or disability, people balanced a wide variety of objects. In general, this involved balancing accommodation of illness—for example by taking a medicine—against the desire to maintain some degree of normality, role fulfillment and personal control. For lay caregivers, balancing acts tended to stem from maintaining other social roles and preserving a normal relationship with their ill family member. Professional caregivers generally balanced conflicting roles and responsibilities, either within their professional lives or between their professional and personal lives; the rewarding aspects of their jobs with more stressful dimensions; and closeness to their patients against protective distance.

In this regard, it is worth noting that people balanced not only physical activities and actions, but also components of identity. There were many examples. People tried to maintain a prior sense of self while constructing a new sense of self. People balanced self-perceptions—for example balancing a sense of worthlessness against a sense of personal value.
balanced attitudes—for example both accepting illness and minimizing its impact. People balanced attention—for example trying to find a middle ground between preoccupation with illness and denial. People also balanced emotions, in order to manage ambivalent feelings, maintain hope, and avoid being overwhelmed, often by balancing attachment and detachment, or grief and acceptance. Finally, people balanced acts of communication. This was particularly evident among caregivers, who needed to pass on information without causing alarm or to acknowledge both their own expertise and that of others. Sometimes the recipients of information were the ones engaged in balancing, to ensure that they received enough information, but not more than they could handle emotionally (Clare, 2002).

Ways people engaged in the process of balancing. Balancing could be about integrating or alternatively about managing tensions. Where there was no inherent tension between commitments, people balanced by interweaving several commitments into a unified whole (see Figure 1, part Bi). This kind of balancing was associated with the act of varying—for example having a varied diet—and at times involved rapid movement between one action and another. These rapid shifts were described as “continuous moving back and forth” (Carmack, 1992), a “dialectic” (Ohlen & Holm, 2006), a “juggling” act (Paparini, Doyal, & Anderson, 2008) and an “oscillation” between poles (Hallin & Danielson, 2007).

Usually, however, there was tension between commitments, and people engaged in a number of discrepancy management processes to manage these tensions, such as: comparing and choosing, moderating and counteracting. The process of balancing as weighing advantages and disadvantages in order to select the best alternative was closely related to the process of decisional balance and, given the large psychological literature on the topic, we did not attempt to review studies which focused only on this kind of balancing. More interesting to us were studies of balancing as moderating and counteracting. Moderating usually entailed limiting one commitment in order to accommodate another that would be threatened by extremity or complete denial. For example, Chambers, Lobb, Butler and Traill (2008) found that people thought that denying themselves particular foods was unwise and that “everything in moderation” was essential to ensure a healthy diet. Counteracting involved engaging in a desired act without limiting it, and then later attempting to counteract this with an opposite or corrective act. This could be enacted according to varying time scales. The shifts could either be rapid, closely related to the oscillating described above, or take place over long time periods, as, for example, in Paisley, Sheeshka and Daly’s (2001) study of people for whom eating local strawberries daily for 2 weeks in summer offset their later absence from the menu. Balancing strategies were not mutually exclusive, and several authors identified more than one of the balancing acts described above. Indeed, many authors emphasized the overall complexity of the balancing process, noting that strategies were intertwined and tended to be used simultaneously and instantaneously.

Whatever the particular strategy or strategies used, balancing as a process demanded effort. People frequently used words and phrases such as “energy” (Bottorff, et al., 1998), “ongoing struggle” (Carmack, 1992), “consistent effort” (Sulik, 2007) and “keeping up” (Guirguis-Younger & Grafanaki, 2008). There was little sense that a stable state of balance could ever be reached. This need for effort was underpinned by frequent descriptions of balancing as a dynamic process which was “fluid” (Shyu, Archbold, & Imle, 1998), “shifting” (Clare, 2002),
“ongoing” (Brodsky, 1999) and “circular” (Pearce, Clare, & Pistrang, 2002). Shyu et al. (1998), for example, described the balancing act of those caring for frail elderly relatives as being “like adjusting the shouldering point of a carrying pole according to the weight of the loads while walking.” Moreover, as discussed above, even where reached, people saw the state of balance as fragile and in need of constant maintenance. In this way, balance as a state and balancing as a process were iteratively related to each other.

The “Externalist Balancer” vs. the “Internalist Balancer”

A second major distinction emerged in the broader health-related narratives of those making use of the concept of balance. People tended toward one of two broad orientations: an external orientation, which was focused more on community, and an internal orientation, focused more on the self.

The externalist balancer. For some people balance was about the communal dimensions of health and life (Figure 1, part C). This was particularly common among non-Western populations. These people had little need to define for themselves what balance meant; whether it was a state or a process; what its objects were; and what was required to enact/maintain it. Rather, balance seemed to be built into everyday understandings and people were able to draw on a “common representational system” (Jovchelovitch & Gervais, 1999) with respect to health and illness. Moreover, balance or balancing was built into everyday communal life, not expected to be achieved or carried out in isolation. This meant that at least some of the responsibility for balance or balancing lay with the community rather than with the individual. This is not to say that communal balancing was idyllic, because communities could oppress as well as facilitate their members’ balance or balancing. South African women with HIV, for example, were only able to focus on achieving balance for themselves if they had fulfilled their culturally constructed duties to men (Dageid & Duckert, 2008).

The internalist balancer. In contrast, some people viewed and enacted balance or balancing primarily on their own, as part of a personal life project (Figure 1, part D). This narrative of the internalist balancer was most common in Western accounts of balance. The internalist balancer needed to be self-reflective which involved recognizing imbalance in one’s life, identifying one’s various commitments, flexibly and pragmatically adjusting, weighing and prioritizing these commitments according to circumstances, and developing or drawing upon one or more balancing strategies. This kind of self-reflection was evident, for example, in a study of women at risk of preterm labor, who were observed to be generating a “calculus of salient variables” before deciding how to manage their activity restriction (Durham, 1999). Balancing strategies could vary from individual to individual in ways that could even be classified into typologies of balancing. In a study of healthy people making food choices, for example, Connors et al. (2001) found that all participants employed a “personal food system” and that although eating situations were similar, each had a different evaluation of the situation, with a unique prioritization of his or her values. People then developed individualized strategies to make their overall personal food system workable for them.

In addition to being self-reflective, the internalist balancer needed to be very much in control of his or her life, structuring and orchestrating his or her activities to accommodate the necessary balancing act/s. This required regulation, management and restraint, as well as
flexibility, creativity and adaptability. In this regard, the internalist balancer appeared action
oriented, and although we are unable to confirm this using only secondary data, we do suspect
a relationship between an internal orientation and a tendency to view balance in procedural
terms (See Figure 1, linking balance as a process to the internalist balancer).

The internalist balancer did not exist in a social vacuum, but had a very different way of
relating to others. Unlike the externalist balancer, who had a community orientation, the
internalist balancer focused on enacting their autonomy. Indeed, people could use balancing to
actively resist social expectations. Women with gestational diabetes, for example, achieved a
balanced sense of control by moving from the point of “strict compliance” to “active self-
management” of their diabetic pregnancy (Evans & O'Brien, 2005). People associated these acts
of autonomy with assertiveness, reliance on one’s own decision-making abilities and even
sometimes overtly disregarding others’ advice.

Even the internalist balancer, however, needed other people. Several people noted that
balancing involved accessing and accepting help from lay and professional caregivers, as well as
from workmates and other social contacts (who sometimes needed to interact with one
another in order to provide the necessary support). People were dependent for their balancing
on broader social resources including information from the media and organizational
arrangements. People with diabetes, for example, reported greater ease with their balancing as
restaurants and airlines become increasingly conscious of their needs (Maclean, 1991). This
dependence on social resources in turn necessitated negotiation. Even the internalist balancer
observed that balancing involved mutual communication and a willingness to strike
compromises with others.

Effects of Balancing

Benefits of balancing. Balance or balancing served many important purposes in the context of
health, illness or caregiving. Most obviously, achieving balance as a state enabled people to
experience a sense of health and wellbeing, whereas balancing as a process enabled people to
achieve some, if not all of their often competing commitments. People also associated balance
or balancing with resilience, describing it as a means of coping, gaining inner strength,
moderating vulnerability and adjusting to difficult changes. Balancing also helped people to
deal with uncertainty, unfamiliarity and unpredictability. Even where emotional control was not
the primary focus, people frequently described balance or balancing as a source of consolation
that could help them deal with adversity. Balancing seemed to improve people’s emotional
experiences and self-esteem because it provided the necessary stability to prioritize
commitments, helped people to resolve ambivalence, provided people with confidence about
decisions made, and reduced guilt about value conflicts. Among women at risk of preterm
labor, those who successfully balanced competing demands saw themselves as “doing okay”
and found the emotional distress and family disruption to be manageable. Those who had
difficulty achieving balance, by contrast, felt “on the edge” and experienced emotional distress
and, occasionally, significant disruptions to the family (May, 2001). In addition to making people
feel better, balance or balancing was also associated with an increased sense of agency and
control. Through balance or balancing, people maintained or regained a sense of
empowerment, competence, functionality, and the ability to perform daily activities without, or
in spite of, challenges such as physical symptoms. This was due in part to the fact that, when balance was achieved, time, attention and energy for other pursuits returned.

**Burdens of balancing.** This is not to say that balance and balancing were without their difficulties. First, as discussed above, balance as a state was precarious and, particularly for the externalist balancer, difficulty arose when traditional communities were displaced, usually because of migration or colonization. This, in turn, could have profound effects upon communities’ sense of health and wellbeing. For migrant groups, the challenge was finding a way of maintaining community health and wellbeing while integrating into their new society, as for example in the case of pregnant Mexican-American women who wanted to manage their pregnancies according to both traditional Mexican cultural beliefs and the individualistic beliefs common to Anglo-Americans (e.g., Lagana, 2003). For the internalist balancer, the major source of stress seemed to be an inability to muster the personal and social resources necessary for balancing, resulting in a sense of failure, associated with uncertainty, tension, stress, strain and struggle.

Interestingly, only a few authors provided evidence of people criticizing or rejecting balance or balancing. The few exceptions included some bodybuilders, who described how the desire to be balanced could itself conflict with the desire to be competitively successful (Probert, Leberman, & Palmer, 2007), and some men who have sex with men, who focused not on balancing sexual risk against pleasure but on accepting the consequences of risky sexual behavior (Guest et al., 2005). It was, however, highly unusual for people to express resistance to balance or balancing, and most stress seemed to stem from the inability to succeed in what was assumed to be a desirable and/or necessary process.

**Discussion**

The concept of balance is a very old one, which has carried meanings about how to trade off priorities, make choices and achieve harmony across different cultures and historical periods. This study extends these ideas by synthesizing the existing literature exploring balance in health-related contexts. These studies showed that balance influenced the conceptualization, experience and enactment of health, illness, disability and caregiving across many cultures and health-related contexts. Our chief findings were the importance of understanding balance as both a state (and an ideal state at that) and a process, and our recognition that the word sometimes had an internally focused orientation, and sometimes an externally focused orientation.

**Practical Implications**

Based on our findings, we argue not only that balance is important, but that different types of balance or balancing might be relevant in different circumstances. People from different cultures or within the same culture, individual clients or whole communities might be more likely to think of balance as a state inhering in their community, or alternatively as a process for which they are responsible. Those who take an externalist-state approach – seeking a state of balance within their community – might feel most unhealthy when they feel that their ordinary balance state is lost and might seek to conform to or be guided by their community. These
people seem most likely to respond to communication and interventions that acknowledge and build communities. Alternatively, those who take an internalist-process approach might want to reflect on and control their own lives, and might seek to balance aspects of their lives, often through considerable effort, using strategies such as varying, moderating, or counteracting one thing with another. These people would be likely to respond to communication and interventions that acknowledge their efforts to weigh up multiple commitments.

In addition to respecting people’s efforts to achieve balance, it is important for practitioners to bear in mind that some people might be struggling to achieve or maintain balance, and that their perceived need for balance might have become more of a hindrance than a help. People might, therefore, need assistance not only in achieving balance, but also in recognizing the ways in which balance or balancing can be a constraint. Indeed, people might need to be given permission to live—at least temporarily—in unbalanced ways. At the very least, it would be important to acknowledge that health is tied to notions of “the good life” and that people are who appear to be struggling with health-related decisions or roles are unlikely to be ignorant or unconcerned about their own wellbeing. Rather, they are likely to be enacting their complex and expert understandings of the good or balanced life (for them), juggling competing commitments, and/or aiming for subtle balance-related goals.

Strengths and Limitations
Like Campbell et al’s (2003) meta-ethnography of diabetes studies, we have demonstrated that the thematic synthesis approach can work with a large number of studies. We believe that we have achieved a true synthesis of the studies we reviewed, in that we have developed new concepts rather than simply collating the results of other studies under preexisting headings. We have identified commonalities and made an otherwise inaccessible literature available to health care practitioners and policy-makers, and have provided a heuristic which can be used by those communicating about health and illness. By necessity, we were forced to sacrifice some of the fine detail embedded in some of the individual qualitative studies. As such, our approach might not be favored by those who reject generalization altogether, or those who believe that the main value of qualitative research lies in the nuance and detail of individual, context-specific studies (Flyvbjerg, 2006), or, perhaps, in the detailed synthesis of a small number of studies. We were also unable to distinguish clearly between lay-people’s and qualitative researchers’ understanding of the word “balance.” As noted previously, our synthesis included both studies in which participants used the word “balance” and studies in which participants’ accounts were interpreted as being about balance, either because apparent synonyms were used (e.g., moderation, equilibrium) or because balance-like states or processes were described (e.g., being on a see saw). It would also be useful to understand the degree to which balance is a first or second order construct in qualitative research, but that was not possible in this study.

Future Directions
We have, to our knowledge, carried out the first comprehensive synthesis of balance in the context of health-maintenance, disease, disability and care-giving. As such, this synthesis should be viewed as a starting point, and more research is needed to both confirm and develop our findings. Obviously, given the wealth of empirical data available and the need to impose
methodological constraints to make analysis feasible, there are many issues that we could not explore through this synthesis, nor through analysis of any single article on the topic of balance. We see the four goals for empirical work. First, to develop a more detailed model of balance-as-a-process, including by returning to those qualitative studies that explore in detail the steps of balancing process. Second, to develop an understanding of when and how people move between different modes of balance or balancing. Third, to explore the value systems that underpin people’s balancing orientations. Finally, to examine how balance or balancing is influenced by or related to social structures like culture, class or gender.

This synthesis also invites a more theoretically-oriented examination of balance. We are curious, for example, about how and where balance has been discursively constructed and deployed. Is it, for example, a key, and relatively recent, discursive construction that legitimates and manages the reflexivity, uncertainty and need for acting “entrepreneurially” that characterizes contemporary “risk society” (Beck, 1992; Giddens, 1990, 1991)? If so, what is the relationship between individual narratives of balance and the societal or cultural “grand narratives” in which they are embedded? Can we understand how resisting balance or being deliberately out-of-balance might be aligned with the governing imperatives of public health (Petersen & Lupton, 1996), and what might be the relationship between balance or balancing, self government and autonomy in late modern society?

Conclusion

Balance is a powerful, culturally recognized concept related to living the best possible life, with profound effects on the ways in which people view, experience and respond to their health-related circumstances. Although understanding balance does not provide a grand theory of health, and cannot reduce all the complexities associated with health, risk, illness and care-giving to a simple model, examination of the concept has provided an important conceptual tool for understanding people’s approach to their own health. If we can recognize the importance of balance and balancing, we will better understand lay people’s expertise in managing their own lives. This might assist both patients and public health audiences to be better respected as experts, and to be more willing to communicate constructively with health professionals about the health issues they face.

Acknowledgments

We thank Kathleen Montgomery for her assistance with an earlier draft of this article.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The authors declared no conflicts of interest with respect to the authorship and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The authors disclosed receipt of the following financial support for the research and/or authorship of this article: National Health and Medical Research Council (NH&MRC) Project Grant 457387.
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**Bios**

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Table 1: Method of Thematic Synthesis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Examples of descriptive themes</th>
<th>Examples of analytic themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Analytic category 1: Balance as a state</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health is a balance of physical, emotional and social wellbeing</td>
<td>Balance as health (or health as balance); imbalance as illness (or illness as imbalance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The onset of illness is a loss of balance; the experience of being ill includes being out of balance; recovery is a regaining of balance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balance is achieving growth; finding meaning in life; standing on solid ground</td>
<td>Balance as transcendent, optimal experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balance is relating well to oneself</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balance is subtle</td>
<td>Balance as a fragile co-existence and interaction of several/many desirable objects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balance is fragile</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Analytic category 2: Balancing as a process</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many different objects/ dimensions of life need to be combined (or need to move back and forth to accommodate all)</td>
<td>Balancing as integrating/ varying/ oscillating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advantages and disadvantages of choices need to be weighed to make health-related decisions</td>
<td>Balancing as choosing (decisional balance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extremity (either excess or deprivation) is not a good thing</td>
<td>Balancing as moderating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is OK to engage in unhealthy (or otherwise non-ideal) behavior as long as one is “good” at other times</td>
<td>Balancing as counteracting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keeping things in balance requires ongoing effort and adjustment</td>
<td>Balancing (of any kind) as work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Analytic category 3: The externalist balancer</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balancing is something one does as part of one’s</td>
<td>Balance as conforming</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The community/family determines what balance means and how it should be achieved

The community helps with balancing

Receiving guidance & support

balancing is not solely the responsibility of the individual

Loss of community leads to an inability to achieve balance

Depending on community

Communities can sometimes stand in the way of an individual’s capacity to balance

Analytic category 4: The internalist balancer

Balancing involves looking inwards and considering what is important

Balancing as self-reflection

Balance involves weighing up one value against another and prioritizing accordingly

Balancing as prioritizing

It is important to be in control of oneself; to restrain oneself

Balancing as self-control

Everyone has different priorities; everyone balances differently

Balancing as an individual act

Others should not stand in the way of one’s balancing; by balancing one can assert one’s desires

Balancing as an act of personal autonomy

It is important to negotiate with others to get one’s (balance-related) needs met

Balancing as negotiating on one’s own behalf