CHAPTER – II

Review of the Related Literature
CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

2.0.0. Introduction

Best (1961) observes, "The research for reference materials is a time consuming but fruitful phase of investigation. A familiarity with the literature on any problem area helps the students to discover what is already known, what other have attempted to find out, what methods have been found to be promising or disappointing and what problems remain to be solved. In order to be creative and original, one must read extensively and critically as stimulus to thinking."

Review also helps the researchers to avoid any duplication of the work done earlier. It aims at interpreting prior studies and indicating their usefulness for the study to be undertaken.

A careful review of the literature also enables the researcher to collect and synthesize prior studies related to the present investigation. Thus, in turn, helps in building a better prospective for future research. A synthesized collection of
prior studies helps to identify significant overlaps and gaps among the prior works. Therefore, the review of the research literature pertaining to the problem of the study becomes essential for the researcher in order to have a complete and thorough information of the work done in the country and abroad.

The review of studies has been classified into two sections:

➢ Studies related to Stress and General Depression

➢ Studies related to Socio Economic Status

2.1.0 Studies related to Stress & General Depression

In an experiment on college women, Ulrich (1956) found that with varsity basket players, the stress and depression level was lower after a game that did not materialize. It would seem that the psychological effects of emotional stress can be 'worked off' by vigorous physical activity.

A large number of factors produce feeling of stress and depression, or state anxiety in young athletes. Passer (1981)
summarizing the research on children sports listed the following: (a) nature of sports (individual sports and more stressful), (b) the degree of importance of the game or competition, (c) the outcome (winning decreases depression and stress, losing or trying increases it), (d) the level of self-esteem possessed (stress is greatest in children with low self esteem, (e) the expectations held for success (Children with lower acceptations possess greater depression and stress, and (f) the level of sports competition anxiety.

Studies conducted by O'Neil et al (1969) and Spielberger et al (1971) on junior high school students revealed that given a stressful situation, high trait individuals would be expected to exhibit markedly greater reactions than low trait individuals. Gould, Horn, and Spreaman (1983) undertook competitive stress with 464 junior elite wrestlers participating in a national tournament in the United States. Differences in the degree of competitive depression and stress was reported by the wrestlers. In comparison to the high traits anxious wrestlers the low trait anxious wrestlers experience less stress (a) 24 hours prior to competition (2) 1 hours prior to competition (3)
2 minutes prior to competition and (4) in the actual compassion against the individual perceived to be their toughest opponent. The low trait anxious wrestlers were also superior in terms of (1) their perception of personal ability (2) their pre-tournament confidence, (3) the percentage of all matches in which they did not worry and the trouble (or rather, lack of difficulty) they had in sleeping.

Lewinshons (1974) depression model suggests that social skills increase depression. Subjects were administered two measures of social skill and Beck Depression Inventory. After two months, depression was reassessed using a depression scale consisting of 30 items from the original Mini Sota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (M.M.P.I.) depression scale. It was found that social skills measures were significantly correlated with currently assessed depression. It was also found that the best single predictor of future depression was current depression. Two measures of social skill provided incrementally significant contributational evidence for Lewinshons social skills deficit model of depression, that is, social skill, independent of current depression, significantly
increased the predictability of future depression Wierzbicki, Micheal (1984).

Hommen et al (1977) studied the sex differences in the expression of depressive responses of the Beck Depression Inventory. They suggest that although epidemiological data has documented sex differences in depression are unclear. They studied depression in 972 male and 1300 female unmarried college students with the help of the Beck Depression Inventory. Results indicate no sex difference in the degree of depression, and yet discriminant function analysis of the responses of the most depression scores fielded a significant and interpretable sex differences in the patterns of symptoms expression. Depressed males were more likely to report an inability to cry, loss of social interest, a sense of failure, and somatic complaints. Females were characterized by observation that the effect of treatment continued after treatment ended. Eight weeks after treatment, experimental subjects scores indicated significantly less depression than at the post testing. Both experimental subjects and delay controls reported a significantly decrease in depression from pre to post test. The
two groups were not significantly different in reported depression at post testing.

Robinso and Gotlib (1982) examined the behaviour, mood, and perception of 40 non-depressed female undergraduates interacting with 20 depressed and 20 non-depressed female. Undergraduates tried to get to know the targets and then completed questionnaires including the Multiple Affect Adjective Checklist. Results indicated that following the interaction, who spoke with depressed targets smiled less often, demonstrated less arousal and pleasantness in their facial expressions, exhibited less positive and more negative content in their conversations, made fewer statements of direct support to their partners, and talked about more negative content in their interactions.

Davi’s and Sally (1982) examined the cognitive process of thirty depressed and thirty non-depressed undergraduates in depression. Performance was rated before and after they received feedback on a social interaction task. Subjects than attempted to recall feedback and explained their post feedback self-rating. Results showed that depressed subjects had a more
negative evaluation of present circumstances and poorer memory for feedback. Further, depressed males lowered their self-evaluation after feedback significantly more than did non-depressed males. Results with regard to differential response to neutral and positive feedback were not found because subjects apparently perceived all levels of feedback as somewhat negative.

In an investigation Rockwell, Elders and Richard, 1982 revised edition of a paper that reports methods and results of a 17 yrs study of 214 children born in Berkeley, California in (1928-1929). Two thirds of them come from families that were middle class before the great depression. The problem behaviour of the subjects at ages 5-7, 8-10, 11-13 yrs was studied in relation to two other factors:

1. The family economic deprivation (loss of income) during the depression.

2. The computability of the parents before the depression.

Although economic deprivation had profound effects on father, mother and parents child relations, of itself it did not
dramatically increase problem behaviour in either boys or girls. Results indicates that the highest level of problem behaviour was found on deprived boys. Whose parents were incompatible before the depression and the lowest level in subjects whose parents were compatible. Analysis of the data for girls revealed no significant interactions, it is concluded that life-course perspective has relevance for the earlier years of development.

Taung and Yong (1983) investigated that there is relationship between social support and depression. Result show that more depressive subjects attributed negative life events to internal, stable, global, and uncontrollable factors: had higher subjective life stress cores; had more frustration in the economy, interpersonal relationships and academic achievement and had less social support. Normal subjects attributed negative events to natural affirmity. When social support scores were used as on index of ego strength life stress with small ego strength was positively correlated to depression scores.
Dickstein, L.S., W, and Anne (1983) studied depression in college students have often focused on task outcome. The present study emphasized the role of subjective standard as a cognitive mediator of the effects of success and failure on mood for both cognitive task and social task. In their study there were 88 female undergraduates. Subjective standard was defined as the lowest score with which the subjects would be satisfied. Overall results show, a significant main effect of task outcome and a significant main effect of task outcome and a significant main effect of task outcome and a significant main effect of task outcome and a significant main effect of subjective standard. Results also show a significant interaction between these variables (task outcome and subjective standard). Thus, finding provides support for a cognitive model of depression.

Murphy and Eldine (1983) suggested that depressed person outcome is associated with severity of initial illness, and subjects with depressive delusions had a particularly poor outcome and outcome is influenced by physical healthy problems and severe life events in the follow up year. SES
differences in outcome were thought to be due to SES differences in the experience of severe life events. Results indicate that there was not evidence that an intimate relationship protected against relapse in the face of continuing life stress.

Aneshensel, F.C., R.H.G. et al. (1984) assessed a latent variable causal model of subjectively experienced physical illness and depression to examine reciprocal patterns of influence. For the total sample the exogenous variables of SES, age, and sex affected the constructs of physical illness and depression. Illness had a large contemporaneous effect of increasing depressive symptomatology over previous levels show that there are reciprocal relationship between depression and physical illness.

Diaz, G. & Rogelio (1984) investigated the relationship between emotional states and psychopathological behaviour in 100 male and 100 female high school students (aged 14-26 years) half of whom were of upper class and half of whom were lower class. Each subject completed several emotional evaluation scales that identified the frequency and causes of
depression. Results indicate that female generally suffered greater depression than male SS. Lower class subjects tended to suffer more anxiety than their upper class peers, who reported experiencing more sadness than depression. Lower class female reported greater feeling of depression connected with divorce, crime, suicide, drunkenness, and illness. Upper class female listed divorce, cancer, suicide, madness, and death as a cause of depression.

Rodin, Peter et al (1984) suggested that the condition in which the subject received negative feedback, reported significantly greater jealousy of the other persons. In this condition subjects were more likely to disparage the rival and less likely to desire his or her friendship. Results indicate that subject feel more depressed and anxious about interacting with the comparison person.

Friedeman, and Luise (1986) interviewed fifty-two families who were from a school district in kinder garten, mean age of parents were 33.7 and 31.5 years, respectively parents completed the institute for personality and Ability Testing (IPAT) Depressive Scale. Children's behaviour was assessed
during outdoor and indoor observations. Research showed that fathers under economic stress were more likely to have a high IPAT depression score and marital problems than fathers without financial difficulties. Mothers had a greater tendency to be depressed if the marital relationship was stressed, regardless of the economic situation. Children from these families tended to act either more withdrawn in the peer group or to engage in more frequent acts of leadership with peers than other children. The child's peer acceptance score was related to economic situation, regardless of the patients depression score.

The bereavement circumstance, socio-economic status (SES), parental bonding, and degree of care of the child were associated with adult depression. Parker et al (1986) suggests that sudden death of the mother, older age of child, perception of the family support as being deficient in the immediate post bereavement phase. Depression in the bereavement phase was not predictive of a subsequent episode of depression or of higher levels of state and trait depression in adulthood.
Depression was particularly strong for subjects from middle class home. Low socio-economic status and poor discipline were also associated with this disorder (Robins et al (1988).

Siegel et al (1990) investigated social perceptions, depression and anxiety in non-depressed, and non-depressed – nonanxious students (targets) and normal, same – sex room mates (79 room mate pairs) (1) rated the interpersonal impact on themselves of typical associations with their room mates and second judged their own interpersonal impact. Results show that only depressed men received negative evaluations and emotional reactions from their room mates. However, depressed women reported more negative reactions to their normal room mates than a vice versa. Finally depressed targets perceived their interpersonal impact negatively, whereas their normal roommates perceived their own interpersonal impact as overly positive. These finding suggest that negative relationship between depressive and non-depressed.

Richard, Donald and Oliver (1991) examined the relationship between anxiety and depression disorders. Social "drift" the idea that psychiatric disorder causes downward
social mobility, was assessed by using the incidence of a depression/anxiety disorder as the predictive variable and subsequent downward SES mobility as the outcome variable. Results indicate that depression was higher in low SES subjects than in upper social classes. It is concluded that poverty, depression, and the relationship between them remained stable over time. Not only did depression tend to persist, but its relationship with low SES also tended to endure.

Jonn et al (1992) analyzed the relationship between age and depression, looking for effects of maturity, decline life cycle stage, survival, and historical trend. The results show that depression reaches its lowest level in the middle age, at about 45 years old. The fall of depression in early adulthood and rise in late life reflects mostly life-cycle gains and losses in marriage, employment, and economic well-being. Depression reaches its highest level in adults 80+ years old, because physical dysfunction and low personal control add to personal and status losses.
The model links SES; occupational direction, control and planning (DCP); personality factors; and depression/distress in a causal sequence. The key factor of DCP is operationalised using ratings from the dictionary of occupational titles. The results support the social causation model. Thus, the results show the plausibility of the social causation model and suggest for further research on the links between occupational conditions and mental disorder (Lennon & Marry, 1993).

Young subjects were significantly less depressed than older subjects, but SS from upper and lower SES did not differ significantly in depression (Rai, 1993).

Hung et al (1993) examine the associations of university status and gender on depression among 1728 Ss (age level 17-40 years). Analysis show that the 912 women were significantly more depressed than were the 816 men: however, no significant difference was found between the 744 university students and the 984 non-students, Michael et al (1994) examined the prevalence of depression, poor self-esteem, and hostility among 464 junior stream secondary school students (aged 12.3 years to 16 years). Subjects completed four self-report.
Questionnaires: The General Health Questionnaires—thirty, The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, The Birleson Depression Self-Rating Scale and the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire. Comparison were made between Urban vs Rural, girls and boys, upper and lower socio-economic groups vs groups from previous studies. Results indicate the presence of psychological distress was also investigated, which shows that the girls from rural settings suffered from more depressive symptomatology, poor self-esteem, and greater psychological distress than did other Ss, whereas boys from both rural and Urban locations experienced more hostility.

There are correlations between degree of depression and hour of television viewing in college students. In a study of twenty-four male and twenty-four female undergraduates (aged 18-24 yrs) were assessed for clinical depression by the MMPI and clinical interview. All Ss charted their viewing for one week. Analysis indicated that depressed women Ss watched more television than any other group, and depressed men watched less sports than nondpressed men. Model of television use emphasizing parasocial interaction and social comparison
are offered to account for the results (Dittmar and May 1994). It is reported depressive symptoms of High School females were found greater level than high school males, while no differences were found between the female and male college subjects. Also there was no difference between the depression scores of high school and college males, while college females reported less depression than high school female (Glaldstone et al 1994).

Rabbit and Watson (1995) give a sample of 42-43 and age level is 50 to 93 yrs, completed the Beck depression Inventory and a battery of six different cognitive tests. Beck scores were low, indicating gradations of dysphoria rather than clinical depression. Beck scores did not vary with age but were significantly higher for women than for men and for disadvantaged than for advantaged socio-economic groups. Measure of fluid, but not of crystallized, ability declined as age increased. Socioeconomic disadvantage was associated with poorer performance on all cognitive tests. Men scored higher on a test of spatial reasoning, and women scored higher on a test of word definition and on two tests of verbal memory.
and learning. However, after variance associated with these demographic and individual difference variable was considered, and within a range indicative of dysphoria rather than clinical depression. Higher Beck scores were associated with significantly poorer performance on both crystallized and fluid measures of cognitive ability. This association was less marked in women than in men, but age, socioeconomic advantage, and estimated life time intellectual ability did not act as protective or risk factors for vulnerability of cognitive processes of dysphoria.

2.2.0 Studies related to Socio Economic Status

Mall et al (1979) attempted to investigate and analyze physical fitness of high school students and found out that the relationship (if any) of their physical fitness to socio psychological variable the result was that physical characteristic of height and weight of three selected groups 13-14 and 15 with high academic achievement did not show any significant difference.

Lureshi (1987) examined 314 university women players selected from various universities of Tamil Nadu. The purpose
of his study was to ascertain the socio-economic status of Tamil Nadu canine women players in valley ball, badminton, shuttle badminton, Table Tennis, Kabaddi and athletics during the academic year 1989-90. He administered a questionnaire and found that university woman players performed the sports and games based on their community area from where they hail, profession of their parents basis of income of their parents. The socio-economic status can also be considered as one of the influencing factors in their selection of the game and consequently their sports excellence.

Young (1989) studied the significance of physical activity as a function of ages, sex education, and socioeconomic status of northern United States. He concluded that neither active participation in a variety of physical activities nor attendance at sport events represents major life interest of the majority of the adults, broadcasts of sporting events was found to be significant life interest of a large majority of adults in north emanated states or the significant of physical activity as a function of age sex education.
Karuppain (1990) tried to determine how the socio-economic status is associated with participation in sports and games. For this purpose he selected six hundred twenty nine university players in all teams. After careful analysis he derived that individual's socio-economic status influenced his opportunity for participation in games and sports. It was also found that some people growing in poverty hidden society play the games, which incurred less expenditure, and the people grown in upper class income society played the games which incurred more expenditure.

Mathuraman (1990) studied four hundred twenty district level school Kabaddi players. The purpose was to ascertain the socio-economic status of Tamil Nadu district level school Kabaddi players during the academic year 1989-90. He concluded that 45 percent were from scheduled community and 44 percent were from backward community. A total of 89 percent were from lower class community.

Ravi (1990) took 119 subjects aged 17 to 31 years dividing them into three groups to compare them on the wear Physical Education Attitude Inventory and Histon Personal
Adjustment Inventory. One way analysis of various were computed to compare the groups and to determine if significant differences existed. 't' ratio was used to determine if significant changes had occurred on the criterion measures. Results indicated that normal control group on the variable of attitude towards physical education even though the adopted group did not make a significant improvement on the attitude towards physical education variable. There were no significant differences between the adopted sub-groups or any of the criterion measures at the end of the programme. Nelson also found differences in attitudes between high school boys taking role found differences in attitudes between high school boys taking role and those taking physical education. Those who took physical education and a more favorable attitude towards competition, games, and athletics.

Minner (1991) examined 114 boys and 107 girls of 6th grade California physical performance test and questionnaire to compare the social and physical level of child to identify factors, which contributed to total physical fitness more than other social levels. It was reported that certain factors were
found in the background of physically able children and social level where the factors were identical the social class contributed to physical fitness.

In one such study Kumar (1991) conducted a study to compare the physical fitness of two different socio-economic groups. The AAHPER youth fitness test was administered to the subjects (Thirty in each group) taken from Central School, Gwalior and Railway Colony School Gwalior. The data was compared by converting the raw score into standard score using 't'. It was concluded that the socio-economic difference did not have any effect on physical fitness of an individual. The subjects belonging to lower socio-economic group were as good as subjects belonging to higher socio-economic groups.

Goin (1991) examined the interrelationship between the intention of exercise and variables associated with the personal attributes of the students and nature of their family environment. He found that (1) attitudes consistently explained a significant fraction of the variance in intention to exercise (2) current physical activity habits and prior experience of exercise were two variables that sub-statically increased the
amount of explained various (3) over 50 per cent of the variance in intentions to exercise remained unexplained and non of the parent variables such as intentions, current physical activity, habits, prior experience, education and socio-economic status contributed significantly to the explanation of internationals intentions.

Stack Hill (1991) in his study of juniors high school boys related the physical fitness scores to the families socio-economic status, size, and type of occupation. All boys in 12 physical education classes for grades 7, 8 and 9 (N70) were given AAHPER youth fitness test, socio-economic status of parents was determined from the rank of their occupation in the detailed classification of the Bearo of Census 1950. The correlation between physical fitness and socio-economic status of parents was too low for predictive purpose.

Nelson (1991) examined 40 male youth of grade VII through X obtaining attitude towards sports by modified wear physical education inventory, socio-economic status measured by Hollings Lead index of social position and self-concept by savidson adjective checklist. It was reported that relationship
between sports participation attitude towards sports, socio-economic status, and the self-concepts of male problem. Seven relationships were tested. Only two significant comparisons resulted. The youth who had played sports had a more favorable attitude towards sports and sports participants of white-collar background had a more favorable attitude towards sports than did the white-collar non-participant.

Kumar and Singh (1991) studied seventy senior wrestlers undergoing national coaching camp for the Asian games, which were to be held at Bejing, China in September 1990. These wrestlers were probable who were selected after the senior national wrestling championship. In order to assess socio-economic status scale questionnaire of Kapoor and Kocher (Hindi Version) was administered. The analysis of data revealed that Indian wrestlers came from middle economic status group of the Indian society.

Karuppaian (1992) compared the physical fitness of students of different socio-economic groups from selected schools of Delhi. He concluded that
1. The male school students belong to upper middle status and lower middle status did not differ significantly in physical fitness as revealed by the AAHPER youth.

2. The male school students belonging to upper middle status were found to possess better abdominal strength and endurance as compared to school students belonging to lower middle status.

Todonio (1992) compared the physical fitness of public school students from economically deprived areas with national norms and from high poverty the areas with those from low poverty area from United States. Comparison of mean scores and one way analysis of co-variance resolved that there were no difference between the physical fitness of boys and girls the economically deprived sample and boys and girls represented by the 1975 national norms and with in the sample, There was no difference in physical fitness of boys and girls from high poverty areas and boys and girls form low-poverty areas.

Han (1993) revealed relationship between physical education activity preference, socio-economic status and
personality need of 322 freshmen Sophomore college women. Analysis of variance employed in the study revealed that socio-economic status for the university sample studied was not a significant factor in physical education activity preference.

Employing 't' tests, correlation co-efficient and multiple correlation on fifty matched pairs of Negro and Caucasian subjects selected at random from different California Junior colleges and found that the Negro superiority indicated cannot be explained in terms of aspects of socio-economic status and attitudes towards physical education activities and individuals attitude towards physical education activities does not lend to the production of his motor performance. The study also revealed that individual's socio-economic status does not lend to prediction that individual's socio-economic status does not lend to prediction of his motor performance. Ponthieuex and Berker using AAHPER youth fitness test with both boys and girls aged 10 to 12 in a small Texas community found relationship between socio-economic status and seven aspects of physical fitness test and it was revealed that boys from low socio-economic levels were faster, better to ordinate and had
more endurance than the upper status boys, who supposed the lower status boys on measures of agility, speed and strength. The results also indicated that lower socio-economic-level girls were faster, better coordinated, and had more endurance than the upper status girls.

Sharma (1994) investigated the differentials of non-sports man and university representing sports man in the total sample on personality, self-concept, intelligence, and socio-economic status variables. The subjects were 538 male college students drawn from the states of Punjab, Haryana, and Union Territory of Chandigarh. He concluded that:

(1) Cricket sportsmen scored significantly higher on the academic status (AS) dimension of the socio-economic status variable than sportsmen of remaining four sports groups

(2) On the social status (SS) dimension, football sportsmen have achieved the highest mean score on this dimension followed by Cricket, Valley ball, Hockey and Basket Ball sportsmen.
(3) The significant differential pattern among the selected sports group on the composite S.E.S as for SS dimension. Cricket sportsmen scored the highest of all on this variable followed in the descending order by Football, Valley ball, and Hockey and Basketball sportsmen.

Stone (1996) studied the significance of race and socio-economic status on physical performance. He arranged the Negro and white boys into four matched groups on the basis of age, physical and upper and lower middle socio-economic status Negro 50 yard dash, shuttle run, and soft bull throw. The softball throw was the only item showing reliable difference between the two social groups with lower middle class being superior. There was no significant 't' ratio for the interaction of 7 items.