Review of Literature
Chapter-II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature is the basis of most of the research. “The literature in any field forms the foundation upon which all future work is built”. Review of related literature of the study has become an established practice of all research report but this should not be taken as mere practice or traditions in writing research process. Briefly it may be pointed out that review of related literature gives on insight into the problem. The important aspect of this tradition is that the researcher come to know about the present position of the problem and also the explored and unexplored aspect of the problem. It was in view of these considerations that the investigator shifted the pages of journals, abstracts, so that the different aspect of problem may be elaborated.

Jelliffe (1966) defined nutritional anthropometry as the measurement of the variation of the physical dimensions and the gross composition of the human body at different age levels and degree of nutrition.

Gopalan and Naidu (1972) parents may also be more likely to seek health care. or seek care sooner, for sons than daughters. There is some evidence for this a study in India where the ratio of malnutrition in girls compared with boys was 4:3 in the community but more boys than girls were brought to hospital.

Jethi et al. (1987) studied in Jabalpur baby sister women that their knowledge, attitude and skill regarding feeding practices were correlated with their age, education, qualification and parity.

Matkovic, V. (1990) says although low iron intake could have a relatively immediate negative effect, resulting in iron deficiency, the consequences of low calcium and high fat intakes would not be apparent for years. Recent evidence
suggests that a low calcium intake may be a serious problem because it can result in decreased peak bone mass in early adulthood, increasing the risk for development of osteoporosis.

Casper, R.C. (1990) says many young women weight and eating concerns extent beyond dissatisfaction with their current body to includes worrying about gaining weight or becoming. In one study, more than 30 per cent of the 9 years old girls expressed fear of fitness. This fear increases weight age, reacting over 80 per cent among 18 years adolescent.

Parvathi et al. (1991) found that the working mother breast feeding their children till 11-18 months, but the interval of feeding in a day was less compared to non working mothers. It was found that employment of mothers did not affect the weaning practices of infants in comparison with the unemployed mothers.

Wandel and Haemoboestsen (1992) found, that although working women increase the income of the family but it has negative effect on the child care and feeding.

In a recent study made by Wiseman et al. (1992), the body measurements of play boy magazine centerfolds and miss America contestants for 1979-88 indicates a body weight 13-19 per cent below the expected weight for women in that age group.

Gwen, Chapman (1992) says despite a general improvement in nutrition knowledge of teenage girls in the past three decades, intervention directed towards this group have not resulted in improved eating habits.

MacLean, H. (1993), although most Canadian girls fall within the healthy weight range, many do not believe their weight is appropriate. More than 80 per cent of teenage girls surveyed in British Columbia reported a healthy body weight for their height, but less than 50 per cent saw their weight as “about right”. The
proportion seeing themselves as overweight increased from 38 per cent in grade 8 to 51 per cent in grade 11. The proportion who wanted to lose weight increased from 60 per cent in grade 7 to 82 per cent in grade 12. Another Canadian study showed 74 per cent of those between 15 and 19 years of age would like to lose weight.

Hill (1993 a,b) says the tissue of whether the widespread dieting practices associated with fear of fatness among adolescent girls contributes to the prevalence of cases of clinical eating disorders is debatable.

Krondl, M. (1993) says although much individual variation exists in food preferences, teens tend to prefer the taste of many junk foods, and dislike many “healthy” food. Most of the girls in one study agreed that they disliked most cooked vegetables and organ meats, and most took it for granted that “everyone” like “junk” foods.

Beyer (1995) found that family factors such as parents support and parents level of education and expectations for their children seem to exert some influence on adolescents aspirations.

Dennison and Shepherd (1995). girls may be more exposed than boys to inadequate intakes because of dieting lower energy intake, social discrimination and pregnancy.

Senderowitz (1995), as adolescents have low prevalence of infection compared with under five children and of chronic disease compared with ageing people they have generally been given little health and nutrition attention except for reproductive health concerns.

Rojewski (1996) in a study of adolescents with learning disabilities (Rojewski, 1994; Strohmer, Czerlinsky, Ment and Engehkes, 1984), it was found that such adolescents may be especially prone to espouse lower aspirations because of the effects of discrimination, social attitudes, cultural expectations and
stereotypes that may results in either systemic or self-imposed limits being placed on their education or occupational aspirations.

Van Lenthe et al. (1996) says furthermore reasons for caution when using the BMI to assess adolescents, however relates to the change that occur throughout youth in the components contributing to the composites measure of BMI. During growth and maturity, body proportions, bone mass and lean, fat tissue change at different times and different rates.

Dinger and Waigardt (1997), Robinson and Killen (1995), in high income group society, it is observed that physical activity tends to fall during adolescence and girls are less active than boys.

Joseph, L. (1997), found that adolescents of parents with depression and abuse have different dietary intakes and eating patterns from healthy comparison parents, although the patterns were not consisted across parental group.

Fazio-Tirrozzo et al. (1998) in contrast, in poorer societies of developing countries, adolescent boys and girls may be expected to engage in heavy physical work many hours a day as observed. for instance, in Aalur.

According to Papalia, Olds and Feldman (1998), parent’s encouragement and financial support influence aspirations and achievement; in fact, parental encouragement predicts high ambition better than social class does.

Horn and Berktold (1999) found that students with disabilities also tend to have lower expectations for themselves and are twice as likely as their non-disabled counter parts to have no educational aspirations beyond high school.

Cunningham, Young and Senge (1999) studies also show that parents of disabled children have low expectations from their disabled children, found that because teachers and parents frequently, expect less from students with disability,
they may demand less academically of these students than they do of their classmates without disability and grade them more leniently. But parental expectations from their children's have already been shown to influence children's level of aspiration Beyer (1995).

**Council of Economic Advisors (2000)** (Andress and Krahn, 1999; Ball s Lamb, 2001, Crystdate, King and Mandell, 1999; Looker and Lowe, 2001; McGrath 1996; Teachman, Paasch, Day and Carver, 1997); one of strongest background factor predicting youth's educational aspirations (their later attainment) is the level of education of their parents.

The effect of parental education is seen both in the desire to pursue education beyond high school and in the type and extent of post secondary education desired.

**Maskarinee G., Novamtny, R. and Tasaki, K. (2000)** investigated the relationship between dietary pattern and body mass index and found association in direction and magnitude for all ethnic group. The study showed that choosing the right foods may be important in weight control and that food based dietary pattern may be useful in dietary counseling among the women.

**Hoefferth et al. (2000)** found that educational employment and life style aspirations may start forming at an early stage in life and may often reflect the socio-economic background and cultural “Habitus” of children environment.

**Khaw et al. (2001)** stated that malnutrition prevents much of the world’s population from reaching their full potential mentally, physically or financially. It also contributes to higher death rate from heart disease, stroke and cancer.

**K. Sheela and P. Shashikala (2001)** stated that there are evidence that women’s employment has the potential to benefit household nutrition through increasing the household income. It is an accepted fact that in household with a low average food availability, women and children are especially at risk.
Jyothilakshmi, A. And Prakash, J. (2004) have studied that the education level, position, health and nutritional status of the women is central to the quality of life and is a key determinant of family health.

Taylor, Harris and Taylor (2004) one consistent finding in research suggest that adolescents, own aspirations are influenced by their parents aspiration or expectations for them. When adolescents perceive their parents to have high educational expectations for them, adolescents are likely to have higher aspirations for themselves.

Lakshmanan (2004) since the 1960’s social scientists have recognized that the educational and occupational aspirations of youth play a pivotal role in the status attainments process.

Looker and Thiessen (2004) the academic performance of the youth has a major impact on their educational aspirations.

Looker and Thiessen (2004) parents play key roles in the educational aspirations of young people. Not only are the aspirations of their children constrained by the socio-economic position of the parents; but such aspirations are also furthered by a variety of parental resources, such as cultural capital cultural communication and educational resources at home. Further young people who believe their parents want them to pursue higher education are encouraged by this to desire more education.

Chaudhary, Asha (2004) says the mean height and weight of adolescent girls of WW and NWW were near about the same. In case of boys there was no significant different was found in the height of WW and NWW boys but the weight of boys of working women was found more than that of NWW. It may be due to eating spicy junk food in absence of mother who is working.
Khetarpaul, N. and Grover, I. (2001) have observed that women from landless, marginal and small land holding were more hard pressed. The physical labour involved may be so heavy that it is detrimental to the women's health, especially during pregnancy and lactation.

Aggarwal (2001) stated that women become the critical actors in the process of moving their families out of poverty. It is a general fact that money earned by poor women is more likely to be spent on basic needs of life, children and family.

Bavasva Poornima (2001) have observed that working women have higher levels of nutrition knowledge than the non working women though the education status of both the group were same.

Rao and Rahman (2001) observed that in case of female adult also, the intake of cereals and millets decreased significantly with the increase of income and level of education. The quantitative foods such as pulses and legumes, roots and tubers, fruits, fish, and other sea foods meat and poultry products, milk and milk products, other vegetable, nuts and oilseeds, fats and edible oils and sugar increased significantly will the increase of income and education status.

Gopalan et al. (2002) found that diets of the poor income groups were deficient in several nutrients namely energy, vitamin A, calcium, riboflavin and iron. Food consumption among women was effected by the availability of agri-commodities, income, family composition, habit and tradition.

Chadha and Oluch (2003) observed that vitamin A deficiency and iron deficiency disproportionately affect women during their reproductive years and children, they hinder both the development of the individual human potential and national social and economic development.
According to Tania Burchardt (2005) disabled teenager’s hold the same aspiration to "stay in education and find fulfilling careers as their non-disabled classmates.

In a report published in Times of India (2005), it was noticed that women tend to ignore the most important aspect of being working professional and full-time mom. Their own daily diet and nutrition which lead to chronic stress and possibly burnout.

National Nutrition Programme: report: Dhaka: ICDDR, B. (2005), there are 1.2 billion adolescents age 10-19 in developing nations, making up one fifth to one quarter of their country’s populations. Adolescents have typically been considered a low risk group for poor health and often receive few health care resources and scant attention. However, this approach ignores the fact that many health problems later in life can be improved or avoided by adopting healthy life style habits in adolescence.

Adolescence is a unique intervention point in the life cycle. It offers a chance to acquire knowledge about optimal nutrition during young adulthood that could prevent or delay adult onset diet related illnesses later on. It is a stage of receptivity to new ideas and a point at which life style choices may determine an individuals life courses.

ICDDR B Health and Science Bulletin (2006) reported – one to improve female adolescent nutrition would be to improve their nutrition knowledge and practices. Today’s female adolescents are tomorrow’s mother who will play important roles in maintaining family health and nutrition. As a first September, we attempt to understand nutritional knowledge and practices of female adolescents living in rural Bangladesh.
ICDDR Health and Science Bulletin Vol. 4 No. 3 Sept (2006) reported most of the adolescent girls (65 %) reported understanding the need to take extra nutrients during adolescence to attain potential growth and this was positively associated with both education and household asset quintile. Ever use of iron supplements was 8 per cent in NNP project area and 21 per cent in BINP project area. Higher education was associated with higher iron intake in both areas. Iron intake was also higher among adolescents who understood the need to take more food during adolescence in both the areas. Intake was not related to household asset quintile.

Lois Meek Stolz (2006) says the nutritional status of women can be considerably influenced by attention during adolescence, with ‘spin-off’ benefits also to the children they bear later. Even children who are stunted and malnourished throughout childhood can experience catch up growth if fed adequately during their adolescent growth spurt, and achieve and adult size almost as great as children who were better nourished in their early years. For example, one African study demonstrated complete catch up during adolescence of a cohort of girls who at 10 years of age were 20 cms shorter than a normally nourished cohort (Rohde, 1987). Thus, mid-day meal programme for adolescents girls could have very long lasting benefits.