

Body Image and Westernization Trends Among Japanese Adolescents

Hailey E. Nielson, Justine J. Reel, Nick A. Galli, Benjamin T. Crookston, and Maya Miyairi

Abstract

Background and Aims: The purpose of this project was to examine body dissatisfaction and the degree of acculturation to Western media body ideals among Japanese adolescents. Furthermore, sex differences in body esteem were examined between male and female participants. **Methods:** Male and female participants (N=158) aged 15 to 18 years in Okinawa, Japan were surveyed about body image concerns and their degree of acculturation. Participants were recruited from churches and community sites in Okinawa. **Results:** An independent t-test revealed that girls internalized the thin ideal to a greater degree than boys. Pearson product-moment correlations showed significant positive correlation between acculturation and body esteem, and significant negative correlations between media influences (i.e., information and pressures subscales of the SATAQ-3) and body esteem. **Conclusions:** Overall, both male and female participants reported body image concerns. Japanese adolescents could benefit from an educational body image intervention that uses a cognitive dissonance approach.

Key words: Body esteem, body dissatisfaction, acculturation

Introduction

Japanese females are commonly stereotyped as delicate porcelain dolls, geisha girls or elegant women donning extravagant kimonos (Puzar, 2011). These types of images tend to represent Japanese women as beautiful objects intended for male affection. Interestingly, Asian women often emulate highly Westernized body ideals represented by tall, thin physiques and light-colored hair (Chisuwa & O’Dea, 2010). This tendency toward acculturation (i.e., the process in which a cultural group adopts the beliefs of another cultural group) was underscored by Mormoto and Chang’s (2009) finding that 74% of Japanese magazine ads and 14.3% of Japanese television commercials featured Caucasian models (Prieler, 2010). Exposure to Western models in the media has likely contributed to a rejection of stereotypical Asian facial features (e.g., epicanthic or slanted eyes). Japanese females have elected

for surgical enhancements (e.g., create a crease on eyelids) or reconstructive work to alter facial features (e.g., nose) (Dobke, Chung & Takabe, 2006; Hall-Iijima, 1995).

Additionally, Japanese females, who have historically associated light skin with spiritual refinement, femininity, purity and goodness, used white powder, grains, herbs, and juices from flowers to lighten their skin as darker skin was considered a product of outdoor labor. In the 1990s, Japanese women began to engage in tanning behaviors to achieve a tanner, more Westernized appearance as evidence of one’s leisure time in the sun (Hall-Iijima, 1995). Hair color has also become increasingly Westernized, as 80% of younger Japanese females lightened their hair with juice from flowers (e.g., indigo), herbs, or chemicals and dyes (On, 2003). All of these changes (e.g., hair lightening, cosmetic surgery) among Japanese females may represent elective behaviors designed to look more Western and less traditional in appearance (Kowner, 2004).

“Hattou Shin Beauty”

An interesting phenomenon related to body image for Japanese females has been the socially constructed ideal of the *hattou shin beauty* (i.e., desired aesthetic related to having the length of one’s head equal to 1/8 of one’s height (Swami, Caprario, Tovee, & Furnham, 2006). The “hattou shin beauty” ideal originated during World War II and resulted in the glorification of females who possessed a smaller head and longer legs (Kowner, 2004). Beginning in the early 1950s Japanese magazine articles and advertisements began to actively promote the hattou shin ideal by displaying models with unusually long legs, or using digitally enhanced images that display these unrealistic bodily proportions (Mukai, Kambara, & Sasaki, 1998). In attempts to strive for this ideal of longer and thinner legs, females have engaged in pathological weight management techniques such as skipping meals, obsessive exercise, vomiting, and using laxatives (Chisuwa & O’Dea, 2010).

Japanese Males and Body Image

The focus on beauty and changing one’s appearance has not been limited to Japanese females. The emergence of aesthetically conscious young Japanese males who have been targeted by growing fashion magazines (e.g., *Men’s Non-no*, *Fine Boys*, etc.) has led to an increased societal focus on male physiques, hairstyles, facial care and clothing (Iida, 2005). Young males who have been encouraged by media to improve and maintain muscular physiques and fashionable appearances are frequenting body-building studios and expensive hair and skin salons. Japanese males who fit the “male beauty ideal” are rewarded with careers in acting, modeling and win male

* Hailey Nielson, MS, CHES; Department of Health Promotion and Education, University of Utah, 250 S. 1850 E. Rm 200, Salt Lake City, Utah 84112; Phone: (801)301-0869; Email: elizabeth.hailey@gmail.com; Eta Sigma Gamma Chapter-At-Large member
Justine J. Reel, PhD, LPC, CC-AASP, University of Utah. Email: Justine.Reel@hsc.utah.edu
Nick Galli, PhD, CC-AASP, California State University at Northridge; E-mail: nick.galli@csun.edu
Benjamin T. Crookston, PhD, Brigham Young University; Email: benjamin_crookston@byu.edu
Maya Miyairi, M.S., University of Utah; Email: Maya.Miyairi@hsc.utah.edu

* Corresponding Author

beauty contests as well as the attention of females (Iida, 2005). Approximately 20% of Japanese boys reported dieting experiences (compared to 37% of their female adolescent counterparts) and 24% of Japanese male adolescents were attempting to lose weight regardless of their current weight (Chisuwa & O'Dea, 2010). Although more research is needed to examine sex differences and the body image of Japanese males, initial findings demonstrate that while females overestimated their body shape, males tended to underestimate their body size (Kagawa et al., 2007). Furthermore, Japanese girls aged 15-17 years reported a greater desire for thinness than the boys of the same age (Nishizawa, Kida, Nishizawa, Hashiba, Saito, & Mita, 2003).

Eating Disorders in Japan

Chisuwa and O'Dea (2010) estimated rates of anorexia nervosa in Japanese females and males (aged 13-18) to be 2.3% (Chisuwa & O'Dea, 2010). Approximately 5-10% of female adolescents display eating disorder symptoms, compared to 2-3% for their male counterparts, and eating disorder rates in Japan are estimated to be increasing among all age groups (Chisuwa & O'Dea, 2010). One probable explanation for the rise in eating disorders is the infiltration of westernized media images depicting ultra-thin models and actresses as well as an increased focus on male appearance in magazines and television. This trend toward increased disordered eating was observed in Fiji where the body ideal shifted to a more Western, thinner physique within three years of the introduction of the television and the Western media (Becker, 2004). Viewing advertisements affects self-esteem and self-confidence negatively causing anxiety, anger, depression and guilt-referred to as internalization (Watson et al, 2011). Interestingly, women in East and South East Asia have higher rates of body dissatisfaction than those in other parts of Asia (Swami et al, 2010). Surprisingly, Swami and colleagues also found that men in the 10 global sites who were exposed to western media chose thinner women (Swami et al, 2010). To the authors' knowledge, studies have not explored how western media affects adult and adolescent males' own body image.

The acceptance and internalization of unhealthy, ultrathin images which can lead to body dissatisfaction and pathogenic weight control behaviors (Yamamiya, Shroff, & Thompson, 2008) has been explained by objectification theory, which serves as the guiding theoretical framework for this study

Objectification Theory

Objectification theory (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997) was originally conceptualized to explain the objectification of females by males and the media; however, the theory has since been applied to males (e.g., Brown & Graham, 2008). This theory suggests that societal members tend to internalize socially constructed beauty ideals seen in the media which creates a self-monitoring gaze (Duncan, 1994). Importantly, objectification theory is relevant for explaining Japanese females' quest for more Westernized facial features and bodies mirroring the heavily advertised "hattou shin beauty." For Japanese males who are exposed to beauty ideals of fashionable models with trendy clothing, hairstyles and muscular

physiques, these appearance norms are reinforced on the pages of fashion and idol magazines (Iida, 2005). Ultimately for both males and females these images serve to enforce and motivate societal members to "take action" by engaging in frequent self-monitoring behaviors (e.g., gazing in mirrors), dieting, and other disordered behaviors (e.g., excessive exercise) (Chisuwa & O'Dea, 2010; Wiseman & Moradi, 2010).

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to explore body image concerns among male and female adolescents in Okinawa, Japan. Secondly, the study examined the relationship between body dissatisfaction and acculturation to Western ideals in the media. Specifically, this study tested the following hypotheses: 1) Japanese female adolescents would report significantly higher body dissatisfaction than their male adolescent counterparts; 2) acculturation would be positively correlated with body dissatisfaction; and 3) Japanese male and female adolescents' body dissatisfaction would be correlated with media exposure.

Methods

Participants

Upon Institutional Review Board Approval, one hundred and fifty eight participants including 75 males and 85 female adolescents were recruited and surveyed from churches and community sites (e.g., shopping malls) for this study in Okinawa, Japan. Once parental consent and assent forms were signed, participants completed a 60-minute survey translated into Japanese, the predominant language for this sample. A Japanese interpreter was available during data collection to answer questions. Participants were aged 15 to 18 years ($M = 16$; $SD = .91$) and most participants (79.4%) self-identified as Japanese only, 11.6% as Japanese and Caucasian and 8.9% as "other mix Japanese" (e.g., Japanese and Chinese, Japanese and Korean, Japanese and Philippine or Japanese and African American) or other.

Measures

Participants completed a demographic questionnaire which included items such as sex, age, race, household economic status, height (cm), current body weight (kg), desired body weight (kg), and sports' participation. Body dissatisfaction was measured using the 23-item Body-Esteem Scale for Adolescents and Adults (BES) which consists of three subscales: (a) appearance satisfaction (e.g., "I like what I look like in pictures"), (b) weight satisfaction (e.g., "I am satisfied with my weight"), and (c) others' attributions about my body and appearance (e.g., "others consider me good looking"). Scores on the BES items range from '0' (*never*) to '4' (*always*), with a higher score indicating stronger body esteem. The BES subscales have strong internal consistency reliability, with alpha coefficients of .89 (appearance), .92 (weight) and .83 (attribution) (Mendelson, Mendelson & White, 2001). Alpha coefficients in the present study were .78 (appearance), .75 (weight), and .74 (attribution).

Social body pressure was measured using the 30-item Sociocultural Attitudes Towards Appearance Questionnaire-3 (SATAQ-3) (Thompson, Van Den Berg, Roehrig, Guarda, & Heinberg, 2004). The SATAQ-3 contains four subscales: (a)

media pressures (e.g., with scores ranging from '1' (*definitely disagree*) to '5' (*definitely agree*) and has been found to have strong internal consistency ($\alpha = .92$) for the total scale. For the current study, internal consistency of the SATAQ-3 was as follows: total SATAQ-3 = .91, Media Pressures = .86, Media Information = .77, Internalization-General = .79, Internalization-Athlete = .67,

Lastly, the 21-item Suinn-Lew Asian Self-Identity Acculturation Scale (SLS; Suinn, Ahuna, & Khoo, 1992) was employed to measure acculturation to western ideals. The SLS contains six subscales (language, identity, friendship choice, behaviors, generation/geographic history and attitudes), and has strong internal consistency (Suinn et al., 1992; $\alpha = .91$). The alpha coefficient ($\alpha = .89$) for the SLS in this study was good.

Data Analysis

All study-related analyses were conducted using SPSS version 19.0. Box plots, histograms, Q-Q plots, frequency tables, and descriptive tables were examined for outliers, missing data, and non-normality. The Expected-maximization algorithm was used to replace missing values in the data set with maximum likelihood estimates (Schafer, 1997). Upon inspection, these data were considered non-skewed and normal. Further, non-significant ($p > .05$) Shapiro-Wilk tests for each dependent variable indicated normal distributions of these data. Means and standard deviations were computed for all variables (see Table 1).

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations for Body Esteem, Sociocultural Attitudes toward Appearance, and Acculturation

($N = 158$)

Variable	Total Sample		Boys (n=75)		Girls (n=83)	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
BES- Appearance	1.78	.72	2.00	.60	1.57	.75
BES – Weight	1.87	.77	2.18	.69	1.58	.73
BES – Attribution	1.23	.78	1.32	.76	1.14	.79
SATAQ-3 Total	2.82	.64	2.58	.57	3.03	.63
SATAQ-3 Information	3.08	.67	2.89	.64	3.26	.66
SATAQ-3 Pressures	2.48	.90	2.14	.77	2.77	.91
SATAQ-3 Internalization-General	2.90	.75	2.59	.69	3.19	.70
SATAQ-3 Internalization-Athlete	2.67	.81	2.62	.89	2.71	.72
SL Total	1.80	.60	1.71	.56	1.87	.63

Note. BES – Appearance = Appearance satisfaction subscale of the body esteem scale (0-4), BES – Weight = Weight satisfaction subscale of the body esteem scale (0-4), BES – Attribution = Others' evaluations about body and appearance subscale of the body esteem scale (0-4), SATAQ-3-Information = Media information subscale of the sociocultural attitudes towards appearance questionnaire-3 (1-5), SATAQ-3 Pressures = Media pressures subscale of the sociocultural attitudes towards appearance questionnaire-3 (1-5), SATAQ-3 Internalization-General – General internalization subscale of the sociocultural attitudes towards appearance questionnaire-3 (1-5), SATAQ-3 Internalization-Athlete = Athlete internalization subscale of the sociocultural attitudes towards appearance questionnaire-3 (1-5), SL Total = Total score on the Suinn-Lew Asian Self-Identity Acculturation.

To address the first hypothesis of the study, five independent-samples t-tests were conducted using sex as the independent variable, and the internalization-general and internalization-athlete subscales of the SATAQ-3, and all three subscales of the BES as the dependent variables. Cohen's d statistic was calculated to assess the effect size of the differences between boys and girls. To address the second hypothesis, Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated between the adolescents' total score on the SL scale and their scores on each of the BES subscales. Finally, to address the third hypothesis, Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated between scores on the information and pressure subscales of the SATAQ-3 and scores on each subscale of the BES. In order to reduce the risk of Type 1 error, an Alpha coefficient of less than .01 was used as the criterion for rejecting the null hypothesis for all analyses.

Results

An independent-samples t-test revealed that girls internalized the thin ideal to a greater degree than boys, $t(156) = -5.40$, $p < .001$, $d = 2.15$. Girls also reported significantly greater dissatisfaction with their appearance than boys, $t(156) = 4.00$, $p < .001$, $d = .52$, and greater dissatisfaction with their weight than boys $t(156) = 5.28$, $p < .001$, $d = .71$. However, no significant difference was found between boys and girls on the internalization-athlete subscale of the SATAQ-3, $t(156) = -.758$, $p = .450$, or on the attribution subscale of the BES, $t(156) = 1.43$, $p = .154$. Pearson product-moment correlations revealed significant positive correlations between acculturation and body esteem, and mostly significant negative correlations between media influences (i.e., information and pressures subscales of the SATAQ-3) and body esteem (see Table 2).

Table 2

Pearson Product-Moment Correlations between Body Esteem, Acculturation, and Media Pressures

($N = 156$)

Variable	SL - TotalSATAQ-3	Information	SATAQ-3 Pressures
BES - Appearance	* .259	* -.429	* -.438
BES - Weight	* .205	* -.390	* -.459
BES - Attribution	* .298	-.086	.145

* $p < .01$

Note. BES - Appearance = Appearance satisfaction subscale of the body esteem scale (0-4), BES - Weight = Weight satisfaction subscale of the body esteem scale (0-4), BES - Attribution = Others' attributions about body and appearance subscale of the body esteem scale (0-4), SATAQ-3-Information = Media information subscale of the sociocultural attitudes towards appearance questionnaire-3 (1-5), SATAQ-3 Pressures = Media pressures subscale of the sociocultural attitudes towards appearance questionnaire-3 (1-5), SL Total = Total score on the Suinn-Lew Asian Self-Identity Acculturation.

Discussion

This study examined body image and acculturation among female and male adolescents in Okinawa, Japan. Predictably, Japanese female adolescents reported significantly more body dissatisfaction than their male counterparts, supporting the study hypothesis and earlier research findings related to sex with Japanese participants of a similar age (e.g., Nishizawa et al., 2003). Additionally, girls in this study internalized the thin ideal more than boys, experienced more body appearance dissatisfaction, and more weight dissatisfaction than their male counterparts. Interestingly, boys did not select more athletic body ideals than girls, which contrasted with earlier work suggesting that male adolescents had a strong desire for

muscularity (Chisuwa & O'Dea, 2010). This finding suggests that male body ideals in Okinawa might be more similar to their female counterparts, which is a drive for a thinner, leaner physique rather than for larger musculature. Ultimately, objectification theory was supported in this study with the thin internalization of media images evident among the adolescents.

Although girls had significantly lower body esteem scores than boys, scores were on the lower end of the scale for both sexes. Specifically, male participants' average scores indicated that they only *sometimes* liked their appearance ($M = 2.00$), and *sometimes* or *often* liked their weight ($M = 2.18$). Further, they *seldom* to *sometimes* felt that others liked their appearance ($M = 1.32$). Female participants' average scores on the appearance ($M = 1.57$), weight ($M = 1.58$), and

attribution ($M = 1.14$) subscales indicated that they *seldom* or *sometimes* liked their appearance and weight, and *seldom* or *sometimes* felt that others liked their appearance. Our study was consistent with findings in previous studies that found Japanese participants tend to report lower self-esteem and body-esteem than their Western counterparts (e.g., Kowner, 2002). Decreased self-esteem within Japanese culture has been attributed to “taijin kyofu sho” (i.e., social anxiety) diagnosed in 30% of Japanese adolescents (Chisuwa & O’Dea, 2010; Kowner, 2002). Furthermore, adolescents are taught that being confident and assertive is considered immature, selfish, and poor form (Kayano et al, 2008). Heine et al.’s (2008) findings reinforce that Japanese women are more critical about their bodies than North American women because they tend to compare their bodies to a somewhat nebulous perceived ideal (Heine, Takemoto, Moskalkenko, Lasaleta, & Henrich, 2008).

Higher identification with being Asian was associated with higher body esteem. However, the high scores on the Suinn-Lew Asian Self-Identity Acculturation Scale (Suinn, 1992) revealed that the majority of both boys and girls reported a tendency toward being acculturated to western values. There tends to be a positive correlation between acculturation and body esteem when immigrants are acculturated to the values of their home country (Bakhshi, 2011). A better understanding is needed regarding acculturation to western values in non-immigrant persons in their native country and the effect on body esteem. The results of one study suggested that the level of acculturation does not increase an Asian woman’s likelihood of developing eating disturbances (Bakhshi, 2011); however our study results suggest that acculturation to western body ideals was correlated with having lower body esteem. Therefore, it is important that researchers and clinicians who work with diverse populations are aware of the influence on acculturation on body image.

Practical Implications and Future Directions

The inverse relationship between media exposure and body image, thus perpetuating a western ideal, suggests this population would benefit from an educational body image intervention based on cognitive dissonance (i.e., the psychological discomfort resulting from conflicting thoughts) to change cognitions (Festinger, 1957; Heine et al., 2008). Any body image intervention conducted with international populations should include a focus on challenging cognitions regarding Western body ideals. Incorporating eating disorder prevention programs into health classes has been suggested (Chisuwa & O’Dea, 2010) and is warranted given the emphasis on beauty and appearance among both male and female adolescents in Japan.

Health educators should be aware of weight biases they have when considering a body image and eating disorder prevention program, as comments to participants about weight can further exacerbate the mood disorder that might be contributing to negative body image or eating disorders in addition to reducing weight teasing by peers (Miyairi & Reel, 2011). Authors suggest that educators can reduce weight-related stigma in their programs by identifying their own biases about weight, modifying school policies to punish bullying behavior and adopting school- wide “no teasing” policies that

include techniques for dealing with teasing (Miyairi & Reel, 2011).

The purpose of primary prevention programs is to prevent behaviors from occurring rather than treating the symptoms; therefore, eating disorder prevention programs should ideally be implemented with upper elementary school students to stop the behavior from occurring (Kater, Rohwer & Londre, 2002). Kater, Rohwer and Londre (2002) found that only 10 out of 42 prevention programs are implemented on the upper elementary school population with just one being successful (i.e., Eating Smart/Eating for Me). Newly created programs should consider addressing critical thinking skills and realistic attitudes that can counteract pressures about appearance, weight and eating that might become problematic during middle school. For example, the Healthy Body Image: Teaching Kids to Eat and Love Their Bodies Too! Program discusses appearance changes during puberty, genetic diversity, internal weight regulation, biology of hunger deprivation, hunger satisfaction with wholesome foods, increased physical activity, attention to diverse identities and choosing realistic role models (Kater et al., 2002). Authors suggest that using a self-esteem based approach to programming during puberty should consider increasing acceptance of cultural differences in ideal body size, avoid emphasizing unhealthy eating behaviors and provide participants with skills that positively affect self-concept is key to successful body image programs (Watt, Rancourt, Cousineau & Franko, 2005).

To create an effective body image program, authors Reel and Holowich (2010) summarized the “do’s” to consider for eating disorder and obesity prevention in a community setting: 1) promote health at every size, 2) promote physical activity, 3) dissect the media’s messages, 4) Include multiple sessions, 5) target the program to at risk populations, 6) make the program interactive, 7) involve the parents with in home assignments, and 8) address emotional eating. They outlined several major “don’t’s” including: 1) do not use shocking images, 2) do not introduce pro ana websites, 3) do not implement the program with males and females, and 4) do not overemphasize body weight and composition when evaluating changes for program efficacy.

The current study had several limitations, including the use of a convenience sample of adolescents who were accessible to the investigators. It is suggested that future researchers use random assignment to investigate body image and acculturation within a large school sample. Also self-report was used to obtain all data, which could have led to results being biased by participant’s selective memories. Future body image studies should also examine the effects of the strict caloric control and dieting among adolescents related to school performance. It is suspected that if inadequate food intake is correlated with poor academic performance among Japanese adolescents, it will be possible to gain support for eating disorder interventions within this population. Additionally, it would be useful to investigate the association between body image and the use of cosmetic surgery to achieve a more Westernized appearance. If future studies determine that Japanese adolescents are continuing to use tanning beds and sunning without sunscreen to achieve a tanned, more westernized appearance, a multi-faceted program that promotes positive body image, healthy eating, exercise and skin health would be imperative.

Conclusion

The purpose of this current study was to investigate the relationship between acculturation and body image among male and female adolescents in Okinawa, Japan. Unsurprisingly, Japanese female adolescents reported significantly lower body esteem and stronger body dissatisfaction than their male counterparts. However, adolescent Japanese boys also expressed poor body esteem and the desire to change their physiques. Positive relationships were found between acculturation and body esteem, suggesting that acculturation leads to more negative body image. An inverse relationship was demonstrated between media exposure and body esteem, which indicated that media images negatively impact the body image of adolescents in Okinawa.

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**This article may provide one
Continuing Education Contact Hour Opportunity for CHES (Approval Pending)**

Instructions and self-study questions may be found on page 46

From the Editor...

Please join me in welcoming our colleagues who have agreed to serve 3 year terms as Editorial Associates: Drs. Helen Bland, Sue Forster Cox, Tammy James, Regina Galer-Unti and Laurette Taylor. I am thankful you are lending your time and expertise to maintain a quality journal. I am pleased to note the Spring 2013 issue encompasses articles ranging from body image and acculturation in Japanese adolescents (see Nielson et al) to protective associations and non-tobacco use among youth in Oklahoma (refer to Tolma et al). Jozkowski and colleagues describe a Reasoned Action Approach (RAA) to understanding university health center providers beliefs about discussing sexual health prevention while Yan & Cardinal offer an application of the Youth Physical Activity Promotion Model for increasing physical activity among international Asian students enrolled in U.S. campuses. Finally Mead & Chapman describe the development of a preconception peer education program implemented for a historically black college and university (HBCU). Throughout all of these articles, health educators are working hard to improve the health and well-being of individuals and communities. Thank you for sharing your strategies and results.

Finally, please take a few minutes and read Dr. Richard Eberst's (ESG Historian) touching tribute for Dr. Bob Synovitz. As one of three founders of Honorary, Dr. Synovitz (along with Dr. Bill Bock and the late Dr. Warren Schaller) envisioned a national honorary for health educators where members could strive for excellence in teaching, service and research. Their dream was realized in 1967 when Eta Sigma Gamma was founded. I remember meeting Dr. Synovitz for the first time at an ESG/ASHA fall meeting in 1988 or 1989. He truly exemplified the phrase "Health Education Advocate," Most importantly, he made it a point to seek out health education students and take an interest in his/her goals and welcomed you into the profession. May we all continue this example and welcome our students and new professionals as genuinely as Bob did. That one small step will be the best tribute to Dr. Synovitz and a lasting legacy for the profession.

Continuing Education Contact Hour Self-Study

Body Image and Westernization Trends among Japanese Adolescents

Active members of Eta Sigma Gamma may receive one (Category 1) continuing education contact hour for CHES and MCHES. Complete the self-study questions below by circling the correct answer and completing your contact information. A score of 80% is passing. Send a copy of this page to: Susan Koper, Eta Sigma Gamma, 2000 University Avenue, CL 325, Muncie IN 47306; or FAX this page to 765-285-3210. This CECH opportunity is available from August 1, 2013 through July 30 2014.

- All of the following are changes that Japanese females have done to look more Western and less traditional **except**:
 - Hair darkening
 - Cosmetic surgery
 - Using juice from flowers to lighten skin tone
 - Skipping meals to lose weight
- What is one probable cause for the rise in eating disorders in Japan?
 - Westernized media images depicting muscular models
 - Decreased focus on male masculinity
 - Westernized media images depicting ultra-thin models
 - The introduction of billboards depicting Western muscular models
- What theory is the guiding theoretical framework for this study?
 - Objectification theory
 - Grounded theory
 - Sociological theory
 - Typological theory
- What was the purpose of the study?
 - To examine the relationship between self-esteem and body satisfaction in Japanese adolescents to Western ideals in the media.
 - To only explore body image concerns among female adolescents in Okinawa, Japan.
 - To examine the relationship between acculturation and self-esteem in Japanese adolescents to Western ideals in the media.
 - To explore body image concerns among male and females adolescents in Okinawa, Japan.
- The participants in this study were recruited from which location?
 - A local high school in Okinawa
 - Churches and community sites
 - A college in Okinawa
 - Gym facility
- Which of the following was not a measure (scale or questionnaire) used to obtain strong internal consistency?
 - 23-item Body-Esteem Scale for Adolescents and Adults
 - 30-item Sociocultural Attitudes Towards Appearance Questionnaire-3
 - 25-item Body Image Attitudes Towards Media Questionnaire
 - 21-item Suinn-Lew Asian Self-Identity Acculturation Scale
- When the authors conducted the 5 independent-samples t-tests, what was used as the independent variable?
 - Gender
 - Weight
 - Age
 - Race
- The Pearson product-moment correlations revealed significant positive correlations between what two subscales?
 - Acculturation & media influences
 - Media influences & body esteem
 - Body esteem & acculturation
 - Self-esteem & media influences
- Female adolescents in this study supported the hypothesis and earlier research findings because the results concluded all of the following except:
 - Females internalized the thin ideal more than males
 - Females experienced less body appearance dissatisfaction than males
 - Females experienced more weight dissatisfaction than males
 - Females experienced more body appearance dissatisfaction than males
- According to the authors, which of the following is a limitation of the study?
 - Sample size was too small
 - Self-report bias
 - Validity
 - Using a convenience sample of adolescents

Name: _____

Address: _____

E-mail: _____

CHES/MCHES #: _____

Remember to keep a copy for your records.