SMOKING BEHAVIOUR RELATED TO HEALTH STATUS, SELF ESTEEM, LIFE SATISFACTION AND PERCEIVED SOCIAL SUPPORT IN AN ADOLESCENT SAMPLE

MONIKA CSIBI¹, SÁNDOR CSIBI², MARTON DÉNES³, ZOLTÁN ÁBRÁM⁴

1,2,3,4 University of Medicine and Pharmacy Tîrgu-Mureș

Keywords: smoking, health behaviour, adolescence, social support Abstract: The study aim to analyze the differences in cigarette smoking behaviour related with the perceived social support from family and school. The instrumentation consists of the questionnaire based on the HBSC survey containing healthy lifestyle and social context's items, Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965) and Life Satisfaction Scale (Cantril, 1965). Participants are 447 students from Romanian high schools (11-12 graders), aged between 17-18 years (mean age 17.4 years). Results show that frequent smokers spend a significantly higher amount of time with friends, but they perceive relevantly inferior level of social support from family, a lower health status, and life satisfaction. Frequently, smoking participants report an unfavourable school attitude, lack of satisfaction with their physical constitution and lower perceived level of support from their teachers. The study concludes for the importance of increasing social support when targeting the improvement of health behaviour.

INTRODUCTION

Adolescence is a stressful and vulnerable period of development, generally marked by a tendency to experience poorer mental health based on an increase in the adoption of risk behaviours such as tobacco or alcohol use.(1,2) Data collected by the National Youth Risk Behaviour Survey (3) indicate that almost 45% of high-school students tried a cigarette, and 18% smoked cigarettes on at least one day during the 30 days before the survey. According to the ESPAD Survey (European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs; Swedish Council for Information on Alcohol and Other Drugs - CAN), 54% of the students from participating countries reported that they had smoked cigarettes at least once, and 28% that they had used cigarettes during the past 30 days. The lifetime prevalence rates of cigarette smoking ranged between 26% and 78%. Nearly onethird of the participants (31%) smoked a cigarette at the age of 13 or younger.(4) In Europe, HBSC (Health Behaviour in School-aged Children Study; WHO Regional Office for Europe) studies revealed that health-compromising behavior (particularly smoking and alcohol consumption) seems to increase relevantly between ages 13 and 15.(5)

The number of health behaviours decreases together with the increase in age and also the occurrence of risk behaviour increases significantly, manifested in an unhealthy diet; substance consume, and the raised amount of time spent in front of TV and computer.(6) Furthermore, researchers suggested that adolescents were more vulnerable to the addictive properties of nicotine because the duration of smoking and the number of cigarettes required to establish nicotine addiction are lower comparing to adults.(7,8,9)

Influences of social support on smoking behaviour

Adolescence represents a time in which teenage people became of increased autonomy over their behaviours and with whom they spend their free time. The studies sustain that both positive and negative influences need to be taken into consideration when analyzing teenagers parental and peer relationships' complex dynamics.(10,11,12) The influences of family, peers, and school-interactions, are the primary sources

for both pros- and anti-smoking messages in adolescents' lives.(13) Family support, adequate school environment and peer support, are among the most consistent and important factors associated with adolescent smoking.(14) Researchers argue that the social determinants of health during adolescence relevantly influence the level of self-rated health and well-being for long-term later, in the adult life.(15) The different norms, others' expectations, and behaviours might also play an important role in prescribing an approved behaviour.(16) The authors emphasize also the protective effect of positive parenting practices in preventing the adoption of smoking (11,7,18,19) Studies conclude that positive relationships with parents show negative association with smoking initiation and intensity.(20) Maternal and paternal smoking both relate significantly to the risk of smoking initiation.(21,22,23) Schoolmates' support relates to higher self-appreciation and to a better school adjustment.(12,24) Peers are, therefore, valuable social contacts who contribute to young people's health and well-being but could also have proven to exercise negative influences in relation to risk behaviours, such as smoking and drinking.(25) HBSC findings show that those children, who perceive their school as supportive, were more likely to engage in positive health behaviours and prove low smoking prevalence.(26) School acceptance is treated as the most common factor of colleague support provided by school environment, and also proved relevant implications on teenagers' school motivation, self-efficiency, somatic complaints and overall psychosocial well-being.(27,28,29,30,31) Positive school experiences and favourable attitude toward school show strong association with a higher level of self-reported quality of life.(32,33,34,35) These associations suggest that schools might have an important role in supporting young people's well-being and in acting as buffers against negative health behaviours and outcomes.(36) Researchers emphasize the strong association between socializing influences and smoking behaviour among early adolescents, indicating that smoking prevention efforts considering normative pressures from peers should begin prior to middle school.(37)

²Corresponding author: Sándor Csibi, Nr. 231, Corunca, România, E-mail: csibi.sandor@umftgm.ro, Phone: +40740 807118 Article received on 27.11.2017 and accepted for publication on 26.02.2018 ACTA MEDICA TRANSILVANICA March 2018;23(1):1-5

PUBLIC HEALTH AND MANAGEMENT

Psychological health outcomes and cigarette smoking
Studies suggest that teenagers treat smoking as a
weight-reduction instrument, especially among adolescent
overweight girls.(38,39) Physical development significantly
predicts smoking among girls who perceive themselves as
looking older comparing to their peer.(40) Dissatisfaction with
body weight and the belief that smoking has weight-controlling
effects were associated with an increased likelihood of
adolescent smoking.(41) Adolescents who ever tried smoking or
reported current smoking had poor opinions of both their
physical and mental health, besides the adoption of a more
unhealthy diet, or lack of activity.(42,43) Adolescents
perceiving higher level of stress are more likely to smoke than
those with low perceived tension are; self-esteem in the area of
school subjects has a mediator role in the relationship between

PURPOSE

stress and smoking.(26,40,44,45,46)

The present study set as goal the analysis of the differences in cigarette smoking behaviour related to the perceived social support from family, peers, and school. Further, we assess health variables, such as self-rated health, self-esteem, life-satisfaction and body image among adolescent participants.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Instrumentation. We assessed the health-related behavior through the questionnaire based on the HBSC Surveys containing demographic data (gender, age), healthy lifestyle and social context's items.(5,6) The questionnaire included the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (RSRS), (47) and Life Satisfaction Scale (Cantril ladder).(48)

We obtained data regarding smoking initiation and frequency through answers to the question: *Have you ever tried a cigarette?* and *How often you smoked tobacco?*, with response options ranging from "daily" to "no smoking".

Variables of the *social support* were:

- from family: family structure (presence or absence of one member: mother, father and sisters/brothers) and support from the family (easy or difficult communication with members: mother, father, brothers, and sisters);
- from peers: number of friends (boys or girls: less than three friends and more than three friends) and time spent with friends (0-2 days/week and 3-5 days/week – both outside the weekend);
- school settings: liking school (response options ranged from "I like it a lot" to "I don't like it at all"); classroom climate (from "strongly agreed" to "not agree at all"); school-related stress (how pressured they feel by the schoolwork response options ranged from "a lot" to" not at all"); school acceptance (from "strongly agreed" to "not agree at all"); teachers' attitude toward students (favourable from "strongly agreed" to "not agree at all") and perceived acceptance from them (response options ranged from "strongly agreed" to "not agree at all")

Health-behaviour variables:

- self-rated health (with response options of "excellent," "good," "fair" and "poor");
- life satisfaction (respondents were asked to indicate the step of the ladder at which they would place their lives at present – from "0" to "10");
- global self-esteem, (RSRS, scores from "0" to "40");
- body-image (adolescents were asked about how they perceive their bodies. Response options ranged from "much too thin" to "much too fat")
- weight-control behaviour (response options ranged from: "no, my weight is fine" to "Yes; I was on a diet, or I am doing something else to lose weight").

Participants. 447 students participated to the study, attending high schools in 11-12 classes, aged between 17-18 years (mean age 17.4 years); 235 were 17 years old, from 11th class, and 212 were 18 years old, from 12th class. Regarding their gender, 191 was boys (42,7%,) and 256 girls (57,3%); among the 17 years olds 95 was boys and 140 girls, and among the 18 years, 96 was boys and 116 girls. The included school classes were chosen in a random way. Filling the questionnaire took 40 minutes and was administrated during a class hour.

Statistical analysis. Data were performed with the PASW Statistics program version18. We use descriptive statistics descriptive statistical analysis for calculation of mean values, variations, dispersions, comparative analysis of percentages, and nonparametric method of Mann-Whitney U Test.

RESULTS

As a first approach, we summarize the percentages of scores obtained along the analyzed variables in our study, comparatively with the Romanian HBSC data and the European HBSC average (table no. 1).

Table no. 1. Comparative statistics of the analyzed variables

regarding the gender (percentage)

	Percentage*		Romanian		HBSC	
VARIABLES	in the study		data		average**	
	girl	boys	girls	boys	girls	boys
Smoking behaviour variables:						
Smoking initiation (ever tried to smoke)	69	68	43	55	49	50
Smoking frequency (at least once a week)	27	29	15	25	17	19
Psychological health variables:						
Self-rated health (rated as fair or poor)	37	25	27	13	23	14
Life satisfaction (high: score of 6 or more)	67	70	68	81	79	86
Global self-esteem (high: score 30 or more)	34	53	-	-	-	-
Body-image (perceiving to be too fat)	36	17	27	18	40	22
Weight-control behaviour (currently engaged)	30	15	16	10	22	9
Social support variables:						
Family structure (single parents)	7	6	17	17	13	13
Communication with mothers (easy to talks)	63	53	86	89	77	78
Communication with fathers (easy to talks)	18	29	59	79	50	69
Time spent with friends (four or more evenings/week)	32	45	26	39	24	32
Number of friends (three or more friends)	76	95	68	79	75	80
Liking school (like school a lot)	79	63	40	24	25	20
Pressured by schoolwork (a lot or some)	37	32	47	38	46	37
Classmate support (agreed or strongly agreed)	87	84	61	55	66	65
School acceptance (agreed or strongly agreed)	96	95	-	-	-	-
Teachers attitude toward students (favourable)	71	74	-	-	-	-
Perceived acceptance from teachers (feeling accepted)	62	76	-		-	-
* magn aga in our study: 17 1 ag	0					

^{*} mean age in our study: 17.4 age

^{**} for 15,1 years old adolescents, based on the 2009/2010 survey (Currie et al., 2012)

Nonparametric data analysis show relevant associations between the social support from the family and the smoking initiation and frequency (table no. 2).

Table no. 2. Differences in smoking initiation and frequency depending on social support from family (Mann-Whitney U Test)

Variables		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p			
Smoking initiation (1-tried, 2-not tried)									
	Good comm. with mother	258	231,80	59805	21594	0,025			
Social support	Poor comm. with mother	186	209,60	38985	21394				
from the family	Good comm. with sister(s)	51	189,56	9667,5	8341,5	0.012			
	Poor comm. with sister(s)	396	228,44	90460,5	0541,5	0,012			
	Smoking frequency (1-daily, 2-at least once a week, but not every day, 3-less than once a week, 4-no smoking)								
	Presence of mothers	418	226,78	94795,5	4897.5	0,048			
Family structure	Absence of mothers	29	183,88	5332,5	4097,3				
	Presence of fathers	346	229,73	79487,5	15489.5	0.047			
	Absence of the fathers	101	204,36	20640,5	13469,3	0,047			
	Good comm. with mother	258	231,39	59698	21701	0,049			
	Poor comm. with mother	186	210,17	39092	21701				
Social support	Good comm. with father	102	244,78	24968	15475	0.034			
from the family	Poor comm. with father	345	217,86	75160	13473	0,034			
	Good comm. with sister(s)	51	174,39	8894	7568	0.001			
	Poor comm. with sister(s)	396	230,39	91234	7308	0,001			
Total	N=447								

Perceived social support from family reported through positive communication with the mother (p=0.025) or other family members (for example the positive communication with sisters significant, p=0.012) significantly influence the smoking initiation of our participants. Contrary, teenagers reporting poor communication with their mothers proved significantly higher frequency of cigarette smoking.

Family structure seems to exert a relevant impact on adolescents smoking. Regarding the smoking frequency, our results show that teenagers living in the absence of mothers (p=0.048) and fathers (p=0.047) are reporting a higher level of smoking frequency. Besides, the poor communication with mother and father significantly influence the increased frequency of smoking. Results show that good communication with the teenagers' sisters (p=0.001) also lead to higher frequency of smoking among our participants.

Concerning the time spent with friends, we found a substantially higher level of occurrence of smoking among teenagers who spend 3-5 days per week with their friends (p=0.013), comparing to their colleagues who spend less time with peers (0-2 days per week) (table no. 3). Among the teenagers reporting fewer friendship relations (p=0.040) the occurrence of smoking proved to be significantly higher. The teenagers spending more time with their friends (p=0.010) report a higher level of smoking frequency.

Table no. 3. Differences in smoking initiation and frequency depending on social support from peers (U Test)

Variables		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p		
Smoking initi	ation (1-tried, 2-	not tri	ed)					
Time spent	0-2 days/week	165	239,84	39573	20652	0.013		
with friends	3-5 days/week	282	214,73	60555	20032	0,013		
	Smoking frequency (1-daily, 2-at least once a week, but not every day, 3-less than once a week, 4-no smoking)							
Number of friends (boys)	Less than 3 friends	71	249,25	17004	11555	0.040		
	More than 3 friends	376	219,23	83124	11333	0,040		
Time spent	0-2 days/week	165	241,87	39909	20316	0.010		
with friends	3-5 days/week	282	213,54	60219	20316	0,010		
Total	N=447							

Regarding the associations between the smoking initiation and the factors of social support from the school, we summarized data in table 4 below. Results show that the teachers' attitude (p=0.041), perceived level of school pressure (p=0.016), and the teenagers' attitudes toward school-life (p=0.001), are significantly related to the smoking occurrence. Thus, the negative perception of school (disliking school) and the higher levels of pressure by homework and school tasks are associated with a higher occurrence of smoking initiation. We also found significant relations between the perceived unfavourable attitude of teachers and the stronger occurrence of smoking.

We found similar results regarding the smoking frequency. Data support that the negative perception of school (p=0.001) (disliking school), the higher levels of perceived school acceptance (p=0.018) and unfavourable attitude of teachers (p=0.009) are associated with the increased level of smoking frequency.

Table no. 4. Differences in smoking initiation and frequency depending on social support in school settings (U Test)

Variables		N	Mean	Sum of	U	_		
v ai iables			Rank	Ranks	U	p		
Smoking initiation (1-tried, 2-not tried)								
Attitude	Positive	324	236,59	76654,5				
toward school	Negative	123	190,84	23473,5	15847,5	0,001		
School	High	155	207,85	32217	20127	0,016		
pressure	Low	292	232,57	67911	20127			
Teachers	Positive	325	230,15	74797,5	17827,5	0.041		
attitude	Negative	122	207,63	25330,5	17027,3	0,041		
	Smoking frequency (1-daily, 2-at least once a week, but not every day, 3-less than once a week, 4-no smoking)							
Attitude	Positive	324	236,63	76668				
toward school	Negative	123	190,73	23460	15834	0,001		
School	High	427	221,27	94481,5	3103,5	0,018		
acceptance	Low	20	282,33	5646,5	3103,3	0,016		
Teachers	Positive	325	232,48	75557	17068	0,009		
attitude	Negative	122	201,40	24571	17008			
Total	N=447							

Negative self-rated health (p=0.033), the higher level of life-satisfaction (p=0.049) and the absence of weight control behaviour (p=0.005) are relevantly associated with the smoking initiation (see table no. 5).

Positive self-esteem (p=0.048), but a more unfavourable body image (p=0.003), besides the lack of weight control behaviour (p=0.027) proves relevant associations with the higher reported frequency of smoking.

Table no. 5. Differences in smoking initiation and frequency depending on adolescents' psychological health factors (Mann-Whitney U Test)

V		N	Mean	Sum of	**		
Variables			Rank Ranks		U	p	
Smoking initiation (1-tried, 2-not tried)							
Self-rated	Positive	303	231,21	70057,5	19630,5	0,033	
health	Negative	144	208,82	30070,5	19030,3	0,033	
Life	High	356	219,16	78022,5	14476 5	0,049	
satisfaction	Low	91	242,92	22105,5	14476,5		
Weight-	Presence	194	239,16	46512			
control	Absence	253	211,92	53616	21485	0,005	
behaviour	Absence		211,92	33010			
Smoking freque	uency (1-dail	y, 2-at	least once	e a week, bi	ut not every	day, 3-	
less than once	e a week, 4-n	o smok	ing)				
Self-esteem	High	29	184,00	5336	4901	0,048	
Sen-esteem	Low	418	226,78	94792	4901	0,040	
	Favourabl	83	117,49	0752	4026	0,003	
Body-image	e		117,49 9752	9132			
Body-illiage	Not	124	94,97	11776	4020	0,003	
	favourable		94,97	11770			
Weight-	Presence	194	237,48	46071			
control	Absence	253	213,66	54057	21926	0,027	
behaviour	Absence		213,00	34037			
Total	N=447						

DISCUSSIONS

This study emphasizes the importance of the social support in reducing the adolescents' smoking initiation and frequency. The time spent with peers proves both positive and negative influences on teenagers' smoking behaviour. Frequently smoking teenagers spent a significantly higher amount of time with friends, but they perceive a relevantly inferior level of social support from family, besides a lower reported health status. On the other hand, frequent smokers seem to perceive a higher level of life-satisfaction. They also proved unfavourable school attitude, lack of satisfaction with their physical constitution and lower perceived level of support from teachers. The increasing need for affiliation as a special characteristic of this age group and the easier involvement in multiple risk situations serve as an explanation for these results.

CONCLUSIONS

Our results support that school settings play an important role in the smoking behaviour of adolescents, including the perceived support provided by schoolmates and teachers, favourable classroom atmosphere and their own positive attitude toward school. Thus, we can sustain that by enhancing the social support in the school environment, and assuring the development of a more emphatic climate in school classes, may help students in avoiding smoking. The analyzed factors exert important influences on the development of a school-related self-image, based on the appreciations and evaluations of the teenagers' own abilities in learning achievement and the efficiency of social interactions in the school environment.

REFERENCES

- Schulenberg J, Maggs JL, & Hurrelmann K. Negotiating development transitions during adolescence and young adulthood: Health risks and opportunities. In Schulenberg J, Maggs L & Hurrelmann K (Eds.). Health risks and developmental transitions during adolescence, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press; 1999. p. 1-20.
- Mendel JR, Berg CJ, Windle RC & Windle M. Predicting young adulthood smoking among adolescent smokers and nonsmokers. Am J Health Behav. 2012;36(4):542-554. doi:10.5993/AJHB.36.4.11.

- U.S. Department of Health and Human Services Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance – United States, 2011. Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report; 2012;61 (4):4-45.
- Hibell B, Guttormsson U, Ahlström S, Balakireva O, Bjarnason T, Kokkevi A & Kraus L. The 2011 ESPAD Report: Substance Use among Students in 36 European Countries. The Swedish Council for Information on Alcohol and Other Drugs (CAN); 2012.
- Currie C et al. Social determinants of health and well-being among young people. Health Behaviour in School-aged Children (HBSC) study: international report from the 2009/2010 survey, Copenhagen, WHO Regional Office for Europe (Health Policy for Children and Adolescents, No. 6): 2012.
- Németh Á & Költő A editors. Serdülőkorú fiatalok egészsége és életmódja 2010. Országos Gyermekegészségügyi Intézet, Budapest; 2011.
- DiFranza JR, Savageau JA, Rigotti NA et al. Development of symptoms of tobacco dependence in youths: 30 months follow up data from the DANDY study. Tobacco Control. 2002;11:228-235.
- Prokhorov, Alexander V, et al. Youth tobacco use: a global perspective for child health care clinicians. Pediatrics 118.3 (2006): e890-e903.
- Orlando M, Tucker JS, Ellickson PL, Klein DJ. Developmental trajectories of cigarette smoking and their correlates from early adolescence to young adulthood. J Consult Clin Psych. 2004;72(3):400-410.
- 10. Settertobulte W, Matos M. Peers and health. In: Currie C et al. (eds.) Young people's health in context: international report from the HBSC 2001/2002 survey. WHO policy series: health policy for children and adolescents. Issue 4, WHO Regional Office for Europe, Copenhagen; 2004.
- Del Carmen Granado Alcon M et al. Greenlandic family structure and communication with parents: influence on school children's drinking behavior. International Journal of Circumpolar Health. 2002;61:319-331.
- Berndt T. Friendship and friends' influence in adolescence.
 In: Muss R, Porton H editors. Adolescent behavior and society. Boston, MA, McGraw-Hill; 1999.
- 13. Crawford MA. Cigarette Smoking and Adolescents: Messages They See and Hear. Public Health Reports. 2001;Supp 1, 116:203-215.
- 14. Kobus K. Peers and adolescent smoking. Addiction. 2003;98:37-55.
- Viner RM, Ozer EM, Denny S, Marmot M, Resnick M, Fatusi A & Currie C. Adolescence and the social determinants of health. Lancet. 2012;379:1641-52.
- Dohnke B, Weiss-Gerlach E & Spies CD. Social influences on the motivation to quit smoking: Main and moderating effects of social norms. Addictive Behaviors. 2011;36:286-293
- Simons-Morton B, Farhat T. Recent Findings on Peer Group Influences on Adolescent Substance Use. J Prim Prev. 2010;31(4):191-208. doi:10.1007/s10935-010-0220-x.
- Andersen MR et al. Mothers attitudes and concerns about their children smoking: do they influence kids? Preventive Medicine. 2002;34:198-206.
- 19. Zambon A et al. Do welfare regimes mediate the effect of SES on health in adolescence? A cross-national comparison in Europe, North America and Israel. International Journal of Health Services. 2006;36(2):309-329.
- 20. Carvajal SC et al. Psychosocial determinants of the onset and escalation of smoking: cross-sectional and prospective findings in multiethnic middle school samples. Journal of

PUBLIC HEALTH AND MANAGEMENT

- Adolescent Health. 2000;27(4):255-265.
- 21. Gilman SE et al. Parental smoking and adolescent smoking initiation: an intergenerational perspective on tobacco control. Pediatrics. 2009;123(2):e274–e281. doi:10.1542/peds.2008-2251.
- Resnick MD et al. Protecting adolescents from harm: findings from the National Longitudinal Study on Adolescent Health. Journal of the American Medical Association. 1997;278:823-832.
- 23. Young et al. The role of parent and peer support in predicting adolescent depression: a longitudinal community study. Journal of research on adolescence. 2005;15(4):407-423
- Schneider BH. Friends and enemies: peer relations in childhood. London, Arnold; 2000.
- 25. Simons-Morton B, Chen RS. Over time relationships between early adolescent and peer substance use. Addictive Behaviours. 2006;31(7):1211-223.
- 26. Rasmussen M et al. School connectedness and daily smoking among boys and girls: the influence of parental smoking norms. European Journal of Public Health 2005; 15(6):607–612.
- Vieno A et al. Social support, sense of community in school, and self-efficacy as resources during early adolescence: an integrative model. American Journal of Community Psychology.2005;39:177-90.
- Nansel TR et al. Cross-national consistency in the relationship between bullying behaviours and psychosocial adjustment. Archives of Pediatric and Adolescent Medicine. 2004;158:730-736.
- Torsheim T, Wold B & Samdal O. The teacher and classmate support scale: factor structure, test-retest reliability and validity in samples of 13- and 15-year-old adolescents. School Psychology International. 2000;21(2):195-212.
- Thompson D et al. School connectedness in the Health Behaviour in School-aged Children study: the role of students, school and school neighborhood characteristics. Journal of School Health. 2006;76(7):379-386.
- Torsheim T, Wold B. School-Related Stress, School Support, and Somatic Complaints: A General Population Study. Journal of Adolescent Research. 2001;16:293-303.
- Zullig KJ et al. Relationship between perceived life satisfaction and adolescents' substance abuse. Journal of Adolescent Health. 2001;29:279-288.
- Thorne J, Espelage DL. Relations among exercise, coping, disordered eating, and psychological health among college students. Eating Behaviors. 2004;5:337-351.
- 34. Ravens-Sieberer U, Kökönyei G, Thomas C. School and health. In: Currie C editor. Young people's health in context: international report from the HBSC 2001/2002 survey. WHO policy series: health policy for children and adolescents. Issue 4, Copenhagen, WHO Regional Office for Europe; 2004.
- 35. Samdal O et al. Students' perceptions of school and their smoking and alcohol use: a cross-national study. Addiction Research and Theory. 2000;8:141-167.
- 36. Currie C, Gabhainn S, Godeau E, Roberts C, Smith, R Currie D, Picket W, Richter M, Morgan A & Barnekow V. Inequalities in Young People's Health. HBSC International Report from the 2005/2006 Survey. World Health Organization, Copenhagen; 2008.
- Villanti A et al. Peer, parent and media influences on adolescent smoking by developmental stage. Addictive Behaviors. 2011;36:133-136.
- 38. Middleman AB, Vazquez I & DuRant RH. Eating patterns,

- physical activity and attempts to change weight among adolescents. Journal of Adolescent Health. 2001;22:37-42.
- 39. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Mental Health: Culture, Race, and Ethnicity-A Supplement to Mental Health: A Report of the Surgeon General. Rockville, MD: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, Center for Mental Health Services; 2001.
- Kaufman AR, Phil M & Augustson EM. Predictors of regular cigarette smoking among adolescent females: Does body image matter? Nicotine Tob Res. 2008;10(8):1301-1309. doi:10.1080/14622200802238985.
- 41. Pénzes M, Czeglédi E, Balázs P & Foley KL. Factors Associated With Tobacco Smoking And The Belief About Weight Control Effect Of Smoking Among Hungarian Adolescents. Cent Eur J Public Health. 2012;20(1):11-17.
- Dube SR et al. Smoking and Health-Related Quality of Life Among U.S. Adolescents. Nicotine & Tobacco Research. 2013;15(2):492-50.
- 43. Hoyt LT et al. Positive youth, healthy adults: Does positive well-being in adolescence predict better perceived health and fewer risky health behaviors in young adulthood? J Adolesc Health. 2013;50(1):66-73. doi:10.1016/j.jado health.2011.05.002.
- 44. Donnelly J, Young M, Pearson R, Penhollow TM & Hernandez A. Area specific self-esteem, values, and adolescent substance use. Journal of Drug Education. 2008; 38(4):389-403. doi:10.2190/DE.38.4.f.
- Carters MA, Byrne DG. The role of stress and area-specific self-esteem in adolescent smoking. Australian Journal of Psychology. 2013;65:180-187.
- Csibi S & Csibi M. The role of self-appreciation and coping in the health-behavior of adolescents. Psychosomatics and Mental Health. 2013;14(3):281-295.
- Rosenberg M. Rosenberg self-esteem scale (RSE).
 Acceptance and commitment therapy. Measures package 61, 1965:52.
- 48. Cantril H. Pattern of human concerns; 1965.