

Table2 中学生高校生の IBS 有病率

			総数	IBS-C	IBS-D	IBS-M	IBS-U	全 IBS
男子生徒								
中学校	1年生	6297	0.8%	6.6%	1.7%	1.4%	10.5%	
	2年生	6285	1.1%	7.9%	2.1%	1.7%	12.9%	
	3年生	6084	1.0%	9.7%	2.5%	2.2%	15.4%	
高等学校	1年生	10298	1.3%	11.7%	3.1%	2.6%	18.7%	
	2年生	9767	1.2%	13.1%	3.6%	2.7%	20.7%	
	3年生	8882	1.6%	13.9%	3.7%	3.1%	22.3%	
全体		47613	1.2%	11.0%	2.9%	2.4%	17.5%	
女子生徒								
中学校	1年生	6426	1.7%	5.2%	2.9%	1.3%	11.1%	
	2年生	6281	2.3%	6.9%	4.1%	1.2%	14.5%	
	3年生	6113	2.2%	7.5%	4.3%	1.6%	15.6%	
高等学校	1年生	10688	3.1%	9.1%	6.1%	2.3%	20.5%	
	2年生	9945	3.8%	10.6%	7.1%	2.3%	23.8%	
	3年生	9208	4.3%	11.5%	7.7%	2.7%	26.2%	
全体		48641	3.1%	8.9%	5.7%	2.0%	19.6%	

注). IBS-C=便秘型 IBS、IBS-D=下痢型 IBS、IBS-M=混合型 IBS、IBS-U=分類不能型 IBS

全 IBS=全ての型の IBS

有病率の算出において、回答欠損により IBS 判定のできなかった者を除外した。

Table3 IBS の関連因子の探索

共変量	修正済オッズ比	95% 信頼区間		有意確率	
		下限	上限		
性別	男子生徒	—			
	女子生徒	1.03	1.00	1.07	.08
学年	中学1年生	—			
	中学2年生	1.20	1.16	1.36	.00
	中学3年生	1.25	1.52	1.76	.00
	高校1年生	1.64	1.74	2.01	.00
	高校2年生	1.87	1.87	2.16	.00
	高校3年生	2.01	1.16	1.36	.00
	朝食摂取習慣	毎日食べる	—		
	ときどき食べる	0.86	0.80	0.90	.00
	ほとんど食べない	0.86	0.80	0.92	.00
部活動	参加している	—			
	参加していない	1.11	1.07	1.15	.00
喫煙習慣	なし	—			
	あり	0.83	0.76	0.91	.00
飲酒習慣	なし	—			
	あり	1.21	1.17	1.26	.00
睡眠時間	5時間未満	0.84	0.80	0.89	.00
	5-6時間	0.98	0.93	1.03	.33
	6-7時間	—			
	7-8時間	0.99	0.94	1.05	.83
	8時間より長い	0.95	0.89	1.02	.17
就寝時刻	0時より前	—			
	0時以降	1.23	1.19	1.29	.00
主観的睡眠の質	よい	—			
	悪い	1.35	1.29	1.40	.00
入眠困難	なし	—			
	あり	1.16	1.11	1.22	.00
中途覚醒	なし	—			
	あり	1.13	1.07	1.19	.00

Table3 (続き) IBS の関連因子の探索

共変量	修正オッズ比	95% 信頼区間		有意確率
		下限	上限	
早朝覚醒	なし	—		
	あり	0.93	0.86	1.00
抑うつ・不安	なし	—		
	あり	1.62	1.56	1.68
肯定的な感情の 減退	なし	—		
	あり	1.10	1.05	1.16

注). 最終ステップの結果を示す。なお、全ての変数が投入された。

Table4 IBSの下位分類における関連因子の特徴

変数	IBS-C	IBS-D	IBS-M	IBS-U	合計	χ^2	自由度	有意確率	
性別	男子生徒	576 b	5218 a	1404 b	1131 a	8329	863.4	3	.00
	女子生徒	1488 a	4311 b	2765 a	989 b	9553			
学年	中学1年生	155	749	294	174	1372	19.5	15	.19
	中学2年生	212	928	391	186	1717			
	中学3年生	195	1048	412	234	1889			
	高校1年生	467	2172	974	509	4122			
	高校2年生	500	2340	1057	494	4391			
	高校3年生	535	2292	1041	523	4391			
朝食摂取習慣	毎日食べる	1739	7968	3475	1783	14965	1.5	6	.96
	ときどき食べる	188	856	391	193	1628			
	ほとんど食べない	117	587	262	128	1094			
部活動	参加している	739	3238	1400	745	6122	3.7	3	.29
	参加していない	1297	6128	2701	1343	11469			
喫煙習慣	なし	1977	9112	4003	2002	17094	7.5	3	.06
	あり	87	410	163	114	774			
飲酒週間	なし	1372	6369 a	2626 b	1433	11800	22.3	3	.00
	あり	687	3141 b	1533 a	682	6043			
睡眠時間	5時間未満	395	1731	805	380	3311	22.9	12	.03
	5-6時間	357	1621	783 a	346	3107			
	6-7時間	922	4299	1845	949	8015			
	7-8時間	226	1046	437	257	1966			
	8時間より長い	140	697	258 b	174 a	1269			
就寝時刻	0時より前	877	4048	1696 b	943	7564	8.3	3	.04
	0時以降	1158	5341	2421 a	1160	10080			
主観的睡眠の質	よい	1075	4939 a	1984 b	1116	9114	24.9	3	.00
	悪い	962	4436 b	2118 a	978	8494			
入眠困難	なし	1681	7836 a	3287 b	1738	14542	24.5	3	.00
	あり	358	1550 b	823 a	361	3092			
中途覚醒	なし	1755	8265 a	3499 b	1850	15369	26.4	3	.00
	あり	285	1126 b	617 a	253	2281			
早朝覚醒	なし	1920	8898	3854	1979	16651	6.8	3	.08
	あり	123	507	268	123	1021			
抑うつ・不安	なし	752 b	4134 a	1538 b	991 a	7415	97.8	3	.00
	あり	1291 a	5276 b	2589 a	1115 b	10271			
肯定的な感情の減退	なし	1696 b	8020	3466	1811	14993	10.2	3	.02
	あり	344 a	1388	659	294	2685			

注). χ^2 検定の結果、5%水準で有意であった変数に関してHarbermanの残差分析を行った。

a=観測度数が期待度数に比して5%水準で有意に大きい

b=観測度数が期待度数に比して5%水準で有意に小さい

Alcohol drinking rates of male between 7th and 11th graders in Japan decreased gradually based on nationwide repeated cross-sectional surveys from 1996 to 2008

Hideyuki Kanda^{1*}, Yoneatsu Osaki², Yoshitaka Kaneita³, Osamu Itani⁴, Maki Ikeda⁴, Takashi Ohida⁴, Susumu Higuchi⁵

¹Department of Epidemiology and Public Health, School of Medicine, Yokohama City University, Yokohama, Japan;

*Corresponding Author: hkanda@yokohama-cu.ac.jp

²Department of Environmental and Preventive Health, School of Medicine, Tottori University, Yonago, Japan

³Department of Epidemiology and Public Health, School of Medicine, Ohita University, Ohita, Japan

⁴Department of Public Health, School of Medicine, Nihon University, Tokyo, Japan

⁵Kurihama Mecical Center, Yokosuka, Japan

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ABSTRACT

Early drinking is considered to result in making tolerant of alcohol consumption and a higher prevalence of alcohol related disorders in the later. We focused generational impacts on drinking rate among high school students based on multiple nationwide data. The surveys were nationwide, cross-sectional random sampling surveys given every 4 years from the Japanese Youth Tobacco and Alcohol Surveys, 1996 to 2008. Participants were male 53,925 high school students from 7th grade to 11th grade. We divided to the three follow-up groups every 4 years from 1996 to 2004 for male junior high school students in 7th grades and the end periods were 4 years later in 11th grades. Outcome measures in this study were life time drinking, current drinking within 30 days and weekly drinking. All drinking rates decreased each at 7th and at 11th grade. The increments in these drinking rates from 7th grade to 11th grade in males decreased gradually in recent follow-up groups. Generational impacts should be considered by using follow-up groups to study drinking behaviors among students.

Keywords: Drinking Rates; Repeated Cross-Sectional Study; National Wide Survey; Japan

1. INTRODUCTION

Alcohol drinking is one of the most important risk

factor for lifestyle related diseases. Early drinking is considered to result in making tolerant of alcohol consumption and a higher prevalence of alcohol related disorders in the later [1].

Alcohol drinking rates among adolescents have also been reported [2-6]. However, most of these data were based on only cross-sectional studies. When estimating the rate increment for a follow-up group, the slope may be distorted by cohort effects [7-9]. The shapes of trends among adolescents by studying follow-up groups have not been examined at a national level. The variations in drinking rate among adolescents by follow-up groups have not been studied by follow-up groups at a national level, and no reported study has compared trends among multiple follow-up groups in a nation. Frequent observations are needed to compare trends in drinking rates among multiple follow-up groups belonging to the same grade in different years.

In this study, we looked at trends and generational impact on drinking rate by using follow-up groups of male Japanese high school students to quantitatively assess differences in trends. We used nationwide data from the Japanese Youth Tobacco and Drinking Surveys, gathered every 4 years between 1996 and 2008.

2. SUBJECTS AND METHODS

2.1. Subjects

The surveys were nationwide, cross-sectional random sampling surveys given every 4 years from 1996 to 2008, using the single-stage cluster sampling methodology [10].

Previous studies detailing the Japanese Youth Tobacco and Drinking Surveys have been reported [5,11-16]. The cluster unit of the sampling was schools. The survey targeted junior and senior high school students from schools selected through Japan using the National School Directory. All students enrolled in the sampled schools were subjects of the study.

The number of schools sampled in the 1996 survey was 122 of 11,274 junior high schools (selection rate: 1.1%) and 109 of 5501 senior high schools (2.0%). Respective values for the 2000, 2004 and 2008 surveys were 132 of 11,200 junior (1.2%) and 102 of 5315 senior high schools (1.9%) in the 2000 survey, 131 of 11,060 junior (1.2%) and 109 of 5272 senior high schools (1.9%) in the 2004 survey, and 130 of 10,955 junior (1.2%) and 110 of 5115 senior high schools (2.0%) in the 2008 survey.

2.2. Questionnaire

We requested the cooperation of the principals of these schools and sent these individuals questionnaires for their respective school's student population. The teachers were asked to inform the students of the voluntary nature of their participation and to urge them to answer honestly. Anonymous questionnaires and envelopes were handed to the students for completion during school time. Upon completion, the questionnaires were sealed in the envelopes by the students themselves, collected by their teachers, and returned to our researchers unopened. This survey was reviewed and approved by the institutional review board of Nihon University (No. 19-5-0).

The questionnaire focused on drinking experience, drinking frequency and age. Experimenting drinkers, current drinkers, and weekly drinkers were defined as those who had tried drinking at least once, those who had drunk at least once in past 30 days, and those who had drunk at least once in past 7 days, respectively.

2.3. Responses

For the 1996 survey, responses were obtained from 80 junior (response rate 65.5%) and 73 senior high schools (67.0%). In 2000, the respective values were 99 (75.0%) and 77 schools (75.5%), and in 2004, there were 92 (70.2%) and 87 schools (79.8%). In 2008, the respective values were 92 (70.8%) and 73 schools (72.7%).

We used data from the 1996-2004 surveys for male junior high school students in 7th grade, age 13. We divided to the three follow-up groups every 4 years from 1996 to 2004. The end periods were 4 years later when they had become 11th graders, age 17, from 2000 to 2008. **Table 1** shows a summary of follow-up groups. All group data includes all of the drinking rates from 7th grade to 11th grade. The total sample size of the 1996-

Table 1. Follow-up groups of male students in this survey, Japan, 1996-2008.

Follow-up groups	Years of Measurement		Sample size	
	Year in 7th grade	Year in 11th grade	Number of 7th grade	Number of 11th grade
1996 group	1996	2000	7,211	9,662
2000 group	2000	2004	8,248	12,241
2004 group	2004	2008	6,917	9,646

2008 surveys was 53,925. We compared drinking rate increments from 7th to 11th grade for 3 follow-up groups as well as each drinking rate in both 7th grade and 11th grade for 3 follow-up groups.

2.4. Statistical Analysis

The percentages in the tables were calculated by a weighting method based on one-stage stratified cluster sampling [10]. We estimated the mean values of drinking rate by follow-up group. We calculated the change in drinking rate by subtracting the previous drinking rate from the current one, by follow-up group. Data were analyzed using the SPSS ver. 21.0 software (SPSS, Tokyo, Japan).

3. RESULTS

3.1. Trends of Lifetime Drinking Rates

Figure 1 shows the trends of the lifetime drinking rate for the three follow-up groups (1996, 2000 and 2004) of Japanese male students from 7th grade to 11th grade. The lifetime drinking rates decreased at 7th grade in 2004 in males. They also decreased at 11th grade from 2000 to 2008. However, the increments in the lifetime drinking rate from 7th grade to 11th grade in high school students were smaller in recent follow-up groups both in 2000 and in 2004 than in follow-up groups in 1996. Then, those increments in follow-up groups between 2000 and 2004 were similar; around +15.6% - +15.9% in males from 7th grade to 11th grade.

3.2. Trends of Current Drinking Rates

Figure 2 shows the trends for current drinking rate for male students from 7th grade to 11th grade for three follow-up groups (1996, 2000, 2004). The current drinking rates decreased at 7th grade from 1996 to 2004 in males. They also decreased at 11th grade from 2000 to 2008. However, the current drinking rate increments from 7th grade to 11th grade decreased gradually one fourth from the 1996 follow-up group to the 2004 follow-up group.

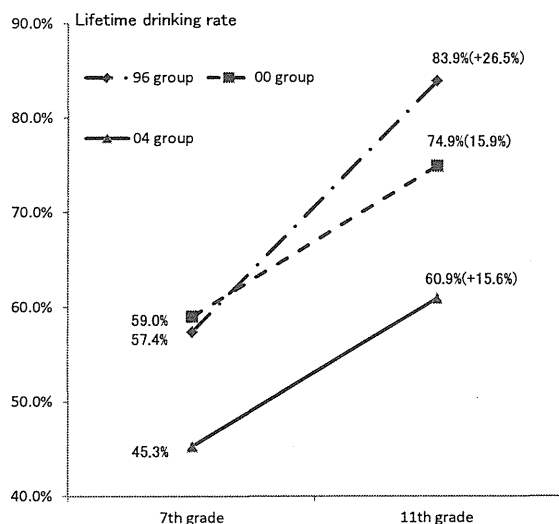


Figure 1. Lifetime drinking rate trends among male 7th - 11th graders by three follow-up groups (1996, 2000, 2004).

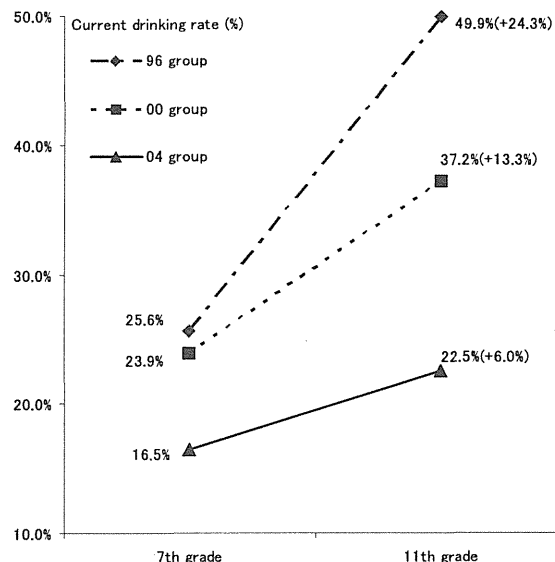


Figure 2. Current drinking rate trends among male 7th - 11th graders by three follow-up groups (1996, 2000, 2004).

3.3. Trends of Weekly Drinking Rates

Figure 3 shows the trends for weekly drinking rate for male students from 7th grade to 11th grade for three follow-up groups (1996, 2000, 2004). The weekly drinking rates decreased at 7th grade from 1996 to 2004 both in males and females. They also decreased at 11th grade from 2000 to 2008. However, the weekly drinking rate increments from 7th grade to 11th grade grew gradually smaller from the 1996 follow-up group to the 2004 follow-up group; +11.1% in the 1996 group, +6.0% in the 2000 group and +3.8% in the 2004 group.

4. DISCUSSIONS

Alcohol drinking rates for more recent male students' follow-up groups from 7th grade to 11th grade in Japan were relatively lower than older follow-up groups in 1996. Recent lifetime drinking rate increments from 7th grade to 11th grade were stable in the 2000 and 2004 follow-up groups, though all drinking rates decreased in both 7th and 11th grade from 1996 to 2004. Then, both current and weekly drinking rate increments from 7th grade to 11th grade grew gradually smaller from the 1996 follow-up group to the 2004 follow-up group. To our knowledge, this is the first report in the nationwide survey to show the generational impact of drinking from 7th grade to 11th grade by follow-up groups. Our results show the importance of observing trends of drinking rates by using follow-up groups and monitoring a wide span of 4 years, not only at 7th grade but also at 11th grade.

4.1. Decreasing Factors of Drinking in Youth

Although our study was restricted to the period

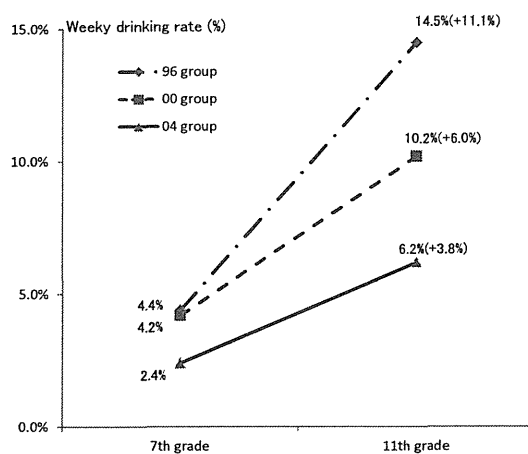


Figure 3. Weekly drinking rate trends among male 7th - 11th graders by three follow-up groups (1996, 2000, 2004).

from 7th grade to 11th grade among men, the drinking rate of the follow-up groups at 11th grade increased in each survey. Alcohol drinking rate is generally considered to increase with age. In recent follow-up groups, there has been a trend towards a decreased prevalence of drinking among adolescents in Japan.

There are several reasons to explain this result. First, alcohol policy may influence to youth. From 1997, warning label on the bottle has "prohibition of minor drinking" [17]. In 2000, Health People Japan, *i.e.*, national plan of strategy for 21 century's health, was enacted [18]. This includes a goal of minor drinking to zero. Revision of Act Prohibit Minor from Alcohol Use and revision of liquor tax were also performed in 2000 [17]. By this re-

vision of the act, age confirmation by retailers has become obligation and penalty has become severe. The National Tax Agency has got possible to cancel the license of liquor retailer which sold alcohol beverage to a minor, based on this revision of liquor tax [17]. The number of alcohol vending machines has decreased through voluntary regulation by industry from 2000 [19]. From 2003, severe punishment on drunk driving has started [20]. Additionally, voluntary regulation by a consultation of alcoholic beverage industry has begun on October 1st 2005, such as warning of prohibition of drinking before 20 years old on the TV commercials, avoiding the expression that a minor is interested in alcohol on the advertisements etc. [21]. However, many TV commercials for alcohol beverage are broadcasting still now. Second, parental drinking is one of the most important factors of adolescent drinking [22,23]. A decrease in the prevalence of drinking by adult men, including their fathers, probably contributed to the decrease among students. Peer drinking is also a well-known factor of adolescent drinking [24]. The decreased prevalence of drinking among students may also have contributed to a decrease in peer pressure to start drinking [24]. Finally, Japanese school students were given the opportunities to learn about alcohol and health in the life skill education in school from 2003. These alcohol policies and social environments contributed to the decrease of the drinking prevalence. Periodical nationwide surveys on adolescent drinking and survey of environmental factors are necessary to deal with the social problems of adolescent drinking.

4.2. Alcohol Drinking Rates of Other Nations in Youth

Considering the worldwide drinking epidemic rates in adolescents, prevention of drinking in the earlier stages of life is an important public health priority. In the United States, Finland and Sweden, drinking prevalence among adolescents decreased in the early 2000s. However, the majority of the world has not observed any decrease in drinking prevalence. There are global trends to restrict drinking among adolescents based on the WHO global strategy to reduce the harmful use of alcohol [25]. Some countries may have begun taking action quickly to ensure implementation of this strategy. Our study focused on generational impacts on drinking by looking at follow-up groups. Few studies clarified these impacts in the world. In the future, the effects of generational impact need to be considered when monitoring follow-up groups for drinking prevalence.

4.3. Repeated Cross-Sectional Study

A specific feature of this study was the use of a nationwide, repeated, cross-sectional survey with random

sampling to show the slope by follow-up group. In a cross-sectional study, each student at 7th grade is observed once, and in a longitudinal study each student is observed two times. In a repeated, cross-sectional survey, each student is observed once, but each follow-up group is studied two times. Thus, we can infer the slope of a follow-up group from a repeated, cross-sectional survey. A repeated, cross-sectional survey is usually reported as a cross-sectional curve by survey year [26], but such a cross-sectional slope is different from the slope of a follow-up group when a follow-up group effect occurs. In a cross-sectional slope, we see combined effects of follow-up group and year. When interpreting drinking rates twice, as we did here, the follow-up group effect should be considered. A repeated, regular survey is suited to monitoring trends by follow-up group because trends can be produced and checked for gradual changes by generation. The weakness of a repeated, cross-sectional survey, compared with a longitudinal study, is that all inferences are described in terms of population averages, and the variability of trends among individuals and the effects of covariates cannot be inferred. The slopes of the drinking rate obtained by following a single person longitudinally and that obtained by population average are well known to be different because the timing of drinking initiation varies greatly between individual people. A repeated, cross-sectional survey and a longitudinal study should be considered as being complementary.

4.4. Limitations

One limitation of this study is the possibility of misclassification of drinking status among students. Although this study uses an anonymous questionnaire survey, the respondents may have been reluctant to report their actual drinking status due to more active anti-drinking policies in recent years. However, we considered the influence of misclassification of reported drinking status to not be large because the number of questionnaires with invalid or contradictory answers did not increase during this study period. Then, we focused only men at 7th graders in the baseline. Confirmation of the persistence of this decrease in prevalence will require periodic monitoring of adolescent drinking prevalence and related factors.

4.5. Conclusions

Alcohol drinking rates among Japanese male students decreased both at 7th grade and at 11th grade. However, the drinking rate increments from 7th grade to 11th grade were smaller in recent follow-up groups than in older follow-up groups, which means most Japanese high school students did not start drinking cigarettes in the early 2000s. We have shown that monitoring trends by

follow-up group are important in studying drinking for public health. Values of drinking rates from a young age to adolescence by follow-up group should be examined. For this purpose, a repeated, cross-sectional survey is suitable. Values of drinking rate and regular changes in drinking rate are important because drinking rate changes dynamically during adolescence. Not only trends in drinking rates at fixed ages, but also generational impacts should be considered by using follow-up groups to study drinking behaviors among students. In the future, we need to continue careful monitoring of follow-up group drinking prevalence. When long-term health promotions are planned or assessed, policy makers need to look at changes in follow-up groups.

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Smoking rate trends of male 7th and 11th graders in Japan based on repeated, nationwide, cross-sectional surveys every 4 years from 1996 to 2008

Hideyuki Kanda^{1*}, Yoneatsu Osaki², Yoshitaka Kaneita³, Osamu Itani⁴, Maki Ikeda⁴, Takashi Ohida⁴

¹Department of Epidemiology and Public Health, School of Medicine, Yokohama City University, Yokohama, Japan;

*Corresponding Author: hkanda@yokohama-cu.ac.jp

²Department of Environmental and Preventive Health, School of Medicine, Tottori University, Yonago, Japan

³Department of Epidemiology and Public Health, School of Medicine, Ohita University, Ohita, Japan

⁴Department of Public Health, School of Medicine, Nihon University, Tokyo, Japan

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ABSTRACT

Backgrounds: Smoking in childhood has become an important public health concern. Previous studies have reported on secular trends in childhood smoking rates and compared with smoking rates at fixed ages. They also described secular trends regarding the prevalence of smoking at fixed ages. The variations in smoking rate of young children and adolescents by follow-up groups have not been studied by follow-up groups at a national level. **Objective:** We looked at trends and generational impacts on smoking rate by using follow-up groups of male Japanese high school students to quantitatively assess differences in trends, based on multiple nationwide data from the Japanese Youth Tobacco and Drinking Surveys gathered every 4 years between 1996 and 2008. **Methods:** The surveys were nationwide, cross-sectional random sampling surveys given every 4 years from 1996 to 2008, using the single-stage cluster sampling methodology. The cluster unit of the sampling was school. The survey targeted junior and senior high school students from schools selected through Japan using the National School Directory. Students enrolled in the sampled schools were subjects of the study. Participants were 53,925 high school students from 7th grade to 11th grade in 1996, 2000, 2004 and 2008. We divided the three follow-up groups every 4 years

from 1996 to 2004 for male junior high school students in 7th grades, age 13. The end periods were 4 years later when they had become 11th graders, age 17, from 2000 to 2008. Main outcome measures in this study were life time smoking, current smoking within 30 days and daily smoking at 7th or 11th grade and the trend of the smoking rates between 7th to 11th grades. **Results:** Life time smoking rate, current smoking rate and daily smoking rate in Japanese high school students decreased at 7th grade from 1996 to 2004. They also decreased at 11th grade from 2000 to 2008. However, the slopes differed among their follow-up groups. The increments in their smoking rates from 7th grade to 11th grade in male high school students were smaller in recent follow-up groups both in 2000 and in 2004 than in follow-up groups in 1996. Then, those increments in follow-up groups between in 2000 and in 2004 were similar in lifetime smoking rate and current smoking rate. **Conclusions:** We have shown that monitoring trends by follow-up group are important in studying smoking for public health. Values of smoking rates from a young age to adolescence by follow-up group should be examined. Values of smoking rate and regular changes in smoking rate are important because smoking rate changes dynamically during adolescence. Not only trends in smoking rates at fixed ages, but also generational impacts should be considered by using follow-up groups to

study smoking behaviors among students. We need to continue careful monitoring of follow-up group smoking prevalence. When long-term health promotions are planned or assessed, policy makers need to look at changes in follow-up groups.

Keywords: Smoking Rates; Repeated Cross-Sectional Study; Nationwide Survey; Japan

1. INTRODUCTION

Smoking in childhood has become an important public health concern because early smoking is considered to result in smoking in later life and a higher prevalence of smoking-related disorders [1]. Thus, monitoring changes in smoking rate over time is helpful [1]. Several papers have reported on secular trends in childhood smoking rates, compared smoking rates at fixed ages, and described secular trends regarding the prevalence of smoking, as defined by smoking rate [2-5]. Most of these studies have shown increasing smoking rates and a prevalence of smoking in children.

Smoking rates of young children and adolescents have also been reported [6]. However, most of these data were based on cross-sectional studies. When estimating the rate increment for a follow-up group, the slope may be distorted by cohort effects [7-9]. The shapes of trends of young children and adolescents by studying follow-up groups have not been examined at a national level. The variations in smoking rate of young children and adolescents by follow-up groups have not been studied by follow-up groups at a national level, and no reported study has compared trends among multiple follow-up groups in a nation.

Frequent observations are needed to compare trends in smoking rates among multiple follow-up groups belonging to the same grade in different years. In this study, we looked at trends and generational impacts on smoking rate by using follow-up groups of male Japanese high school students to quantitatively assess differences in trends. We used nationwide data from the Japanese Youth Tobacco and Drinking Surveys, gathered every 4 years between 1996 and 2008.

2. METHODS

2.1. Subjects and Procedure

The surveys were nationwide, cross-sectional random sampling surveys given every 4 years from 1996 to 2008, using the single-stage cluster sampling methodology [10]. Previous studies detailing the Japanese Youth Tobacco and Drinking Surveys have been reported [2,11-13]. The cluster unit of the sampling was schools. The survey tar-

geted junior and senior high school students from schools selected through Japan using the National School Directory. All students enrolled in the sampled schools were subjects of the study.

The number of schools sampled in the 1996 survey was 122 of 11,274 junior high schools (selection rate: 1.1%) and 109 of 5501 senior high schools (2.0%). Respective values for the 2000, 2004 and 2008 surveys were 132 of 11,200 junior (1.2%) and 102 of 5315 senior high schools (1.9%) in the 2000 survey, 131 of 11,060 junior (1.2%) and 109 of 5272 senior high schools (1.9%) in the 2004 survey, and 130 of 10,955 junior (1.2%) and 110 of 5115 senior high schools (2.0%) in the 2008 survey.

We requested the cooperation of the principals of these schools and sent these individuals questionnaires for their respective school's student population. The teachers were asked to inform the students of the voluntary nature of their participation and to urge them to answer honestly. Anonymous questionnaires and envelopes were handed to the students for completion during school time. Upon completion, the questionnaires were sealed in the envelopes by the students themselves, collected by their teachers, and returned to our researchers unopened. This survey was reviewed and approved by the institutional review board of Nihon University (No. 19-5-0).

2.2. Questionnaire

The questionnaire focused on smoking experience, smoking frequency, and age. Experimenting smokers, current smokers, and daily smokers were defined as those who had tried smoking at least once, those who had smoked at least once during the previous 30 days, and those who had smoked every day during the previous 30 days, respectively.

2.3. Responses

For the 1996 survey, responses were obtained from 80 junior (response rate 65.5%) and 73 senior high schools (67.0%). In 2000, the respective values were 99 (75.0%) and 77 schools (75.5%), and in 2004, there were 92 (70.2%) and 87 schools (79.8%). In 2008, the respective values were 92 (70.8%) and 73 schools (72.7%).

We used data from the 1996-2004 surveys for male junior high school students in 7th grade, age 13. We divided to the three follow-up groups every 4 years from 1996 to 2004. The end periods were 4 years later when they had become 11th graders, age 17, from 2000 to 2008. Table 1 shows a summary of follow-up groups. All group data includes all of the smoking rates from 7th grade to 11th grade. The total sample size of the 1996-2008 surveys was 53,925. We compared smoking rate increments from 7th to 11th grade for 3 follow-up

Table 1. Follow-up groups of male students in this survey, Japan, 1996-2008.

Follow-up groups	Years of Measurement		Sample size	
	Year in 7 th grade	Year in 11 th grade	Number of 7 th grade	Number of 11 th grade
1996 group	1996	2000	7211	9662
2000 group	2000	2004	8248	12,241
2004 group	2004	2008	6917	9646

groups as well as each smoking rate in both 7th grade and 11th grade for 3 follow-up groups.

2.4. Statistical Analysis

The percentages in the tables were calculated by a weighting method based on one-stage stratified cluster sampling¹⁰. We estimated the mean values of smoking rate by follow-up group. We calculated the change in smoking rate by subtracting the previous smoking rate from the current one, by follow-up group. Data were analyzed using the SPSS ver. 21.0 software (SPSS, Tokyo, Japan).

3. RESULTS

3.1. Trends of Lifetime Smoking Rates

Figure 1 shows the trends of the lifetime smoking rate for the three follow-up groups (1996, 2000 and 2004) of Japanese male students from 7th grade to 11th grade. The lifetime smoking rates decreased at 7th grade from 1996 to 2004 in males. They also decreased at 11th grade from 2000 to 2008. However, the increments in the lifetime smoking rate from 7th grade to 11th grade in high school students were smaller in recent follow-up groups both in 2000 and in 2004 than in follow-up groups in 1996. Then, those increments in follow-up groups between 2000 and 2004 were similar; around +13% in males from 7th grade to 11th grade.

3.2. Trends of Current Smoking Rates

Figure 2 shows the trends for current smoking rate for male students from 7th grade to 11th grade for three follow-up groups (1996, 2000, 2004). The current smoking rates decreased at 7th grade from 1996 to 2004 in males. They also decreased at 11th grade from 2000 to 2008. However, the current smoking rate increments from 7th grade to 11th grade were smaller in recent follow-up groups, both in 2000 and in 2004, than in follow-up groups in 1996. Increments in follow-up groups between 2000 and 2004 were similar; +6.6% - 8.0% in males from 7th grade to 11th grade.

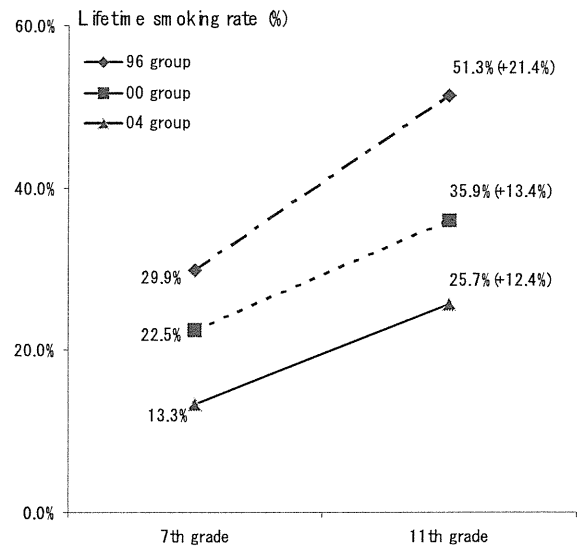


Figure 1. Lifetime smoking rate trends among male 7th - 11th graders by three follow-up groups (1996, 2000, 2004).

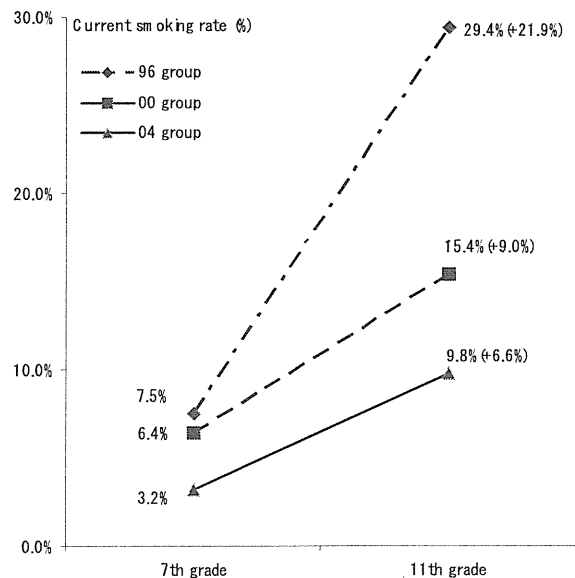


Figure 2. Current smoking rate trends among male 7th - 11th graders by three follow-up groups (1996, 2000, 2004).

3.3. Trends of Daily Smoking Rates

Figure 3 shows the trends for daily smoking rate for male students from 7th grade to 11th grade for three follow-up groups (1996, 2000, 2004). The daily smoking rates decreased at 7th grade from 1996 to 2004 both in males and females. They also decreased at 11th grade from 2000 to 2008. However, the daily smoking rate increments from 7th grade to 11th grade grew gradually smaller from the 1996 follow-up group to the 2004 follow-up group; +17.5% in the 1996 group, +7.6% in

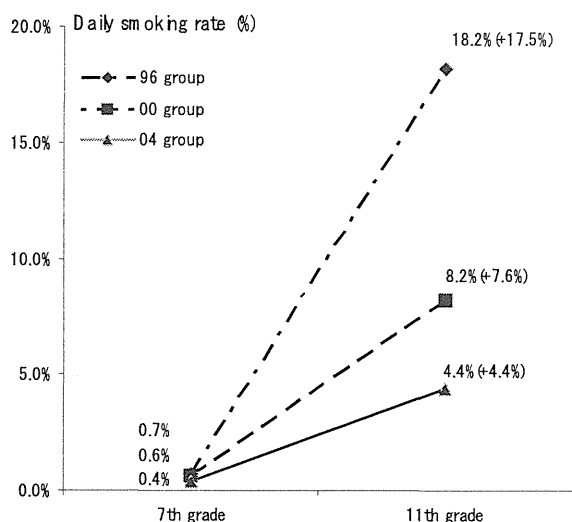


Figure 3. Daily smoking rate trends among male 7th - 11th graders by three follow-up groups (1996, 2000, 2004).

the 2000 group and +4.0% in the 2004 group.

4. DISCUSSIONS

Smoking rates for more recent male students' follow-up groups from 7th grade to 11th grade in Japan were relatively lower than older follow-up groups in 1996. Recent smoking rate increments from 7th grade to 11th grade were stable in the 2000 and 2004 follow-up groups, though all smoking rates decreased in both 7th and 11th grade from 1996 to 2004. Recently, smoking in adolescence has become an important public health concern worldwide because early smoking is considered to result in nicotine dependence in later life, as well as a high prevalence of tobacco-related disorders [1]. To our knowledge, this is the first report to show the generational impact of smoking from 7th grade to 11th grade by follow-up groups. Our results show the importance of observing trends of smoking rates by using follow-up groups and monitoring a wide span of 4 years, not only at 7th grade but also at 11th grade.

4.1. Decreasing Factors of Smoking in Minors

Although our study was restricted to the period from 7th grade to 11th grade, the smoking rate of the follow-up groups at 11th grade increased in each survey. Smoking rate is generally considered to increase with age. In recent follow-up groups, there has been a trend towards a decreased prevalence of smoking among adolescents in Japan. There are several reasons to explain this result. First, human factors may influence who smokes. Parental smoking is one of the most important factors of adolescent smoking [14-16]. A decrease in the

prevalence of smoking by adult men, including their fathers, probably contributed to the decrease among students. Peer smoking is also a well-known factor of adolescent smoking [17]. The decreased prevalence of smoking among students may also have contributed to a decrease in peer pressure to start smoking [18]. Second, some revised or established restrictions about adolescent smoking may relate to a decrease in smoking among students. A revision of the Act to Prohibit Minors from Smoking requires tobacco retailers to strictly enforce verification of customer age from official documentation. Based on the Health Promotion Law issued in 2002, there is a movement by local governments to encourage a smoke-free school site policy with the aim of preventing passive smoking in schools. Card-based proof-of-age systems in tobacco vending machines in Japan were introduced throughout Japan in March, 2008 [19]. However, a significant number of adolescent smokers still buy their cigarettes in stores, and most of the current smokers purchase their cigarettes using cigarette vending machines. Age verification cards fail to fully prevent minors from accessing tobacco products, especially among students who are daily smokers [19]. Previous studies have reported a total ban on smoking at school (the entire school site) being an effective measure in preventing adolescent smoking [20,21]. However, the inappropriate influence of teachers smoking outside the school buildings in full view of students may offset the effect of a school policy restricting smoking. Finally, cigarette prices in Japan were raised two times, in 1998 and 2003, each time by 20 yen (US\$0.22) per pack (20 cigarettes). The increased price of a pack of cigarettes may mean greater difficulty obtaining cigarettes for adolescents. However, each follow-up group in 1996 and 2000 was affected by the price rise, with different smoking rate results, so it is difficult to explain a decrease in prevalence being caused by higher prices. Confirmation of the persistence of this decrease in prevalence will require regular monitoring of adolescent smoking prevalence and related factors.

4.2. Smoking Rates of Other Nations in Minors

Considering the worldwide smoking epidemic rates in adolescents, prevention of smoking in the earlier stages of life is an important public health priority. In a number of western countries: USA [22], England [23], Australia [24], and Canada [25], a decreased prevalence of smoking was seen in high school students from 2000 to 2004. Japan tended to not have as many high school smokers as other developed countries in recent times. However, Italy, Russia [26], Hungary, and Latvia [27] did not have a decrease. There are global trends to ban smoking among

adolescents based on the Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (FCTC) [28]. Some countries may have begun taking action quickly to ensure implementation of this convention. Our study focused on generational impacts on smoking by looking at follow-up groups. Few studies clarified these impacts in the world. In the future, the effects of generational impact need to be considered when monitoring follow-up groups for smoking prevalence.

4.3. Repeated Cross-Sectional Study

A specific feature of this study was the use of a nationwide, repeated, cross-sectional survey with random sampling to show the slope by follow-up group. In a cross-sectional study, each student at 7th grade is observed once, and in a longitudinal study each student is observed two times. In a repeated, cross-sectional survey, each student is observed once, but each follow-up group is studied two times. Thus, we can infer the slope of a follow-up group from a repeated, cross-sectional survey. A repeated, cross-sectional survey is usually reported as a cross-sectional curve by survey year [29], but such a cross-sectional slope is different from the slope of a follow-up group when a follow-up group effect occurs. In a cross-sectional slope, we see combined effects of follow-up group and year. When interpreting smoking rates twice, as we did here, the follow-up group effect should be considered. A repeated, regular survey is suited to monitoring trends by follow-up group because trends can be produced and checked for gradual changes by generation. The weakness of a repeated, cross-sectional survey, compared with a longitudinal study, is that all inferences are described in terms of population averages, and the variability of trends among individuals and the effects of covariates cannot be inferred. The slopes of the smoking rate obtained by following a single person longitudinally and that obtained by population average are well known to be different because the timing of smoking initiation varies greatly between individual people [30]. A repeated, cross-sectional survey and a longitudinal study should be considered as being complementary.

4.4. Limitations

One limitation of this study is the possibility of misclassification of smoking status among students. Although this study uses an anonymous questionnaire survey, the respondents may have been reluctant to report their actual smoking status due to more active anti-smoking policies in recent years. However, we considered the influence of misclassification of reported smoking status to not be large because the number of questionnaires with invalid or contradictory answers did not increase during this study period. Confirmation of the

persistence of this decrease in prevalence will require periodic monitoring of adolescent smoking prevalence and related factors.

4.5. Conclusion

Smoking rates among Japanese male students decreased both at 7th grade and at 11th grade. However, the smoking rate increments from 7th grade to 11th grade were smaller in recent follow-up groups than in older follow-up groups, which means most Japanese high school students did not start smoking cigarettes in the early 2000s. We have shown that monitoring trends by follow-up group are important in studying smoking for public health. Values of smoking rates from a young age to adolescence by follow-up group should be examined. For this purpose, a repeated, cross-sectional survey is suitable. Values of smoking rate and regular changes in smoking rate are important because smoking rate changes dynamically during adolescence. Not only trends in smoking rates at fixed ages, but also generational impacts should be considered by using follow-up groups to study smoking behaviors among students. In the future, we need to continue careful monitoring of follow-up group smoking prevalence. When long-term health promotions are planned or assessed, policy makers need to look at changes in follow-up groups.

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