

Investigating the self-stigma and quality of life for

Overweight/obese children in Hong Kong: A preliminary study

Abstract

Overweight (OW) children are likely to internalize common weight bias and developed weight-related self-stigma (or self-stigma in short). Also, OW children tended to have poor health related quality of life (HRQoL) with higher level of self-stigma associated with poorer HRQoL. However, the aforementioned findings have yet been investigated in the East. This study aimed to test the differences of self-stigma and HRQoL between OW and non-OW children, and to examine the correlations between self-stigma and HRQoL in a Hong Kong sample. OW children ($n=50$, $M_{age} \pm SD = 9.36 \pm 1.17$) and non-OW children ($n=50$, $M_{age} \pm SD = 9.73 \pm 1.28$) completed questionnaires that measure self-stigma (Weight Bias Internalization Scale [WBIS] and Weight Self-Stigma Questionnaire [WSSQ]) and HRQoL (child-reported Kid-KINDL and Sizing Me Up [SMU]). All parents completed parent-reported Kid-KINDL and Sizing Them Up (STU) that measure HRQoL of their children. Compared with non-OW children, OW children had higher self-stigma in WBIS ($p=0.003$) and WSSQ ($p<0.001$); lower HRQoL in SMU ($p<0.001$) and STU ($p<0.001$). More significant correlations with stronger magnitude ($r= -2.83$ to -0.61) were shown between self-stigma and HRQoL in OW children than in non-OW children. This study showed that OW children had significantly higher self-stigma and lower HRQoL than did non-OW children in Hong Kong. Moreover, negative correlations between self-stigma and HRQoL were found in OW children. Future study may want to study whether reducing self-stigma of OW children can improve their HRQoL.

Keywords: Asia, Children, Health Related Quality of Life, Overweight, Self-stigma

1 **1 Introduction**

2 Overweight (OW) and obesity are growing threats to the public health, and the two
3 terms sometimes are used interchangeably because they share the similar concept of excess
4 weight for an individual. Given that excess weight simply reflects on the physiological part,
5 OW (or obesity) share other similar problems in psychological and behavior parts, such as
6 eating disorder behaviors or inappropriate eating patterns (Geliebter and Aversa 2003; Lee et
7 al. 2016). The prevalence of childhood overweight and obesity had increased around the
8 world from 4.2% in 1990 to 6.7% in 2010 (De Onis et al. 2010). Similar phenomenon
9 occurred in Hong Kong: the percentage of childhood overweight and obesity had increased
10 from 16.1 % in 1995/96 to 18.7% in 2014/15 (Centre for Health Protection 2015; The
11 Government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region Press Releases 2016). Also,
12 OW children or adolescents in East Asia had an emerging problem in eating disorder: a recent
13 study on mainland Chinese showed that the prevalence of eating disorder was nearly 30%
14 (Feng and Abebe 2017), and a Hong Kong study reported the prevalence of eating disorder
15 around 5% (Tam et al. 2007). In addition to physical (e.g., cardiovascular morbidity) and
16 eating behavior problems (Geliebter and Aversa 2003; Reilly 2005), OW may subsequently
17 bring negative psychosocial issues to children such as depression (Luppino et al. 2010) and
18 lower self-esteem (Pierce and Wardle 1997). Moreover, OW children were found to have
19 weight-related self-stigma (or self-stigma in short) and impaired health-related quality of life
20 (HRQoL; Ciupitu-Plath 2016; Lin et al. 2013).

21 Self-stigma is a kind of self-devaluation among stigmatized people because of their
22 characteristics labeled by the society (Chan et al. 2017; Chang et al. 2016, in press). Taken
23 people with obesity as an example, the society may have incorrect beliefs toward them, such
24 they are lazy and stupid (Puhl and Latner 2007). Furthermore, OW people may receive
25 unfriendly treatment from the society, such as being teased or nicknamed (or even lowered

1 opportunities in getting employment; Flint et al. 2016). The aforementioned attitudes/beliefs
2 and actions/behaviors toward OW people are defined as *stigmatization*. When OW people
3 perceive and endorse the stigmatization, they are likely to self-stigmatize themselves. That is,
4 they will agree with the incorrect beliefs and have emotional distress or withdrawal behaviors
5 (Farhangi et al. 2017). As for children at their middle childhood, some are in puberty (Lee et
6 al. 2017) and may begin to be aware of the body and self-attractiveness. Indeed, a Spanish
7 study surveyed on 944 children aged between 9 and 12 and found that about three fourths of
8 their participants were dissatisfied with their body image and more than half of the
9 participants want to be slimmer (Mendo-Lázaro et al. 2017). Moreover, studies on western
10 children and adolescents indicate that OW and overeating are potential reasons of
11 stigmatization for children; thus, OW children are likely to be bullied (K. Lee et al. 2018; Lin
12 et al. 2018a; Schwimmer et al. 2003). The experience of being bullied may further develop
13 other psychological or behavior problems (Lin and Lin 2017). Therefore, a question arises,
14 “What is the figure of OW and stigmatization in Eastern countries?”

15 The self-stigma issue of OW children should worth an increment in awareness as a
16 study showed that OW individuals had significantly higher self-stigma than non-OW
17 individuals (O’Brien et al. 2016). OW individuals were likely to internalize common weight
18 bias, which included common stereotypes towards OW groups, thereby leading to self-stigma
19 or self-devaluation (Hilbert et al. 2014). The self-devaluation may further trigger a feeling of
20 incompetence, hatred and embarrassment from one’s inferior thoughts, and one may regard
21 themselves as the “unwanted” in society (Lillis et al. 2010; Rees 2009; Roberto et al. 2012).
22 Furthermore, studies showed that self-stigma caused maladaptive eating patterns and
23 decreased motivation to control weight (Carels and Latner 2016; Tomiyama 2014). This may
24 result in failure of maintaining or losing weight, and subsequently develop a vicious cycle of
25 being OW.

1 In addition to the impact of self-stigma, we should be aware of OW children's HRQoL
2 because it is a holistic concept of health status, including physical, emotional, mental, social,
3 behavioral well-being and function (Ciupitu-Plath 2016). Based on the definition proposed by
4 the World Health Organization (1993, p153), HRQoL indicates "an individual's perception of
5 their position in life in the context of the culture and value systems in which they live and in
6 relation to their goals, expectations, standards and concerns." Hence, HRQoL is a kind of self-
7 perceived health status of a person and is viewed as important health-related outcomes
8 (Huang et al. 2018).

9 Given the importance of HRQoL, studies have explored the HRQoL for OW children
10 though many of them were conducted in the West (e.g., Schwimmer et al. 2003; Shoup et al.
11 2008; Williams et al. 2005), and consistent results indicate the impairment of HRQoL among
12 OW children. Specifically, OW children had similar HRQoL scores to children with chronic
13 diseases (e.g., cancer, diabetes, asthma, atopic dermatitis and inflammatory bowel disease)
14 that required intensive medical care (Faus et al. 2015). Recently, Lin and his colleagues have
15 conducted a series of studies on assessing HRQoL among OW children (Lin et al. 2012, 2013,
16 2018b; C.-T. Lee et al. 2018; Miri et al. 2017; Strong et al. 2017; Su et al. 2013), and they
17 reported that OW children had remarkably lower physical and psychosocial HRQoL scores
18 than their normal-weight counterparts.

19 Some researchers suggested that higher level of self-stigma was associated with
20 poorer HRQoL. Latner et al. (2013, 2014) discovered that there were negative associations
21 between self-stigma and HRQoL on physical and mental functioning among OW adults.
22 Similarly, a study disclosed that self-stigma was significantly and positively related to
23 greater emotional problems in both OW and non-OW children, given that the relationship
24 was slightly stronger in the OW children (Zuba and Warschburger 2017). These findings

1 revealed the insights that OW population who have self-stigma may tend to have poorer
2 HRQoL.

3 However, to the best of our knowledge, no studies have investigated the self-
4 stigma, and its relationship with HRQoL among Eastern OW children. Given the cultural
5 differences between the East Asia and the West, there is a need to probe the
6 aforementioned issue in an East sample. Specifically, Lee et al. (1993) described that
7 traditional Chinese has regarded fatness as beauty, wealth and fertility for females. In
8 addition, a common Chinese saying *xin guang ti pan* (n.d.) indicates that people would
9 gain weight when they are relaxed. There are also other Chinese proverbs appreciate
10 fatness (e.g., getting fat equals to getting rich; laugh and grow fat). Hence, fat seems to be
11 a virtue under Chinese culture. On the contrary, the Western society believes that thinness
12 is equivalent to physical attractiveness, success and happiness (Vogt Yuan 2010).
13 Moreover, as American students compared their weight status to their generally-OW peers,
14 OW American students had lower chance to recognize themselves as “fat” when compared
15 to the Chinese students (Zhang et al. 2011).

16 However, empirical studies showed that westernized Asia regions, such as Hong
17 Kong, adopt the concept of slim persons as beautiful (Lee et al. 1996; Wong and Huang
18 1999) and the concept contradicts the popular Chinese belief that plumpness is attractive
19 body feature in women. Specifically, a study on Hong Kong Beauty Pageant contestants
20 showed a downward trend in the weight status (Leung et al. 2001). Moreover, the winners
21 were all slimmer than average women in Hong Kong, which indicates the different beauty
22 standards for men and women. Women are expected to have a narrow waist set against full
23 hips (Leung et al. 2001).

24 A research gap was identified that no self-stigma information for East Asian children
25 was found, we would like to explore the following aims in a Hong Kong sample: (1) to test

1 the difference of self-stigma between OW and non-OW children, (2) to investigate difference
2 of HRQoL between OW and non-OW children, and (3) to examine the correlations between
3 self-stigma and HRQoL for OW and non-OW children separately.

4 Based on our study aims, we proposed the following hypotheses: (1) OW children as
5 compared with non-OW children had higher level of self-stigma, (2) OW children as
6 compared with non-OW children had poorer HRQoL in all domains, and (3) self-stigma
7 would correlate to HRQoL for both OW and non-OW children; however, the correlations
8 between self-stigma and HRQoL would be stronger in the OW children than those in non-OW
9 children. Given that we measured HRQoL using two types of questionnaire (one is generic
10 HRQoL instrument, and the other is weight-related HRQoL instrument), we further
11 hypothesized that the relationship between self-stigma and weight-related HRQoL would be
12 stronger than the relationship between self-stigma and generic HRQoL.

13 **2 Methods**

14 **2.1 Participants and procedures**

15 The approval of the study proposal was obtained from the Human Subjects Ethic
16 Review Board (HSEARS20160824003), The Hong Kong Polytechnic University before data
17 collection. We recruited participants through convenience sampling, and 124 dyads of
18 children and their primary caregivers (most of them were parents) participated in the study.
19 Moreover, we used body mass index (BMI) to classify the children into an OW or a non-OW
20 group based on Hong Kong norm (Table 1; detailed information *cf.* So et. al 2008). The first
21 50 recruitments of each groups were chosen as the final participants, in order to have the
22 sample size of $n=100$. The inclusion criteria were children who: (1) are aged between 8 and
23 12 years old; (2) had the ability to understand written or spoken Cantonese; (3) were studying
24 in Hong Kong; (4) voluntarily agree to participate in this study, together with their caregivers.
25 The exclusion criteria were children who are diagnosed with: (1) cognitive impairment; (2)

1 neurological diseases, such as autism spectrum disorder, attention-deficit/hyperactivity
2 disorder, and intellectual disability; (3) any physical disability such as amputation and
3 wheelchair-bound.

4 (Insert Table 1 here)

5 All the participants were first informed of the study purpose and detailed information.
6 Study procedure was presented to those who showed interests. After the participants had fully
7 understood the study, the parents signed a written informed consent if they and their children
8 were willing to participate. Afterward, the parents completed a background information sheet
9 and two questionnaires regarding HRQoL of their children, while their children completed
10 two child-reported HRQoL questionnaires and two self-stigma scales. We ensured that there
11 was no interaction or discussion when the primary caregivers and children were completing
12 the questionnaires.

13 **2.2 Instrument**

14 **Kid-KINDL**

15 The Kid-KINDL, a generic HRQoL instrument for 8- to 12-year-old children, includes
16 paralleled children self-report and parent-proxy report. The Kid-KINDL consists of 24 items
17 of six domains (each domain has four items): physical well-being, emotional well-being, self-
18 esteem, family, friends, and school functioning. All the items were rated on a 5-point Likert
19 scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*all the time*). The Likert scale was then linearly transformed
20 to a 0-100 scale. A higher level of HRQoL was indicated by a higher score (Ravens-Sieberer
21 and Bullinger 2000).

22 The Kid-KINDL had a high internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.63$ to 0.76 for child-rated
23 reports; 0.62 to 0.81 for parent-rated reports). The convergent validity was also supported for
24 Kid-KINDL: it was highly correlated with other HRQoL measures ($r=0.64$ to 0.72 ; Ravens-
25 Sieberer and Bullinger 2000). The content validity and known-group validity were supported

1 in both child- and parent-reported Hong Kong version of Kid-KINDL; their internal
2 consistency was also satisfactory (α for both child- and parent-reports=0.77; Chan et al.
3 2014).

4 **Sizing Me Up (SMU) and Sizing Them up (STU)**

5 SMU and STU measure weight-related HRQoL for children using a specific item
6 stem: "...because of my weight/size/shape". SMU is a child-rated questionnaire and STU is a
7 parent-proxy measure. Both questionnaires can be used for children aged between 8 and 12.
8 SMU consists of 22 items with five scales: emotional (4 items), physical (5 items), teasing/
9 marginalization (2 items), positive attributes (6 items) and social avoidance (5 items); STU
10 contains of 22 items with six scales: emotional (7 items), physical (5 items), teasing/
11 marginalization (3 items), positive attributes (4 items), mealtime (2 items) and school (1
12 items). All items were rated on a 4-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*none or never*) to 4 (*all
13 of the times or always*), and the scores were converted into a 0-100 scale. A better weight-
14 related HRQoL was indicated by a higher score (Modi and Zeller 2008; Zeller and Modi
15 2009).

16 Both questionnaires demonstrated acceptable internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.68$ to 0.85
17 for SMU; $= 0.59$ to 0.91 for STU) and good test-retest reliability (ICCs = 0.53 to 0.78 for
18 child-rated reports; 0.57 to 0.80 for parent-rated reports; Modi and Zeller 2008; Zeller and
19 Modi 2009). The convergent validity was also supported: other HRQoL instruments were
20 correlated to SMU ($r=0.35$ to 0.65 ; Zeller and Modi 2009) and STU ($r=0.31$ to 0.73 ; Modi
21 and Zeller 2008). In addition, both SMU and STU Chinese versions have good internal
22 consistency ($\alpha = 0.62$ to 0.88 in SMU; 0.56 to 0.77 in STU; Lin et al. 2018b; Strong et al.
23 2017)

24 **Weight bias internalization scale (WBIS)**

25 The WBIS measures weight-related self-stigma, and we used a standardized procedure

1 (including forward and back translations, and reconciliation) to translate the WBIS into
2 Chinese. During the translation, we adopted a neutral way to present the weight status (e.g.,
3 we use “because of your weight” instead of “because of your excess weight”) after discussing
4 with the developer (Prof. Janet D Latner) to enhance the feasibility of the WBIS. Therefore,
5 the linguistic validity of the scale is ensured. The WBIS has 11 items (Durso and Latner
6 2008), and all items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5
7 (*strongly agree*). Moreover, the higher the total score, the higher the level of weight-related
8 self-stigma is. The WBIS (English version) had high internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.90$) and
9 acceptable construct validity (Hilbert et al. 2014).

10 **Weight self-stigma Questionnaire (WSSQ)**

11 The WSSQ also investigates the weight-related self-stigma (Lillis et al. 2010) and it
12 consists of 12 items to measure self-stigma in two domains: self-devaluation (or self-stigma;
13 the first 6 items) and fear of enacted stigma (or perceived stigma; the last 6 items). Since we
14 only focused on self-stigma, we only used the first six items, which are about self-
15 devaluation. Each item was rated on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5
16 (*strongly agree*), and the higher the total score, the higher level of self-stigma is. The WSSQ
17 has been translated into a Chinese version with acceptable internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.78$ for
18 self-devaluation subscale) and adequate test-retest reliability ($r=0.86$; Lin and Lee 2017).

19 *Statistical analysis*

20 Independent t tests were then conducted to test the weight-related self-stigma and
21 HRQoL differences for normally distributed data; Mann-Whitney U test for non-normal
22 distributed data. In addition, Pearson correlation coefficients (for normally distributed data)
23 and Spearman’s rho tests (for non-normal distributed data) were used to examine the
24 correlations between HRQoL and self-stigma for both groups separately. After testing the
25 correlation, we constructed several regression models to understand how self-stigma predicted

1 HRQoL among OW children. Specifically, we used those child-reported HRQoL domains (or
2 total score) that are significantly correlated with WBIS or WSSQ score as dependent
3 variables; WBIS or WSSQ scores as independent variable (the two scores were constructed
4 into different regression models); age, gender, and with (or without) chronic illness as
5 controlling variables.

6

7 **3 Results**

8 Table 1 demonstrates the demographics of the participants. Around 60% were males in
9 both group, and most of the children (94%) did not have any chronic illness.

10 (Insert Table 2 here)

11

12 **3.1 Comparisons of self-stigma and HRQoL between two groups**

13 The OW group had significantly higher self-stigma scores than the non-OW group in
14 both WBIS (26.60 ± 9.56 vs. 21.52 ± 7.19 , $p=0.003$) and WSSQ (14.50 ± 4.89 vs. 11.02 ± 4.37 ,
15 $p<0.001$). Moreover, the OW group had SMU scores significantly lower than the non-OW
16 group in emotional, physical and positive attributes domain scores, and the total score. The
17 OW group had STU scores significantly lower than did the non-OW group in emotional,
18 physical, teasing/marginalization and school domain scores, and the total score. However,
19 there were no significant differences between the two groups in both child-related and parent-
20 related Kid-KINDLs (Table 3).

21 (Insert Table 3 here)

22 **3.2 Correlations between self-stigma and HRQoL in OW group**

23 In the OW group, WBIS was significantly (or marginally significantly) and negatively
24 correlated with both child-rated ($r= -0.54$ to -0.24) and parent-rated Kid-KINDLs ($r= -0.54$ to
25 -0.26), except for self-esteem and school domains. WBIS was significantly and negatively

1 correlated with all the domain scores and the total score of SMU ($r = -0.35$ to -0.61 , $p < 0.05$),
 2 except for positive attributes domain. In addition, WBIS was significantly and negatively
 3 correlated with the mealtime domain ($r = -0.30$) and the total score of STU ($r = -0.34$). For
 4 WSSQ, it was significantly and negatively correlated with physical domain in child-rated Kid-
 5 KINDL ($r = -0.43$); and with physical domain ($r = -0.54$), self-esteem domain ($r = -0.31$) and
 6 the total score ($r = -0.38$) in parent-rated Kid-KINDL. WSSQ was also significantly and
 7 negatively correlated with SMU ($r = -0.46$ to -0.32), except for teasing/marginalization and
 8 positive attribute domains. Furthermore, WSSQ was significantly and negatively correlated
 9 with physical domain ($r = -0.28$), positive attributes domain ($r = -0.33$) and the total score of
 10 STU ($r = -0.33$; Table 4).

11 (Insert Table 4 here)

12 **3.3 Correlations between self-stigma and HRQoL in non-OW group**

13 In the non-OW group, WBIS was significantly and negatively correlated with the
 14 child-rated Kid-KINDL in the family domain ($r = -0.36$) and the total score ($r = -0.31$,
 15 $p = 0.030$), but not correlated with parent-rated Kid-KINDL. WBIS was significantly and
 16 negatively correlated with all the domain scores and the total score of SMU ($r = -0.31$ to -
 17 0.45), except for positive attributes domain; WBIS was not significantly correlated with all
 18 the domains scores and the total score of STU, except for physical domain ($r = -0.35$).
 19 Moreover, WSSQ was not significantly correlated with all the HRQoL questionnaires except
 20 for the physical domain in STU ($r = -0.32$; Table 5).

21 (Insert Table 5 here)

22 **3.4 Association between self-stigma and HRQoL in OW group using regression models**

23 After controlling for several confounders (age, gender, and with or without chronic
 24 illness), our regression models showed similar results to the correlation findings. Self-stigma
 25 measures using WBIS and WSSQ was negatively and significantly correlated to child-rated

1 HRQoL in total score, physical, emotional, family, teasing/marginalization, and social
2 avoidance domains. In addition, the correlations between SMU and self-stigma were stronger
3 than those between child-related Kid-KINDL and self-stigma (Table 6).

4 (Insert Table 6 here)

6 **5 Discussion**

7 Most studies regarding health-related problems arisen from self-stigma in OW
8 children were from the West (e.g., Hilbert et al. 2014; Lillis et al. 2010; O'Brien et al.
9 2016; Rees et al. 2009; Roberto et al. 2012). Our findings extended the current literature to
10 the understanding of this area in an Eastern context.

11 In terms of our first hypothesis, we examined the differences in HRQoL between
12 OW and non-OW children. Our findings are in line with a western study (O'Brien et al.
13 2016) that self-stigma was significantly higher in OW group than non-OW group. Self-
14 stigma often arises from unfriendly environment, including weight-based mistreatment,
15 social devaluation and negative stereotype. As OW individuals are more likely to
16 internalize these stigmatizations, they may endorse the same negative discrimination
17 against themselves, resulting in self-stigma (Major et al. 2017). The aforementioned
18 mechanism somewhat explains our results that the level of self-stigma of OW children was
19 higher than that of non-OW children in Hong Kong. Moreover, the OW children are more
20 likely to be treated as having lower athletic, academic, artistic and social ability (Penny
21 and Haddock 2007). These negative expectations from the environment might also be
22 internalized as self-stigma, as shown in our OW children.

23 For the second hypothesis, we examined the difference in HRQoL between OW
24 and non-OW children and found that HRQoL (measured by both SMU and STU) were
25 significantly lower in the OW group as compared with non-OW group. The finding is

1 consistent with previous studies exploring HRQoL in OW children (Chen et al. 2015; Lin
2 et al. 2013; Wallander et al. 2009). Among various domains in both SMU and STU, the
3 largest differences between the two groups of children were the physical and emotional
4 domains of HRQoL. Kolotkin et al. (2006) explained the reasons of these differences. For
5 physical domain, OW children may encounter difficulties in fitting into seats, bending
6 over, climbing stairs, or crossing legs and these barriers may highly lower their perception
7 on own physical health. For emotional domain, evidence showed that OW may lead to
8 decrease in children's self-esteem and increase in risk of developing depression. Pierce and
9 Wardle (1997) found that OW children might believe that being OW would affect their
10 social status among their peers, and thus they would have poorer self-esteem. In addition,
11 Luppino et al. (2010) observed that OW might increase one's inflammation responses and
12 disturb one's stress system. These physiological responses correlate with depression.

13 However, it is noteworthy that there were no significant differences between OW
14 group and non-OW group in generic HRQoL (measured by both child-rated Kid-KINDL
15 and parent-rated KINDL). This contradiction with the previously-stated results with
16 weight-related HRQoL may due to two possible reasons. Lin et al. (2013) found that
17 decrease in general HRQoL was only found in OW children with BMI higher than 95th
18 percentile but not in those with BMI between 85-95th percentile. However, we did not
19 specifically classify our participants between 85-95th and 95th percentiles in this study.
20 Another possible reason is that Kid-KINDL is an instrument that measures generic HRQoL
21 (Ravens-Sieberer and Bullinger 2000), whereas SMU and STU are weight-specific
22 questionnaires that give more precise reflection on how weight affects HRQoL of OW
23 children (Modi and Zeller 2008; Zeller and Modi 2009). Therefore, the Kid-KINDL as
24 compared with SMU and STU might not have the sensitivity to detect the impaired
25 HRQoL difference in our OW group, which might be near 85-95th percentile. Indeed,

1 Strong et al. (2017) found that SMU had higher correlation with BMI as compared with
2 another generic HRQoL instrument. As a result, we suggested using weight-specific
3 HRQoL questionnaires as they are more sensitive than generic QoL to find out HRQoL
4 problems OW children may encounter.

5 For the third hypothesis, we compared the correlations of self-stigma and HRQoL
6 between OW and non-OW children. Our findings indicated that more number of
7 significant negative correlations with stronger magnitude ($r = -2.83$ to -0.61) between self-
8 stigma and total scores of all HRQoL questionnaires in the OW group than in the non-OW
9 group. A Western study showed that the positive correlation between child-rated self-
10 stigma and emotional problems was slightly stronger in the OW children as compared with
11 the non-OW children ($r = 0.19$ for non-OW group, $r = 0.22$ for OW group; Zuba and
12 Warschburger 2017). Our study extended the findings from emotional problems to
13 emotional functioning in HRQoL ($r = -0.44$ for non-OW group, $r = -0.61$ for OW group).
14 Also, our study extended the knowledge from the West to the East that OW children who
15 had lower self-stigma in Hong Kong might have poorer HRQoL.

16 Followed by our third hypothesis, we examined the associations between self-
17 stigma and two types of HRQoL measures in the OW group. The results indicated that
18 self-stigma was negatively associated with both generic HRQoL and weight-related
19 HRQoL (SMU scores, especially in physical and psychosocial domains), and the findings
20 aligned with those of Latner et al. (2013, 2014) on OW adults: a higher level of self-stigma
21 is associated with poorer physical and mental HRQoL among OW adults. Because stress
22 from self-stigma may affect cardiovascular and metabolic health (Puhl and Latner 2007)
23 and self-stigma was associated with lower exercise motivation (Pearl et al. 2015), self-
24 stigma is negatively correlated with physical HRQoL. In addition, higher level of self-
25 stigma was associated with greater psychological distress (O'Brien et al. 2016), lower self-

1 esteem (Pearl and Puhl 2016) and the presence of shame (Palmeira et al. 2016), which
2 somewhat explained the correlation between self-stigma and psychosocial HRQoL.

3 Interestingly, child- and parent-rated HRQoL questionnaires had inconsistency
4 correlations with self-stigma. Specifically, the significant correlations found in child-rated
5 HRQoL questionnaire were not found in parent-rated HRQoL questionnaire. As parents of
6 OW children recruited from the community tended to overestimate HRQoL of their
7 children (Cheng et al. 2016; Su et al. 2013), we postulated that the parents of OW children
8 in community were not aware of OW-related problems of their children, or they perceived
9 their children as having normal weight (Lin et al. 2013). As a result, we might not find
10 significant correlation between self-stigma and parent-rated HRQoL.

11 Another interesting finding was that two measures of self-stigma, WBIS and
12 WSSQ, shared similar relationships with HRQoL in the OW group, but not in the non-OW
13 group. For example, in non-OW group, there were significant associations between WBIS
14 and all domains of SMU (except positive attribute), but none was found between WSSQ
15 and SMU. This inconsistency may be explained by the different terms regarding weight
16 used in the WBIS and WSSQ: our WBIS used neutral wordings to describe the weight-
17 related items (e.g., *“I feel anxious about my weight”* (instead of full sentence being
18 *overweight in English version*) because of what people might think of me”); our WSSQ
19 directly describes the term of overweight (e.g., *“I’ll always go back to being overweight”*).
20 In this sense, WSSQ might not be a sensitive instrument to measure the level of self-stigma
21 for non-OW children.

22 **5.1 Limitation**

23 This study has several limitations. First, our exclusion criteria for participation did not
24 include the diagnosis of mental illnesses. Previous research stated that OW children were
25 prone to have mental health comorbidities (Morrison et al. 2015), while level of anxiety and

1 depression were significant predictors of HRQoL (Stevanovic 2013). Thus, it is uncertain
2 whether the underlying psychological problems of our participants may account for the
3 significant difference in HRQoL and relationship between self-stigma and HRQoL among
4 OW children in our findings. Second, as the weight and height of some children were reported
5 by parents, it may affect its reliability and further studies should apply objective measurement
6 when collecting BMI data. Third, we cannot determine whether it is a causal relationship
7 between self-stigma and HRQoL by our cross-sectional design, and thereby prospective
8 longitudinal research is recommended to explore the relative change of HRQoL to the change
9 of self-stigma. Fourth, given the nature of convenience sampling in a relatively small and
10 homogeneous sample, in which nearly 60% of them were recruited from the same NGO, the
11 generalizability of the results is restricted. Additional study should recruit a larger sample
12 from different areas of Hong Kong.

13 **5.2 Implications and directions for future studies**

14 The results provide health professionals, counselor, and educators with an increased
15 understanding of higher possibility of forming self-stigma for overweight children and how
16 self-stigma were related to lower levels of HRQoL among children in Hong Kong. This
17 information is critical to enhance professionals' clinical skills when working with overweight
18 children. Having an understanding of these relationships between self-stigma and HRQoL
19 will assist professionals in being more responsive to the needs of overweight children in both
20 physical and psychological aspects. In addition, children should be educated regarding self-
21 stigma to enhance awareness about its impact on their quality of life, as well as the associated
22 physical and psychological problems that can occur. Children may be well aware of the
23 problems of overweight, but they might not have insight about how overweight were related
24 to self-stigma and how it impacted on their HRQoL.

25 This article provides preliminary and initial information regarding self-stigma and

1 HRQoL; however, future study is needed to examine psychological problems simultaneously
2 with self-stigma when studying OW children's HRQoL, given that OW children are prone to
3 have mental health comorbidities. In addition, future study can further identify protective
4 factors that moderate the relationships between overweight and self-stigma as well as the link
5 between self-stigma and HRQoL, in order to develop intervention programs accordingly for
6 OW children.

References

- Carels, R. A., & Latner, J. (2016). Weight stigma and eating behaviors. An introduction to the special issue. *Appetite*, *102*, 1-2. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2016.03.001>
- Centre for Health Protection. (2015). Healthy weight healthy kids. *NCD Watch*.
http://www.chp.gov.hk/files/pdf/ncd_watch_mar2015.pdf. Accessed 1 December 2017.
- Census and Statistic Department. (2017). Table E032: Domestic households by household size and monthly household income.
http://www.censtatd.gov.hk/fd.jsp?file=D5250036E2017QQ02E.xls&product_id=D5250036&lang=1. Accessed 1 December 2017.
- Chan, P. L., Ng, S. S., & Chan, D. Y. (2014). Psychometric properties of the Chinese version of the Kid-KINDL-R questionnaire for measuring the health-related quality of life of school-aged children. *Hong Kong Journal of Occupational Therapy*, *24*(1), 28-34.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hkjot.2014.05.001>
- Chan, Y., Chan, Y. Y., Cheng, S. L., Chow, M. Y., Tsang, Y. W., Lee, C., et al. (2017). Investigating quality of life and self-stigma in Hong Kong children with specific learning disabilities. *Research in Developmental Disabilities*, *68*, 131-139.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ridd.2017.07.014>
- Chang, C.-C., Lin, C.-Y., Gronholm, P. C., & Wu, T.-H. (in press). Cross-validation of two commonly used self-stigma measures, Taiwan versions of the Internalized Stigma Mental Illness scale and Self-Stigma Scale-Short, for people with mental illness. *Assessment*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1073191116658547>
- Chang, C.-C., Wu, T.-H., Chen, C.-Y., & Lin, C.-Y. (2016). Comparing internalized stigma between people with different mental disorders in Taiwan. *Journal of Nervous & Mental Disease*, *204*(7), 547-553.

- Chen, Y. P., Wang, H. M., Edwards, T. C., Wang, T., Jiang, X. Y., Lv, Y. R., et al. (2015). Factors influencing quality of life of obese students in Hangzhou, China. *PLoS one*, *10*(3), e0121144. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0121144>
- Cheng, C. P., Luh, W. M., Yang, A. L., Su, C. T., & Lin, C. Y. (2016). Agreement of children and parents scores on Chinese version of Pediatric Quality of Life Inventory Version 4.0: Further psychometric development. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, *11*(3), 891-906.
- Ciupitu-Plath, C. (2016). *Weight stigma experiences and internalization among boys and girls accessing obesity care in Berlin, Germany* (Doctoral thesis, Technical University of Berlin). <https://doi.org/10.14279/depositonce-4998>
- Davison, K. K., Schmalz, D. L., Young, L. M., & Birch, L. L. (2008). Overweight girls who internalize fat stereotypes report low psychosocial well-being. *Obesity*, *16*(S2), S30-S38. <https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2008.451>
- De Onis, M., Blössner, M., & Borghi, E. (2010). Global prevalence and trends of overweight and obesity among preschool children. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, *92*(5), 1257-1264. <https://doi.org/10.3945/ajcn.2010.29786>
- Durso, L. E., & Latner, J. D. (2008). Understanding self-directed stigma: Development of the Weight Bias Internalization Scale. *Obesity*, *16*(S2), S80-S86. <https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2008.448>
- Farhangi, M. A., Emam-Alizadeh, M., Hamed, F., & Jahangiry, L. (2017). Weight self-stigma and its association with quality of life and psychological distress among overweight and obese women. *Eating and Weight Disorders: EWD*, *22*(3), 451-456.
- Faus, A. L., Turchi, R. M., Polansky, M., Berez, A., & Leibowitz, K. L. (2015). Health-related quality of life in overweight/obese children compared with children with inflammatory bowel disease. *Clinical Pediatrics*, *54*(8), 775-782. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0009922814562555>

- Feng, T., & Abebe, D. S. (2017). Eating behaviour disorders among adolescents in a middle school in Dongfanghong, China. *Journal of Eating Disorders*, *5*, 47.
- Flint, S. W., Čadek, M., Codreanu, S. C., Ivić, V., Zomer, C., & Gomoiu, A. (2016). Obesity Discrimination in the Recruitment Process: “You’re Not Hired!” *Frontiers in Psychology*, *7*, 647. <http://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.00647>
- Geliebter, A., & Aversa, A. (2003). Emotional eating in overweight, normal weight, and underweight individuals. *Eating Behaviors*, *3*, 341-347.
- Hilbert, A., Baldofski, S., Zenger, M., Löwe, B., Kersting, A., & Braehler, E. (2014). Weight Bias Internalization Scale: Psychometric properties and population norms. *PLoS One*, *9*(1), e86303. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0086303>
- Huang, W.-Y., Chen, S.-P., Pakpour, A. H., & Lin, C.-Y. (2018). The mediation role of self-esteem for self-stigma on quality of life for people with schizophrenia: A retrospectively longitudinal study. *Journal of Pacific Rim Psychology*, *12*(e10), 1-7.
- Kolotkin, R. L., Zeller, M., Modi, A. C., Samsa, G. P., Quinlan, N. P., Yanovski, J. A., et al. (2006). Assessing weight-related quality of life in adolescents. *Obesity*, *14*(3), 448-457.
- Latner, J. D., Barile, J. P., Durso, L. E., & O'Brien, K. S. (2014). Weight and health-related quality of life: The moderating role of weight discrimination and internalized weight bias. *Eating Behaviors*, *15*(4), 586-590.
- Latner, J. D., Durso, L. E., & Mond, J. M. (2013). Health and health-related quality of life among treatment-seeking overweight and obese adults: Associations with internalized weight bias. *Journal of Eating Disorders*, *1*(1), 3.
- Lee, C.-T., Lin, C.-Y., Strong, C., Lin, Y.-F., Chou, Y.-Y., & Tsai, M.-C. (2018). Metabolic correlates of health-related quality of life among Taiwanese overweight and obese adolescents. *BMC Pediatrics*, *18*, 25.
- Lee, C.-T., Tsai, M.-C., Lin, C.-Y., & Strong, C. (2017). Longitudinal effects of self-report pubertal timing and menarcheal age on adolescent psychological and behavioral

- outcomes in female youths from Northern Taiwan. *Pediatrics & Neonatology*, 58, 313-320. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pedneo.2016.04.004>.
- Lee, J. S., Mishra, G., Hayashi, K., Watanabe, E., Mori, K., & Kawakubo, K. (2016). Combined eating behaviors and overweight: Eating quickly, late evening meals, and skipping breakfast. *Eating Behaviors*, 21, 84-88. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eatbeh.2016.01.009>.
- Lee, K., Dale, J., Guy, A., & Wolke, D. (2018). Bullying and negative appearance feedback among adolescents: Is it objective or misperceived weight that matters? *Journal of Adolescence*, 63, 118-128. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2017.12.008>.
- Lee, S., Ho, T. P., & Hsu, L. K. G. (1993). Fat phobic and non-fat phobic anorexia nervosa: a comparative study of 70 Chinese patients in Hong Kong. *Psychological Medicine*, 23(4), 999-1017. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0033291700026465>
- Lee, S., Leung, T., Lee, A. M., Yu, H., & Leung, C. M. (1996). Body dissatisfaction among Chinese undergraduates and its implications for eating disorders in Hong Kong. *International Journal of Eating Disorders*, 20(1), 77-84.
- Leung, F., Lam, S., & Sze, S. (2001). Cultural expectations of thinness in Chinese women. *Eating Disorders*, 9(4), 339-350.
- Lillis, J., Luoma, J. B., Levin, M. E., & Hayes, S. C. (2010). Measuring weight self-stigma: The weight self-stigma questionnaire. *Obesity*, 18(5), 971-976. <https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2009.353>
- Lin, C.-Y., Su, C.-T., & Ma, H.-I. (2012). Physical activity patterns and quality of life of overweight boys: A preliminary study. *Hong Kong Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 22(1), 31-37.
- Lin, C.-Y., Su, C.-T., Wang, J.-D., & Ma, H.-I. (2013). Self-rated and parent-rated quality of life (QoL) for community-based obese and overweight children. *Acta Paediatrica*, 102(3), e114-e119. <https://doi.org/10.1111/apa.12108>

- Lin, K., & Lee, M. (2017). Validating a Chinese version of the Weight Self-stigma Questionnaire for use with obese adults. *International Journal of Nursing Practice*, 23(4), e12537. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijn.12537>
- Lin, Y.-C., Latner, J. D., Fung, X. C. C., & Lin, C.-Y. (2018a). Poor health and experiences of being bullied in adolescents: Self-perceived overweight and frustration with appearance matter. *Obesity*, 26(2), 397-404. <https://doi.org/10.1002/oby.22041>.
- Lin, Y.-C., & Lin, C.-Y. (2017). Minor symptoms talk: How children react to encountered bullying. *Child Indicators Research*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12187-017-9505-4>
- Lin, Y.-C., Strong, C., Tsai, M.-C., Lin, C.-Y., & Fung, X. C. C. (2018b). Validating Sizing Them Up, a parent-proxy weight-related quality-of-life measure, with community-based children. *International Journal of Clinical & Health Psychology*, 18(1), 81-89. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijchp.2017.10.001>
- Luppino, F. S., de Wit, L. M., Bouvy, P. F., Stijnen, T., Cuijpers, P., Penninx, B. W., et al. (2010). Overweight, obesity, and depression: A systematic review and meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 67(3), 220-229.
- Major, B., Tomiyama, A. J., & Hunger, J. M. (2017). The Negative and Bi-Directional Effects of Weight Stigma on Health. In B. Major, J. Dovidio & B.G. Link (Eds.), *Oxford Handbook of Stigma, Discrimination and Health* (pp. 499-520). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Mendo-Lázaro, S., Polo-del-Río, M. I., Amado-Alonso, D., Iglesias-Gallego, D., & León-del-Barco, B. (2017). Self-concept in childhood: The role of body image and sport practice. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8, 853. <http://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00853>
- Miri, S. F., Javadi, M., Lin, C.-Y., Irandoost, K., Rezazadeh, A., & Pakpour, A. H. (2017). Health related quality of life and Weight Self-Efficacy of Life style among normal-weight, overweight and obese Iranian adolescents: a case control study. *International Journal of Pediatrics*, 5(11), 5975-5984.

- Modi, A. C., & Zeller, M. H. (2008). Validation of a parent-proxy, obesity-specific quality-of-life measure: Sizing them up. *Obesity, 16*(12), 2624-2633.
<https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2008.416>
- Morrison, K. M., Shin, S., Tarnopolsky, M., & Taylor, V. H. (2015). Association of depression & health related quality of life with body composition in children and youth with obesity. *Journal of Affective Disorders, 172*, 18-23.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jad.2014.09.014>
- O'Brien, K. S., Latner, J. D., Puhl, R. M., Vartanian, L. R., Giles, C., Griva, K., et al. (2016). The relationship between weight stigma and eating behavior is explained by weight bias internalization and psychological distress. *Appetite, 102*, 70-76.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2016.02.032>
- Palmeira, L., Pinto-Gouveia, J., & Cunha, M. (2016). The role of weight self-stigma on the quality of life of women with overweight and obesity: A multi-group comparison between binge eaters and non-binge eaters. *Appetite, 105*, 782-789.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2016.07.015>
- Pearl, R. L., & Puhl, R. M. (2016). The distinct effects of internalizing weight bias: An experimental study. *Body Image, 17*, 38-42.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bodyim.2016.02.002>
- Pearl, R. L., Puhl, R. M., & Dovidio, J. F. (2015). Differential effects of weight bias experiences and internalization on exercise among women with overweight and obesity. *Journal of Health Psychology, 20*(12), 1626-1632.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1359105313520338>
- Penny, H., & Haddock, G. (2007). Children's stereotypes of overweight children. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology, 25*(3), 409-418.
<https://doi.org/10.1348/026151006X158807>

- Pierce, J. W., & Wardle, J. (1997). Cause and effect beliefs and self-esteem of overweight children. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 38(6), 645-650.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.1997.tb01691.x>
- Puhl, R. M., & Latner, J. D. (2007). Stigma, obesity, and the health of the nation's children. *Psychological Bulletin*, 133(4), 557. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.133.4.557>
- Ravens-Sieberer, U., & Bullinger, M. (2000). *KINDL^R questionnaire for measuring health-related quality of life in children and adolescents revised version manual*.
<http://www.kindl.org/english/manual/>. Accessed 1 December 2017.
- Rees, R., Oliver, K., Woodman, J., & Thomas, J. (2009). Children's view about obesity, body size, shape and weight: A systematic review. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 67(5), 954-960. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-11-188>
- Reilly, J. (2005). Descriptive epidemiology and health consequences of childhood obesity. *Best Practice & Research Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism*, 19(3), 327-341.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.beem.2005.04.002>
- Roberto, C. A., Sysko, R., Bush, J., Pearl, R., Puhl, R. M., Schvey, N. A., et al. (2012). Clinical correlates of the weight bias internalization scale in a sample of obese adolescents seeking bariatric surgery. *Obesity*, 20(3), 533-539.
<https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2011.123>
- Schwimmer, J. B., Burwinkle, T. M., & Varni, J. W. (2003). Health-related quality of life of severely obese children and adolescents. *JAMA*, 289(14), 1813-1819.
- Scimeca, G., Alborghetti, A., Bruno, A., Troili, G. M., Pandolfo, G., Muscatello, M. R. A., et al. (2016). Self-worth and psychological adjustment of obese children: An analysis through the Draw-A-Person. *World Journal of Psychiatry*, 6(3), 329.
<https://doi.org/10.5498/wjp.v6.i3.329>

- Shoup, J. A., Gattshall, M., Dandamudi, P., & Estabrooks, P. (2008). Physical activity, quality of life, and weight status in overweight children. *Quality of Life Research, 17*(3), 407-412.
- So, H. K., Nelson, E. A., Li, A. M., Wong, E. M., Lau, J. T., Guldan, G. S., et al. (2008). Secular changes in height, weight and body mass index in Hong Kong Children. *BMC Public Health, 8*(1), 320. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-8-320>
- Stevanovic, D. (2013). Impact of emotional and behavioral symptoms on quality of life in children and adolescents. *Quality of Life Research, 22*(2), 333-337. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11136-012-0158-y>
- Strong, C., Lin, Y.-C., Tsai, M.-C., & Lin, C.-Y. (2017). Factor structure of Sizing Me Up, a self-reported weight-related quality of life instrument, in community children across weight status. *Childhood Obesity, 13*(2), 111-119. <https://doi.org/10.1089/chi.2016.0259>
- Su, C.-T., Wang, J.-D., & Lin, C.-Y. (2013). Child-rated versus parent-rated quality of life of community-based obese children across gender and grade. *Health and Quality of Life Outcomes, 11*(1), 206. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1477-7525-11-206>
- Tam, C. K., Ng, C. F., Yu, C. M., & Young, B. W. (2007). Disordered eating attitudes and behaviours among adolescents in Hong Kong: prevalence and correlates. *Journal of Pediatrics and Child Health, 43*(12), 811-817.
- The Government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region Press Releases. (October 11, 2016). *Hong Kong World Obesity Day 2016 focuses on childhood obesity*. <http://www.info.gov.hk/gia/general/201610/11/P2016101100232.htm>. Accessed 1 December 2017.
- Tomiya, A. J. (2014). Weight stigma is stressful. A review of evidence for the cyclic obesity/weight-based stigma model. *Appetite, 82*, 8-15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2014.06.108>

- Vogt Yuan, A. S. (2010). Body perceptions, weight control behavior, and changes in adolescents' psychological well-being over time: a longitudinal examination of gender. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 39(8), 927-939. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-009-9428-6>
- Wallander, J. L., Taylor, W. C., Grunbaum, J. A., Franklin, F. A., Harrison, G. G., Kelder, S. H., et al. (2009). Weight status, quality of life, and self-concept in African American, Hispanic, and White fifth-grade children. *Obesity*, 17(7), 1363-1368. <https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2008.668>
- Williams, J., Wake, M., Hesketh, K., Maher, E., & Waters, E. (2005). Health-related quality of life of overweight and obese children. *JAMA*, 293(1), 70-76.
- World Health Organization. (1993). Study protocol for the World Health Organization project to develop a Quality of Life assessment instrument (WHOQOL). *Quality of Life Research*, 2(2), 153-159.
- World Health Organization. (2007). *Child growth standards*. http://www.who.int/childgrowth/standards/bmi_for_age/en/. Accessed 1 December 2017.
- Wong, Y., & Huang, Y. C. (1999). Obesity concerns, weight satisfaction and characteristics of female dieters: A study on female Taiwanese college students. *Journal of the American College of Nutrition*, 18(2), 194-200.
- Xin guang ti pan. (n.d.). In *ChineseWords.org*. <http://www.chinesewords.org/idiom/show-11633.html>. Accessed 1 December 2017.
- Zeller, M. H., & Modi, A. C. (2009). Development and initial validation of an obesity-specific quality-of-life measure for children: sizing me up. *Obesity*, 17(6), 1171-1177. <https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2009.47>
- Zhang, J., Seo, D. C., Kolbe, L., Lee, A., Middlestadt, S., Zhao, W., et al. (2011). Comparison of overweight, weight perception, and weight-related practices among high

school students in three large Chinese cities and two large US cities. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 48(4), 366-372. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2010.07.015>

Zuba, A., & Warschburger, P. (2017). The role of weight teasing and weight bias internalization in psychological functioning: a prospective study among school-aged children. *European Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00787-017-0982-2>

Table 1 Body mass index (BMI) cutoffs for classifying children in overweight or non-overweight group (*cf.* So et. al 2008)

Age in year	BMI (kg/m²)	
	Boys	Girls
8	18.4	17.6
9	19.1	18.0
10	19.7	18.7
11	20.3	19.5
12	20.8	20.4

Note. A child with a BMI value higher than the age- and gender-specific cutoff is classified as overweight; lower than the cutoff is classified as non-overweight.

Table 2 Demographics of the participants

Characteristics	Overweight group (<i>n</i> =50)	Non-overweight group (<i>n</i> =50)
Age (years), <i>M</i> (SD)	9.36 (1.17)	9.73 (1.28)
Gender		
Male	30 (60.0%)	31 (62.0%)
Female	20 (40.0%)	19 (38.0%)
Body mass index, <i>M</i> (SD)	22.86 (2.32)	16.27 (2.10)
Health status		
Without chronic illness	48 (96.0%)	47 (94.0%)
With chronic illness	2 (4.0%)	3 (6.0%)
Mother's age, <i>M</i> (SD)	41.47 (5.84)	40.35 (5.36)
Father's age, <i>M</i> (SD)	45.49 (6.66)	43.90 (8.24)
Monthly family income		
<\$25,000 HKD	24 (48.0%)	29 (58.0%)
>\$25,000 HKD	25 (50%)	20 (40.0%)
Missing	1 (2.0%)	1 (2.0%)
Rater		
Mother	32 (64.0%)	38 (76.0%)
Father	13 (26.0%)	8 (16.0%)
Others (grandparents or aunties)	5 (10.0%)	4 (8.0%)

Note. Median monthly household income in Hong Kong is around \$26,000, referring to the Census and Statistic Department (2017).

Table 3 Differences in weight-related self-stigma and Health- related Quality of life (HRQoL) between overweight (OW) and non-OW groups

	<i>M (SD)</i>		<i>t</i> or <i>Z</i> (<i>p</i> -value)
	OW group	Non-OW group	
Self-stigma			
WBIS	26.60 (9.56)	21.52 (7.19)	3.00 (0.003)
WSSQ	14.50 (4.89)	11.02 (4.37)	3.75 (< 0.001)
HRQoL			
Child-rated Kid-KINDL			
Total score	62.72 (12.81)	67.36 (11.07)	1.94 (0.055)
Physical	72.96 (17.76)	76.25 (16.51)	0.96 (0.339)
Emotional	77.13 (17.39)	79.63 (15.51)	0.76 (0.450)
Self-esteem	43.75 (24.32)	51.63 (18.81)	1.81 (0.073)
Family	62.21 (19.34)	69.25 (18.25)	1.87 (0.064)
Friend	67.63 (19.01)	73.42 (17.43)	1.59 (0.116)
School	52.63 (13.25)	54.00 (14.10)	0.50 (0.616)
Parent-rated Kid-KINDL			
Total score	64.13 (10.24)	67.15 (10.40)	1.46 (0.147)
Physical	71.50 (15.98)	73.63 (16.57)	0.65 (0.516)
Emotional	72.63 (13.88)	75.63 (13.02)	1.12 (0.268)
Self-esteem	52.13 (18.02)	55.75 (19.64)	0.96 (0.339)
Family	67.50 (14.51)	70.88 (16.88)	1.07 (0.286)
Friend	66.88 (15.53)	73.38 (14.22)	2.18 (0.031)
School	54.13 (11.61)	53.63 (13.07)	0.20 (0.840)
Sizing Me Up			
Total score	70.39 (13.55)	79.88 (10.27)	3.95 (<0.001)
Emotional	82.83 (19.59)	91.00 (15.69)	2.30 (0.024)
Physical	82.93 (23.61)	93.47 (11.70)	2.83 (0.006)
Teasing/marginalization	82.33 (21.40)	88.00 (20.49)	1.35 (0.179)
Positive attributes	33.00 (20.95)	47.00 (24.47)	3.07 (0.003)
Social avoidance ^a	88.13 (16.40)	93.60 (12.04)	1.96 (0.050)
Sizing Them Up			
Total score	77.70 (11.97)	85.86 (5.90)	4.33 (<.001)
Emotional	82.21 (14.60)	92.76 (8.06)	4.47 (<.001)
Physical	88.53 (12.78)	96.40 (5.59)	3.99 (<0.001)
Teasing/marginalization	84.00 (16.97)	96.44 (6.90)	4.80 (<0.001)
Positive attributes	45.00 (19.78)	51.17 (22.02)	1.47 (0.144)
Mealtime	82.33 (18.57)	82.00 (19.87)	0.09 (0.931)
School	94.67 (18.27)	100.00 (0.00)	2.28 (0.022)

WBIS, Weight Bias Internalization Scale; WSSQ, Weight Self-Stigma Questionnaire; HRQoL, Health-related Quality of life.

^a Mann-Whitney U test was used because of the non-normal distribution.

Table 4 Correlation between weight-related self-stigma and health-related quality of life (HRQoL) for overweight group

HRQoL measures	<i>r</i> (<i>p</i> -value)	
	WBIS	WSSQ
Child-rated Kid-KINDL		
Total score	-0.44(0.001)	-0.28 (0.052)
Physical	-0.54 (<0.001)	-0.43 (0.002)
Emotional	-0.44 (0.001)	-0.24 (0.101)
Self esteem	-0.05 (0.751)	-0.11 (0.436)
Family	-0.45 (0.001)	-0.16 (0.266)
Friend	-0.24 (0.090)	-0.08 (0.599)
School	-0.15 (0.303)	-0.17 (0.248)
Parent-rated Kid-KINDL		
Total score	-0.41 (0.003)	-0.38 (0.006)
Physical	-0.47 (0.001)	-0.54 (<0.001)
Emotional	-0.26 (0.065)	-0.14 (0.345)
Self esteem	-0.17 (0.230)	-0.31 (0.027)
Family	-0.36 (0.009)	-0.15 (0.307)
Friend	-0.24 (0.099)	-0.26 (0.087)
School	-0.16 (0.279)	-0.12 (0.406)
Sizing Me Up		
Total score	-0.56 (<0.001)	-0.36 (0.010)
Emotional	-0.61 (<0.001)	-0.32 (0.022)
Physical	-0.39 (0.005)	-0.37 (0.008)
Teasing/marginalization	-0.35 (0.012)	-0.16 (0.255)
Positive attributes	-0.08 (0.578)	0.05 (0.740)
Social avoidance	-0.59 (<0.001)	-0.46 (0.001)
Sizing Them Up		
Total score	-0.34 (0.016)	-0.33 (0.019)
Emotional	-0.28 (0.050)	-0.20 (0.165)
Physical	-0.28 (0.050)	-0.28 (0.046)
Teasing/marginalization	-0.20 (0.174)	-0.21 (0.153)
Positive attributes	-0.24 (0.089)	-0.33 (0.018)
Mealtime	-0.30 (0.032)	-0.26 (0.068)
School ^a	-0.18 (0.212)	-0.19 (0.188)

^a Spearman's rho tests were used because of the non-normal distribution.

Table 5 Correlation between weight-related self-stigma and health-related quality of life (HRQoL) for non-overweight group

HRQoL measures	<i>r</i> (<i>p</i> -value)	
	WBIS	WSSQ
Child-rated Kid-KINDL		
Total score	-0.31 (0.030)	-0.13 (0.366)
Physical	-0.26 (0.067)	-0.09 (0.548)
Emotional	-0.09 (0.516)	-0.01 (0.972)
Self esteem	-0.09 (0.537)	-0.03 (0.820)
Family	-0.36 (0.011)	-0.14 (0.352)
Friend	-0.19 (0.180)	-0.11 (0.449)
School	-0.22 (0.130)	-0.16 (0.284)
Parent-rated Kid-KINDL		
Total score	0.07 (0.624)	-0.01 (0.971)
Physical	-0.13 (0.353)	-0.10 (0.505)
Emotional	0.07 (0.642)	-0.19 (0.189)
Self esteem	0.19 (0.176)	0.14 (0.333)
Family	0.02 (0.918)	-0.02 (0.874)
Friend	-0.01 (0.923)	-0.03 (0.857)
School	0.15 (0.310)	0.13 (0.358)
Sizing Me Up		
Total score	-0.42 (0.002)	-0.11 (0.441)
Emotional	-0.44 (0.001)	-0.07 (0.620)
Physical	-0.45 (0.001)	-0.23 (0.114)
Teasing/marginalization	-0.31 (0.030)	-0.02 (0.890)
Positive attributes	-0.09 (0.551)	0.01 (0.950)
Social avoidance ^a	-0.31(0.027)	-0.22 (0.127)
Sizing Them Up		
Total score	-0.14 (0.328)	-0.14 (0.352)
Emotional	-0.06 (0.699)	-0.05 (0.711)
Physical	-0.35 (0.012)	-0.32 (0.026)
Teasing/marginalization	-0.18 (0.207)	-0.04 (0.768)
Positive attributes	0.08 (0.607)	0.02 (0.875)
Mealtime	-0.21 (0.145)	-0.17 (0.232)
School ^a	_b	_b

^a Spearman's rho tests were used because of the non-normal distribution.

^b Correlations cannot be performed because the School domain scores were 100 for all participants.

Table 6 Prediction ability of weight-related self-stigma on health-related quality of life (HRQoL) for overweight children^a

HRQoL measures	β (<i>p</i> -value)	
	WBIS	WSSQ
Child-rated Kid-KINDL		
Total score	-0.36(0.019)	-- ^b
Physical	-0.35 (0.025)	-0.35 (0.029)
Emotional	-0.38 (0.015)	-- ^b
Family	-0.44 (0.004)	-- ^b
Sizing Me Up		
Total score	-0.59 (<0.001)	-0.52 (0.001)
Emotional	-0.69 (<0.001)	-0.52 (<0.001)
Physical	-0.40 (0.004)	-0.45 (0.001)
Teasing/marginalization	-0.35 (0.026)	-- ^b
Social avoidance	-0.60 (<0.001)	-0.61 (<0.001)

^a Age, gender, and with (or without) chronic illness were controlled in all the regression models.

^b Regression models were not constructed because of non-significant correlation between self-stigma and the HRQoL domain.

β = standardized coefficient.