NAMES, Vol. 63 No. 2, June 2015, 96–108

Japanese Young Adults' Disrespectful Forms of Address for Fathers Predict Feelings of Rejection and Depression

KENJI YOKOTANI
Niigata Seiryo University, Japan

Japanese young adults' forms of address for their parents (e.g., *Dad*) reportedly demonstrate their respect for their parents. Such respect has been linked to young adults' interpersonal attitudes as well as depressive symptoms. Given these relationships, the present study identified possible links between young adults' forms of address for their parents, perceived parent-child relationships, interpersonal attitudes, and depressive symptoms. Participants were 226 Japanese college students. Young adults' disrespectful forms of address for parents were positively correlated with feelings of rejection and depressive symptoms. Furthermore, young adults' disrespectful forms of address for fathers predicted the adults' feelings of rejection and depressive symptoms, although there were no such relationships for disrespectful forms of address for mothers. These findings indicated that young adults' disrespectful forms of address for parents, especially fathers, were linked to their negative interpersonal attitudes and depressive symptoms.

KEYWORDS Japan, kinship terms, psychology, honorifics, child, depression

Introduction

Personal names so frequently represent personal and cultural identities that name use was researched for hundreds of years (Lawson, 1984). In eastern Asia, personal names frequently denoted some representation of family lineage. Actually, all Japanese citizens were identified based on their family registration system; this differed from French and North American citizens who were identified by their personal registration system (Mizuno, 1992). All personal names in Japan can be evidence or counterevidence of maintenance of family continuity through the family registration system, even in the current era (Mizuno, 1992). This background engenders the questions of how Japanese people use names in their family on a daily basis and how these names may be linked to their family relationships and personal feelings.

 DOI 10.1179/0027773815Z.000000000112

Succession of the patrilineal surname meant maintenance of family continuity in Japan. For example, a Japanese wealthy merchant family name, *Mitsui*, existed for three hundred years and currently represents a number of *Mitsui* family-run conglomerates, such as *Sumitomo Mitsui* Banking Corporation (Mitsui-bunko, 1971). Meanwhile, children's changes in the patrilineal surname meant family discontinuity in Japan. For example, many feudal lords during the beginning of the *Edo* period, or "the first half of the 17th century" were considered outsiders by the rulers of Japan. They changed their surnames to *Matsudaira*, which was the rulers' former surname, and changed their religion to follow the rulers (Kuroda, 1997). Their change of surname meant that they were disconnected from their previous family lines and loyal to the current rulers. Succession of the father's surname is still popular and means maintenance of family continuity in the current era (Mizuno, 1992).

Succession of a portion of the father's first name also meant maintenance of family continuity in Japan. For example, first names including 眞, or "truth" meant a direct descendant of feudal lords in Akita prefecture during the first half of the eighteenth century (Akita-kenritsu-akita toshokan, 1979). First names including 仁 or "human-heartedness" have been a symbol of the Japanese emperors since 858 (Otoh, 2012). In 1868, only the Japanese imperial family members were allowed to use the emperors' first names, such as 睦, 統, and 惠, as their own first name. Furthermore, these characters were not publishable in newspapers (Otoh, 2012). Although succession of the father's first name is rare in contemporary Japan (Sato, 2007), during the Japanese early modern period, authoritative personal names were exclusively used for specific persons and were not used without their direct permission.

Address by first name was avoided in Japan by the eighth century (Hozumi, 1926). People addressed authoritative persons with euphemistic names rather than their first name to show their respect. For example, in the *Edo* period, rulers were addressed with *Kubo sama* or "His Serene Highness" rather than their first name. Rulers' wives were also addressed with *Midaidokoro sama* or "Sir Kitchen" (Hotta, 2007). In the same way, lords were addressed with *Yakata sama* or "Sir Castle," and their wives were *Gozen sama* or "Sir place near the noble person" in Miyagi prefecture (Hotta, 2007). These euphemistic names during the *Edo* period represented speakers' respect for their listeners.

In the context of contemporary Japanese families, parents were addressed with kinship terms, such as *O/toh/san* or "polite prefix, father, and polite suffix," *Toh/san* or "father and polite suffix," *O/kah/san* or "polite prefix, mother, polite suffix," and *Kah/san* or "mother, polite suffix." These forms of address were most common in Japan (Suzuki, 1993; Yokotani and Hasegawa, 2011). By the 1930s, in the extended family, these kinship terms were used by not only their children but also their siblings and parents (Kim, 2002). Speakers' use of these kinship terms represented their respect for the listeners.

One study identified the links between forms of address used by young adults for their parents and their respect for their parents in Japan. Yokotani (2012) studied 329 Japanese university students and reported that those who addressed their fathers with kinship terms perceived their fathers to be more emotionally accessible and communicated more with their fathers than those who did not. These findings implied that those who addressed their fathers with kinship terms showed their respect for fathers

and had satisfactory father-child relationships. This implication was also consistent with previous studies in Europe (Brown and Gilman, 1960; Dickey, 1997) and the United States (Wood and Kroger, 1991).

One of the limitations of Yokotani's (2012) study is that a binary kinship vs. non-kinship category did not allow for subtle nuances. A variety of names used in Asian countries had a variety of meanings (Ide, 1982; Koo, 1992; Peng, 1974). For example, young adults' use of vulgar and polite second personal pronouns (*Omae* vs. *Anata* in Japan; *Kaksi* vs. *Elusin* in Korea) reflected different kinds of respect for their parents, even though both of these second personal pronouns can be categorized in non-kinship terms (Koo, 1992; Peng, 1974). A previous study also pointed out that even slight change in pronunciation affected name meanings (Unser-Schutz, 2014). Hence, individual names would have needed to have been differentiated in order to clarify name meaning (Yokotani, 2014a).

Yokotani's (2012) strength is that children's respect signaled by their forms of address for their parents appeared to be possibly linked to their general interpersonal attitudes and psychological symptoms. From parental authority perspectives, several studies have demonstrated that young adults often develop a positive view of cooperative behaviors through respect for their parents (Baumrind, 1971; Buri, 1991; Chao, 1994; Hwang, 1999). Yokotani and Hasegawa (2011) found that Japanese young adults who addressed their fathers with kinship terms felt more sense of safety and less anxiety in interpersonal situations than those who did not. In contrast, adolescents and young adults who did not view parental authority as legitimate were found to have more intense conflicts with their parents (Smetana, 1995) and more severe depressive symptoms (Kerr, and others, 2012; Patock-Peckham and Morgan-Lopez, 2007) compared to those young adults who viewed parental authority as legitimate. Several studies also identified possible links between several forms of address and psychopathological symptoms (Crozier and Dimmock, 1999; Crozier and Skliopidou, 2002; Keltner, and others, 2003). These findings implied that forms of address used by children for their parents were possibly linked to their interpersonal attitudes and depressive symptoms.

The present study had two aims. First, I aimed to identify subtle differences of individual names. According to a previous study (Yokotani, 2014a), children's forms of address were scaled from the perspective of disrespect. Furthermore, to clarify the disrespect scale, the present study also scaled their forms of address from the perspective of intimacy, because many studies reported links between children's intimacy with parents and their interpersonal attitudes/depression (e.g., Armsden, and others, 1990; Bowlby, 1973; Kerns and Stevens, 1996). Second, I aimed to identify the possible links between disrespect scales and interpersonal feelings of acceptance and rejection (Leary, Tambor, Terdal, and Downs, 1995), and depressive symptoms. The present study had six operational hypotheses. Hypothesis 1: Children's disrespect for their fathers would be negatively linked to interpersonal feelings of acceptance. Hypothesis 2: Children's disrespect for their fathers would be positively linked to interpersonal feelings of rejection. Hypothesis 3: Children's disrespect for their fathers would be positively linked to their depressive symptoms. Hypothesis 4: Children's disrespect for their mothers would be negatively linked to interpersonal feelings of acceptance.

Hypothesis 5: Children's disrespect for their mothers would be positively linked to interpersonal feelings of rejection. Hypothesis 6: Children's disrespect for their mothers would be positively linked to their depressive symptoms.

Method

Participants

Participants were 226 Japanese college students: 91 (40%) from *Hokuriku* or "North land", 82 (36%) from *Chubu* or "Central area", and 53 (23%) from *Kyushu* or "Nine states" areas. They took one of four faculty members' classes and were recruited by the faculty. There were 204 (90%) female respondents and 20 (9%) male participants. One was not categorized as either female or male, and one did not disclose gender. The mean participant age was 20.2 years (*SD* = 2.0 years). The average number of participant family members was 4.6 (*SD* = 1.1). Of the participants' families, 190 (84%) were double-parent families with either biological mother and father, 189; or a stepmother and a biological mother, 1. There were 24 (10%) respondents who indicated that they came from single-parent families. Of these, 21 had single mother; and 3 had a single father. Five other participants (2%) had no-parent families. Seven participants (3%) did not disclose their family structure.

Procedure

The present study was approved by the ethical committee of a private university. The university was located in the *Hokuriku*, or "North land" area of Japan, comprising around 1,700 students and 100 nursing, social work, and psychology faculty members. This questionnaire study was conducted from December 2013 to March 2014. Two faculty members in the private university and the other two faculty members from two universities personally distributed the questionnaire to students in their classes. All students provided informed consent to the faculty members before they responded to the questionnaire. The questionnaire included the family form of address sheet, the Parental Bonding Instrument, the Sense of Acceptance and Rejection Questionnaire, and the Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression Scale to assess their forms of address for parents, perceived parent-child relationships, interpersonal attitudes, and depressive symptoms, respectively. Participation was voluntary and all responses were anonymous. All participants completed the questionnaires in their classrooms individually.

Measures

Family form of address sheet. The family form of address sheet was used to assess the respondents' forms of address for their parents (Yokotani, 2013a). Participants indicated their most frequently used address for their father within the family during the past three months. The most frequently used address reportedly reflected the daily relationship between the speaker and the listener (Peng, 1974), which corresponded to young adults' regular perceptions of parent-child relationships (Yokotani, 2012). Participants selected the address from three choices: *Otohsan* or "father with polite prefix and suffix", *Tohsan* or "father with polite suffix", or other. If participants

found an appropriate form of address among the specific choices listed, they circled it. If not, they circled "other" and wrote down the form they used. When a participant had many forms of address, they wrote down the ones most used. Similarly, the participants selected the address for their mother from three choices: *Okahsan* or "mother with polite prefix and suffix", *Kahsan* or "mother with polite suffix", or other.

The sampled forms of address for parents were evaluated based on Japanese semantic differential scales (Yokotani, 2014a). The scales were derived from young adults' evaluations of Japanese common forms of address. They evaluated these forms of address from intimacy (distant-close) and disrespect (humble-arrogant) perspectives. Their evaluation averages were used to quantify young adults' forms of address for parents on the basis of degree of intimacy and disrespect. For example, on the basis of this scoring system, a daughter's use of *papa* was rated as 3.7 on the paternal disrespectfulness scale and 6.3 on the paternal intimacy scale. Her use of *Otohsan* or "polite prefix, kinship term, and polite suffix" was rated as 3.6 on the paternal disrespectfulness scale and 5.3 on the paternal intimacy scale.[2]

Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI). The present study used the Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI) to assess young adults' perceived parent-child relationships (Parker, Tupling, and Brown, 1979). The PBI evaluated adults' perceived parental care and control. The PBI had long-term (20 year) stability in the United States (Wilhelm, Niven, Parker, and Hadzi-Pavlovic, 2005) and content validity in Japan (Kitamura and Suzuki, 1993). The Japanese version of PBI (Kitamura and Suzuki, 1993) was used to assess perceptions of parenting. The PBI measured how people remember their parents during their first 16 years of life. The PBI included two subscales. The "care" subscale included 12 items (e.g., "spoke to me in a warm and friendly voice") and the "control" subscale included 13 items (e.g., "tried to control everything I did"). These items were each rated on a 0–3 point scale (very like, moderately like, moderately unlike, and very unlike). Care and control items for the father were the same as those for the mother, except that the word for "mother" was replaced by the word for "father." Hence, the PBI included 50 total items.

Sense of Acceptance and Rejection Questionnaire (SARQ). The Sense of Acceptance and Rejection Questionnaire (SARQ) was also used to assess interpersonal attitudes. The SARQ had construct validity in Japanese young adults (Sugiyama and Sakamoto, 2006). The SARQ was based on sociometric theory (Leary, and others, 1995) and measured the sense of acceptance and rejection in general interpersonal situations. The SARQ included two subscales: acceptance (e.g., "I am trusted") and rejection (e.g., "I am continually criticized"). Both subscales included eight items. These items were rated on a 1–5 point scale (e.g., very true, somewhat true, neutral, somewhat false, and very false). The acceptance subscale was associated with outgoing attitudes in general interpersonal situations, whereas the rejection subscale was related to avoidant and ambivalent attitudes in such situations (Sugiyama and Sakamoto, 2006).

Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression Scale (CES-D). The Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression Scale (CES-D) was used to evaluate depressive symptoms of young adults (Radloff, 1977). The CES-D had criterion validities that distinguished depressive outpatients from healthy college students (e.g., Santor, Zuroff, Ramsay, Cervantes, and Palacios, 1995). The Japanese version of the CES-D was used

here (Radloff, 1977; Shima, Kano, Kitamura, and Asai, 1985). The CES-D measured depressive symptoms experienced during the last week. The CES-D included 20 items (e.g., "you felt depressed") rated on a 4-point scale: rarely or never (less than 1 day), some or a little of the time (1–2 days), occasionally or a moderate amount of the time (3–4 days), and most or all of the time (5–7 days). The CES-D has been well validated both in general and clinical samples (e.g., Santor, and others, 1995).

Statistical analysis

Descriptive statistics were calculated to compare young adults' intimacy and disrespect ratings with kinship terms and gender. Paired *t*-tests were used for comparisons of these ratings between fathers and mothers. The Mann-Whitney test was used to analyze the ratings between sons and daughters, because the distributions of sons' ratings were not normal. (Kolmogorov-Smirnov's D of sons' intimacy with father and mother were = .38 ($p < .001$), and .30 ($p < .01$), respectively. The D of their disrespect for father and mother were .41 ($p < .001$), and .24 ($p < .05$), respectively). The Fisher's exact test was also used to compare category frequencies. Cohen's *d* was used as an effect size measure.

Hypothesis testing clarified links between young adults' forms of address and interpersonal feeling of acceptance, rejection, and depressive symptoms. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients and stepwise multiple regression analysis were used. The Statistical Package for Social Science 21.0 (SPSS 21) was used.

Results

Descriptive statistics

The Japanese semantic differential scales for forms of address were used to score participants' forms of address for parents (Yokotani, 2014a). These forms of address were scored based on degree of disrespect (1 = humble, 4 = neutral, 7 = arrogant) and intimacy (1 = distant, 4 = neutral, 7 = close). Thirty-one participants (13%) did not provide their forms of address for fathers. Among 195 participants, 193 (99 %) participant forms of address for fathers were rated according to degrees of disrespect and intimacy (Table 1). Two (1%) forms of address were too rare to rate (*Pah or* "abbreviated papa", *Honmyo kun* or "first name with intimate suffix"). Similarly, seventeen (8%) participants did not indicate their forms of address for mothers. Among 209 participants, 206 (99%) participant forms of address for mothers were rated according to degree of disrespect and intimacy. Three (1%) forms of address were too rare to rate (*Mah* or "Abbreviated mama", *Ofukuro* or "Old cheese", *Honmyo ko* or "first name with suffix for daughter").

Most participants used kinship terms to address their fathers: 186 (95%) respondents used kinship terms while only 9 (5%) participants used non-kinship terms. For the mothers, the same pattern was found. A total of 200 (96%) respondents used kinship terms and 9 (4%) participants used non-kinship terms. See Table 1. Use of non-kinship terms for parents significantly signaled disrespect for one's parents, regardless of their gender (father-daughter relationships, Mann-Whitney[1] $U = 3.0$, $n = 13$, $p < .05$; father-son relationships, Mann-Whitney $U = 1.0$, $n = 13$, $p < .01$; mother-daughter relationships, $U = 0.0$, $n = 13$, $p < .01$; mother-son relationships,

TABLE 1

JAPANESE YOUNG ADULTS' DISRESPECT FOR AND INTIMACY WITH PARENTS

	Disrespect for Father			Intimacy with Father		Disrespect for Mother			Intimacy with Mother		English Translation
Japanese	*n*	D	S	D	S	*N*	D	S	D	S	
O-toh-san O-kah-san	129	3.6	3.7	5.5	5.3	141	3.7	3.5	5.3	5.3	Polite prefix, KT, polite suffix
Papa Mama	28	3.7	3.8	6.3	5.8	35	4.0	3.7	6.1	6.2	Papa or Mama
Toh-san Kah-san	13	3.9	3.8	5.1	5.4	10	4.0	3.8	5.0	5.5	KT with polite suffix
O-ttoh O-kkah	6	3.9	4.0	5.6	5.5	6	4.2	4.1	5.6	5.7	KT with polite prefix
Toh-chan Kah-chan	4	4.0	4.0	5.9	5.8	3	4.2	4.1	5.7	5.8	KT with intimate suffix
Oyaji	3	5.3	4.5	4.7	5.6	-	-	-	-	-	Dad
Mammy	-	-	-	-	-	1	4.2	3.9	5.8	5.7	Mammy
O-to-n O-ka-n	2	4.1	4.1	5.7	5.6	4	4.5	4.2	5.9	5.8	Polite prefix, KT, abbreviated suffix
Chichi Haha	1	3.8	3.7	3.0	3.2	0	3.4	3.4	2.6	2.8	KT, modest type
Honmyo	2	5.4	5.4	3.5	3.5	5	5.9	5.3	3.8	4.0	FN
Honmyo-chan	-	-	-	-	-	2	5.0	4.4	5.7	5.7	FN with intimate suffix
Adana	1	4.7	4.8	5.8	5.3	0	4.7	4.5	5.7	5.6	A hypocorism of name
Ne	1	4.9	4.8	3.1	3.6	1	5.2	4.8	2.9	3.6	Hey
Oi	1	6.3	6.1	2.2	2.7	1	4.7	6.3	3.1	2.6	Ass
Yobanai	3	4.9	4.3	1.4	1.8	0	-	4.7	-	1.8	I never address

D: Daughter, S: Son, KT: Kinship Term, FN: First name. The total number of participants was smaller than the total number of forms of address, because some participants used several forms of address for their parents.

$U = 0.0$, $n = 14$, $p < .001$). Sons' use of kinship terms for fathers also significantly signaled intimacy with fathers ($U = 36.5$, $n = 13$, $p < .05$). However, use of kinship terms did not serve to signal sons' intimacy with their mothers or daughters' intimacy with either parent.

Table 2 shows gender differences in young adults' disrespect of parents, intimacy with parents, and their perceived parent-child relationships. Young adults used disrespectful forms of address for their mothers significantly more than they used such forms of address for their fathers. They also perceived more parental care and control from their mothers compared to their fathers. Furthermore, the sons used more disrespectful and less intimate forms of address for fathers than the daughters did.

Hypothesis testing

Table 3 shows that young adults' disrespect scales for fathers were negatively correlated with their feelings of acceptance ($r = -.19$, $p < .01$), and positively correlated

TABLE 2

GENDER DIFFERENCES IN YOUNG ADULTS' DISRESPECT FOR PARENTS, INTIMACY WITH PARENTS, AND PERCEIVED PARENTING

	Mother			Father					
	M	*SD*	Sex difference	*M*	*SD*	Sex difference	*df*	*t*	*d*
Disrespect	3.8	0.3	*n.s.*	3.7	0.3	$D < S$ ***[b]	189	4.2***	0.3
Intimacy	5.3	0.4	*n.s.*	5.4	0.6	$S < D$**[a]	189	1.9	0.2
Care	27.8	7.2	*n.s.*	23.8	7.5	*n.s.*	206	7.8**	0.5
Control	12.4	7.2	*n.s.*	10.9	6.3	*n.s.*	206	3.5**	0.2

S: Sons, D: Daughters. *n.s.*: not significant, [a] Man-Whitney $U = 1934.0$ ($n = 191$), [b] Man-Whitney $U = 597.0$ ($n = 191$), **: $p < .01$, ***: $p < .001$

with their feelings of rejection ($r = .28$, $p < .01$) and depressive symptoms ($r = .25$, $p < .01$). Along the same lines, their intimacy scales for fathers were positively correlated with their feelings of acceptance ($r = .17$, $p < .05$), and negatively correlated with their feelings of rejection ($r = -.20$, $p < .01$) and depressive symptoms ($r = -.13$, $p < .07$). Their disrespect scales for mothers were positively correlated with their feelings of rejection ($r = .16$, $p < .05$) and depressive symptoms ($r = .17$, $p < .05$), but not their feelings of acceptance. Their intimacy scales for mothers were negatively correlated with their depressive symptoms ($r = -.14$, $p < .05$) but not their feelings of rejection and acceptance.

Young adults' disrespect scales, intimacy scales, perceived care, and perceived control were included as predictor variables in regression equations for interpersonal attitudes and depressive symptoms (eight predictor variables in Table 3). The regression analysis of feelings of rejection was conducted in a stepwise fashion. Table 3 shows that feelings of rejection were positively predicted by disrespect scales for fathers as well as perceived paternal control. In the same manner, regression analyses were conducted on depressive symptoms and feelings of acceptance. Table 3 shows that depressive symptoms were positively predicted by disrespect scales for fathers and perceived parental control. The feelings of acceptance were positively predicted by perceived maternal care and negatively predicted by perceived paternal control, but not forms of address (Table 3).

Discussion

The present study identified possible links between Japanese forms of address within the family and interpersonal attitudes and personal feelings. This was the first study to identify the links between forms of address used by children for their father and their depressive symptoms, at least my knowledge. Several studies found that forms of address used by husbands for their wives were linked with their couple relationships (Keltner, and others, 2003; Yokotani, 2013b; Yokotani, 2014b). Other studies also found that specific forms of address were linked with mental health problems (Crozier and Dimmock, 1999; Crozier and Skliopidou, 2002; Yokotani and Hasegawa, 2011). The present study extends these two groups of studies into children's onomastic phenomena and their mental health.

TABLE 3

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF INTERPERSONAL ATTITUDES AND DEPRESSIVE SYMPTOMS BASED ON FORMS OF ADDRESS AND PERCEIVED PARENTING: CORRELATIONS AMONG FORMS OF ADDRESS, PERCEIVED PARENTING, INTERPERSONAL ATTITUDES AND DEPRESSIVE SYMPTOMS

Criterion variable									Acceptance		Rejection		CES-D	
Cronbach's α									.87		.86		.84	
M, SD									25.4	4.3	15.5	5.1	17.1	9.7
Predictor variable	α	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	*r*	*β*	*r*	*β*	*r*	*β*
1. Disrespect for Father		-.66^{***a}	.43^{**b}	-.18^{**b}	-.26^{**d}	.13^{d}	-.24^{**b}	.19^{**b}	-.19^{**h}	*n.s.*	.28^{**h}	.21**	.25^{**k}	.25***
2. Intimacy with Father			-.09^{b}	.27^{**b}	.23^{**d}	-.14^{d}	.15^{*b}	-.19^{**b}	.17^{*h}	*n.s.*	-.20^{**h}	*n.s.*	-.13^{k}	*n.s.*
3. Disrespect for Mother				-.32^{**c}	-.09^{a}	.05^{a}	-.10^{f}	.08^{f}	-.03^{i}	*n.s.*	.16^{*i}	*n.s.*	.17^{*l}	*n.s.*
4. Intimacy with Mother					-.02^{a}	.00^{a}	.09^{f}	-.04^{f}	.03^{i}	*n.s.*	.04^{i}	*n.s.*	-.14^{*l}	*n.s.*
5. Paternal Care	.91					-.44^{**e}	.49^{**e}	-.47^{**e}	.18^{**i}	*n.s.*	-.21^{**j}	*n.s.*	-.17^{*m}	*n.s.*
6. Paternal Control	.84						-.37^{**e}	.58^{**e}	-.25^{**i}	-.15*	.33^{**i}	.32***	.30^{**m}	.30***
7. Maternal Care	.91							-.59^{**g}	.30^{**j}	.23**	-.24^{**j}	*n.s.*	-.17^{*e}	*n.s.*
8. Maternal Control	.88								-.21^{**j}	*n.s.*	.25^{**j}	*n.s.*	.25^{**e}	*n.s.*
Adjusted R^2									.09^{***n}		.15^{***n}		.16^{***o}	

Note. CES-D: Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale *n.s.*, not significant, *: $p < .05$, **: $p < .01$, ***: $p < .001$, ^{a} $n = 193$, ^{b} $n = 190$, ^{c} $n = 206$, ^{d} $n = 188$, ^{e} $n = 207$, ^{f} $n = 203$, ^{g} $n = 219$, ^{h} $n = 187$, ^{i} $n = 200$, ^{j} $n = 211$, ^{k} $n = 184$, ^{l} $n = 197$, ^{m} $n = 196$, ^{n} $df = 180$, ^{o} $df = 177$

The present findings indicated that names used by children could be an index of their worsened mental health and family relationships. On the basis of the present findings, many researchers could aim to identify how individual names used by children affect their family relationships and their mental health.

Although disrespectful forms of address for parents (scores over 5) were basically nonkinship terms, such as *Honmyo* or "first name", Japanese forms of address have significant variety across the medieval (Hozumi, 1926), modern (Akita-kenritsu-akita toshokan, 1979; Ide, 1982; Kuroda, 1997; Mitsui-bunko, 1971), and current eras (e.g., Sato, 2007; Suzuki, 1993; Yokotani, 2013a). For example, a specific kinship term *Oyaji* or "dad" used by daughters was disrespectful, but the same word used by sons was not. A specific non-kinship term *Oi* or "ass" used by sons for mothers was disrespectful, but the same word used by daughters was not. These findings suggested that specific names changed their meaning according to the speakers and listeners in Japanese families, although non-kinship terms used by children for their parents generally signaled their disrespect for their parents in the context of Japanese families (Kim, 2002; Suzuki, 1993; Yokotani and Hasegawa, 2011). A binary kinship versus non-kinship category might be too simple to grasp onomastic phenomena, even though the category was popular (Brown and Gilman, 1960; Dickey, 1997; Wood and Kroger, 1991). To examine onomastic names in detail, scales corresponding to individual names and gender differences may be more useful than simple categories (Yokotani, 2013b, 2014a, 2014b).

Forms of address used by children for fathers were also linked to their perceived paternal and maternal care measured by standardized questionnaires (e.g., Sugiyama and Sakamoto, 2006; Wilhelm, and others, 2005). These findings identified the links between their forms of address for fathers and their respect for their fathers (Baumrind, 1971; Buri, 1991; Smetana, 1995). These findings were also consistent with previous study that found significant links between forms of address used by children for parents and their perceived parenting (Yokotani, 2012). In contrast, forms of address used by them for mothers had no significant relationship with their perceived fathering and mothering, which is consistent with one previous study (Yokotani and Hasegawa, 2011) and inconsistent with another previous study that found significant links between their forms of address for mothers and maternal relationships (Yokotani, 2012). This inconsistency might be due to the different measures used. On the one hand, Yokotani (2012) measured young adults' current feelings about mother-child relationships. On the other hand, the present study and that of Yokotani and Hasegawa (2011) measured their memories about mother-child relationships. These different time perspectives might affect present and previous findings. Daily forms of address used by young adults for mothers might reflect their current feelings about mother-child relationships but not necessarily reflect past emotional bonds with mothers.

As hypothesized, disrespectful forms of address used by children for fathers were correlated with their interpersonal feelings of acceptance, rejection, and depressive symptoms. Furthermore, these disrespectful forms of address also predicted their feelings of rejection and depressive symptoms, even when the effects of their perceived parenting were controlled. In terms of mother-child relationships, disrespectful forms of address used by children for mothers were correlated with interpersonal feelings of rejection and depressive symptoms, but not feelings of acceptance. Furthermore, these disrespectful forms of address did not predict any personal feeling after their perceived parenting scales were controlled. These findings suggested that forms of

address used by children for fathers can be independent indices of their feelings of rejection and depressive symptoms, but not forms of address for mothers. Asian families are typically father-dominant groups, in which all members are required to respect the fathers as the group center (e.g., Chao, 1994; Hwang, 1999). Hence, young adults' respectful relationships with their fathers might be more influential than the one they have with their mothers during development. Without these respectful relationships, young adults might often feel depressive symptoms (e.g., Kerr, and others, 2012; Patock-Peckham and Morgan-Lopez, 2007). Intimate mother-child relationships were reportedly linked to interpersonal attitudes and personal feelings (e.g., Armsden, and others, 1990; Bowlby, 1973; Kerns and Stevens, 1996). Still, in terms of interpersonal feelings of rejection and depressive symptoms, disrespect signaled by their forms of address for mothers outperformed intimacy signaled by these forms for mothers. Young adults' forms of address in Japan might represent disrespect dimensions better than intimacy dimensions (e.g., Yokotani, 2012).

Several methodological limitations of the present study need to be considered. First, the present questionnaire methodology did not permit an assessment of how young adults actually behave towards their parents. Such an assessment would require direct observation. Second, the study design was cross-sectional, so possible causal relationships between forms of address and depressive symptoms remained unclear. A longitudinal design with randomized controlled interventions would provide a better assessment of causality. Third, the sample was limited to Japanese young adults. Therefore, the generalizability of the present findings to non-Japanese individuals and/or other age-groups was limited. Fourth, the present study did not include phonological differences. Previous study found that phonological differences affected the meaning of individual names (e.g., Unser-Schutz, 2014). Future study needs to assess phonological aspects.

Despite these limitations, the present study demonstrated that the forms of address used by the young adults in this study were related to the respondents' interpersonal attitudes and mental health. Consistent with previous studies (Crozier and Dimmock, 1999; Crozier and Skliopidou, 2002; Keltner, and others, 2003), the present study demonstrated an association between such disrespectful forms of address and both interpersonal attitudes and depressive symptoms. Onomastic forms of address in Japanese families could reflect not only family relationships (Yokotani, 2012; 2013a; 2013b; 2014b), but also young adults' feelings of rejection and depressive symptoms. In addition to onomastic research, these findings may also be useful in psychology. For example, family psychologists might use this information to better understand how forms of address might affect the mental health of family members. School psychologists could also use this research to identify possible links between the specific forms of address used by peers and school bullying. These are just a few subjects for future study.[3]

Notes

[1] This limited sample enhances the risk of type 2 error in the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, which could overlook the abnormal distributions (Lilliefors, 1967). Hence, I did not conduct this test on this sample.

[2] These scales were also used to study Japanese couple relationships. Husbands' disrespectful forms of address for wives were linked to negative forms of constructive communication (Yokotani, 2013b) and their physical violence against wives (Yokotani, 2014b).

[3] The present study was funded by Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (Grant-in-Aid for Young Scientists (B) [24792597]). I wish to express my gratitude to Prof. Kosuke Ishii, Prof. Seiya Mitani, and Prof. Masako Saito for providing the participants and Dr. Tai Kurosawa for his helpful feedback.

Bibliography

Akita-kenritsu-akita toshokan. 1979. *Kokutenruisyo*. Akita, Japan: Akitaken-kyoikuiinkai.

Armsden, Gay, Elizabeth McCauley, Mark Greenberg, Patrick Burke, and Jeffrey R. Mitchell. 1990. "Parent and Peer Attachment in Early Adolescent Depression." *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology* 18: 683–697.

Baumrind, Diana. 1971. "Current Patterns of Parental Authority." *Developmental Psychology* 4: 1–103.

Bowlby, John. 1973. *Attachment and Loss: Volume 2. Separation Anxiety and Anger*. New York: Basic Books.

Brown, Roger, and Albert Gilman. 1960. "The Pronouns of Power and Solidarity." *Style and Language*. Ed. Thomas Sebeok. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 253–276.

Buri, John. 1991. "Parental Authority Questionnaire." *Journal of Personality Assessment* 57: 110–119.

Chao, Ruth. 1994. "Beyond Parental Control and Authoritarian Parenting Style: Understanding Chinese Parenting through the Cultural Notion of Training." *Child Development* 65: 1111–1119.

Crozier, Ray, and Patricia S. Dimmock. 1999. "Name-calling and Nicknames in a Sample of Primary School Children." *British Journal of Educational Psychology* 69: 505–516.

Crozier, Ray, and Evanthia Skliopidou. 2002. "Adult Recollections of Name-calling at School." *Educational Psychology* 22: 113–124.

Dickey, Eleanor. 1997. "Forms of Address and Terms of Reference." *Journal of Linguistics* 33: 255–274.

Hotta, Yukiyoshi. 2007. *Kinseibuke no Ko to Shakai: Mibunkakushiki to Namae ni miru Shakaizo*. Tokyo: Tosui-shobo.

Hozumi, Nobushige. 1926. *Jitsumei-keihizoku-kenkyu*. Tokyo: Toko-shoin.

Hwang, Kwang-Kuo. 1999. "Filial Piety and Loyalty: Two Types of Social Identification in Confucianism." *Asian Journal of Social Psychology* 2: 163–183.

Ide, Sachiko. 1982. "Japanese Sociolinguistics Politeness and Women's Language." *Lingua* 57: 357–385.

Keltner, Dacher, Deborah Gruenfeld, and Cameron Anderson. 2003. "Power, Approach, and Inhibition." *Psychological Review* 110: 265–284.

Kerns, Kathryn, and Amy Stevens. 1996. "Parent-child Attachment in Late Adolescence: Links to Social Relations and Personality." *Journal of Youth and Adolescence* 25: 323–342.

Kerr, Margaret, Håkan Stattin, and Metin Özdemir. 2012. "Perceived Parenting Style and Adolescent Adjustment: Revisiting Directions of Effects and the Role of Parental Knowledge." *Developmental Psychology* 48: 1540–53.

Kim, Seran. 2002. "Kazokukan no Koshohyogen niokeru Tsujitekikenkyu: Kodomo-chushinteki-yoho ni Chakumoku shite." *Gendaishakaibunka-kenkyu* 24: 269–286.

Kitamura, Toshinori, and Tadaharu Suzuki. 1993. "A Validation Study of the Parental Bonding Instrument in a Japanese Population." *Japanese Journal of Psychiatry and Neurology* 47: 29–36.

Koo, John. 1992. "The Term of Address 'You' in South Korea Today." *Korean Journal* 32: 27–42.

Kuroda, Motoki. 1997. "Keichoki-daimyo no shisei to kan-i." *Nihonshi-kenkyu* 414: 1–26.

Lawson, Edwin. 1984. "Personal Names: 100 Years of Social Science Contributions." *Names: A Journal of Onomastics* 32: 45–73.

Leary, Mark, Ellen Tambor, Sonja Terdal, and Deborah L. Downs. 1995. "Self-esteem as an Interpersonal Monitor: The Sociometer Hypothesis." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 68: 518–530.

Lilliefors, Hubert. 1967. "On the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Normality with Mean and Variance Unknown." *Journal of the American Statistical Association* 62: 399–402.

Mitsui-bunko. 1971. *Mitsui Gigyoshi: Shiryo hen Dai ikkan*. Tokyo: Mitsui-bunko.

Mizuno, Noriko. 1992. "Kosekiseido: Shinseiki no Nihonhou, Global jidai no Shinro." *Jurist* 1000: 163–171.

Otoh, Osamu. 2012. *Nihonjin no Sei, Myoji, Namae: Jinmei ni Kizamareta Rekishi*. Tokyo: Yoshikawa-kobunkan.

Parker, Gordon, Hilary Tupling, and L. B. Brown. 1979. "Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI)." *British Journal of Medical Psychology* 52: 1–10.

Patock-Peckham, Julie, and Antonio A. Morgan-Lopez. 2007. "College Drinking Behaviors: Mediational Links between Parenting Styles, Parental Bonds, Depression, and Alcohol Problems." *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors* 21: 297–306.

Peng, Fred. 1974. "Communicative Distance." *Language Sciences* 31: 32–38.

Radloff, Lenore Sawyer. 1977. "The CES-D Scale: A Self-report Depression Scale for Research in the General Population." *Applied Psychological Measurement* 1: 385–401.

Santor, Darcy, David Zuroff, J. O. Ramsay, Pablo Cervantes, and Jorge Palacios. 1995. "Examining Scale Discriminability in the BDI and CES-D as a Function of Depressive Severity." *Psychological Assessment* 7: 131–139.

Sato, Minoru. 2007. *Yominikui Namae ha naze fuetaka*. Tokyo: Yoshikawa-kobunkan.

Shima, Satoru, Tatsuo Kano, and Toshinori Kitamura. 1985. "Atarashii Yokuutsusei-jikohyokashakudo nitsuite." *Seishinigaku* 27: 717–723.

Smetana, Judith. 1995. "Parenting Styles and Conceptions of Parental Authority during Adolescence." *Child Development* 66: 299–316.

Sugiyama, Takashi, and Shinji Sakamoto. 2006. "Yokuutsu to Taijinkankeiyoin no Kenkyu: Hijyuyokan, Hikyozetsukan Shakudo no Sakusei to Yokuutsuteki jiko ninchikatei no Kento." *The Japanese Journal of Health Psychology* 19: 1–10.

Suzuki, Keisuke. 1993. "Anketochosanokekkatokomento." *Tozainanboku* 1993: 112–121.

Unser-Schutz, Giancarla. 2014. "The Use and Non-use of Japanese Names by Non-Japanese." *Names: A Journal of Onomastics* 62: 202–213.

Wilhelm, Kay, Heather Niven, Gordon Parker, and Dusan Hadzi-Pavlovic. 2005. "The Stability of the Parental Bonding Instrument over a 20-Year Period." *Psychological Medicine* 35: 387–393.

Wood, Linda, and Rolf Kroger. 1991. "Politeness and Forms of Address." *Journal of Language and Social Psychology* 10: 145–168.

Yokotani, Kenji. 2012. "How Young Adults Address their Parents Reflects their Perception of Parenting." *Asian Journal of Social Psychology* 15: 284–289.

Yokotani, Kenji. 2013a. "Avoidant Addresses in Japanese Families Reflect Family Conflicts." *Psychology of Language and Communication* 17: 65–77.

Yokotani, Kenji. 2013b. "Acknowledged Spousal Forms of Address Predict Couple Communication Patterns." *Psychologia: An International Journal of Psychological Sciences* 56: 20–32.

Yokotani, Kenji. 2014a. *Kazokunai-kosho no Shinrigaku*. Kyoto, Japan: Nakanishiya-Shuppan.

Yokotani, Kenji. 2014b. "Links Between Impolite Spousal Forms of Address and Intimate Partner Violence Against Women." *Journal of Language and Social Psychology* in press.

Yokotani, Kenji, and Keizo Hasegawa. 2011. "Kodomo kara Oya heno Kosho to Aichakutaido." *Japanese Journal of Family Psychology* 25: 45–55.

Notes on contributor

Kenji Yokotani is an Associate Professor in the Graduate School of Clinical Psychology at Niigata Seiryo University in Niigata, Japan. He is interested in the impacts of Japanese family nicknames on family relationships and the effects of solution-focused language on recidivism of drug-related offenders.

Correspondence to: Kenji Yokotani, Graduate School of Clinical Psychology, Niigata Seiryo University, Suidocho 1-5939, Chuo district, Niigata city, Niigata prefecture, 951-8121, Japan. Email: yokotani@n-seiryo.ac.jp