

ALCOHOL USE AMONG AFRICAN-AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS:
CONTEXTUAL AND SOCIAL FACTORS

by

GARNETTE J. COTTON

(Under the Direction of Lily D. McNair, Ph.D.)

ABSTRACT

The use of alcohol among African-American college students has been neglected by researchers because of comparative reports of low alcohol use among this population. However, this provides important clinical information that may guide researches and clinicians related to protective factors against alcohol use among African-American students. The current study attempts to examine the context of alcohol use among African-American college students. Logistic regression analyses were performed in order to predict variables which might serve as protective factors. It was found that the context of beliefs regarding the use of alcohol as well as the presence of high levels of social support, are predictive of alcohol use.

INDEX WORDS: African-American college students, Alcohol Use, Ethnicity, Protective Factors

ALCOHOL USE AMONG AFRICAN-AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS:
CONTEXTUAL AND SOCIAL FACTORS

by

GARNETTE J. COTTON

B.A., Northwestern University, 1998

M.S., The University of Georgia, 2002

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2003

© 2003

Garnette J. Cotton

All Rights Reserved

ALCOHOL USE AMONG AFRICAN-AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS:
CONTEXTUAL AND SOCIAL FACTORS

by

GARNETTE J. COTTON

Major Professor: Lily D. McNair

Committee: Karen Calhoun
Kecia Thomas

Electronic Version Approved:

Maureen Grasso
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
August 2003

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank all those who offered support during this process. Most importantly, I would like to thank my advisor, Dr. Lily McNair, for her continuous support and encouragement throughout the years. Also, my thanks goes to Dr. Karen Calhoun and Dr. Kecia Thomas for their vital role as committee members, whose contributions resulted in the best possible product. Special thanks to Natasha Johnson, Jamylah Dunn, Angela Black, and Monique Harris for their constant support. I couldn't have done this without each of them. I'd also like to thank Tia-Nicole Leak for her support, love and constant faith. Thank you to Finis T. Kirkland, my uncle, for his love and help. Finally, I'd like to thank my mother, Gwendolyn A. Cotton, for being my inspiration for modern womanhood.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
LIST OF TABLES	vii
INTRODUCTION	1
Epidemiological Data Regarding Alcohol Use	3
Studies of Alcohol Use Regarding Differences Between Ethnic Groups	6
Protective Factors for Ethnic Minority Groups	7
Alcohol Expectancies and Alcohol Consumption	12
Prior Research: Limitations and Implications	17
Purpose and Hypothesis	18
METHOD	20
Participants	20
Measures	20
Procedure	22
RESULTS	23
Descriptive Data	23
Correlational Analyses	24
Racial Identity	29
Alcohol Use Mediated by Alcohol Expectancies	29
Social Support	30

Experiences of Discrimination.....	30
Context of Alcohol Consumption.....	30
Racial Identity Attitude Scale Exploratory Factor Analysis.....	31
Pre-encounter and Encounter Racial Identity Subscales	32
DISCUSSION.....	37
REFERENCES	41
APPENDICES	49

LIST OF TABLES

Table

1	Gender and Ethnicity Demographic Data.....	25
2	Participant Descriptives for AEQ, RIAS, SSN, and EOD.....	26
3	Participant Descriptives for DCQ 16.....	27
4	Intercorrelations Among All Measures.....	28
5	Logistic Regression Analysis of RIAS, SSN, and EOD.....	33
6	Logistic Regressions Predicting Alcohol Consumption.....	34
7	Context of Alcohol Consumption Totals by Gender.....	35
8	Content Summary Status for RIAS Items.....	36

INTRODUCTION

Alcohol use has been the subject of much attention because of its disinhibitory effects. High social costs of the use of alcohol include treatment of addicted individuals, risky sexual behavior leading to increased risk of contracting HIV/AIDS as well as increased risk of becoming a victim of sexual assault. Further social costs of alcohol use include the increased chance of individuals performing violent acts. Almost a decade ago, one report on the economic costs of alcohol abuse estimated that about \$86 billion would be spent on factors such as productivity loss, treatment of alcohol abuse and mortality resulting from alcohol use (Miller & Kelman, 1992).

While the high social costs of the overuse of alcohol apply to all ethnic groups, specific groups have been portrayed as more likely to experience the negative consequences of alcohol use. Significant attention has been paid to alcohol use of Caucasian college students because of their high consumption rates, particularly binge drinking, and concern regarding negative consequences of alcohol consumption (Marlatt & Rohsenow, 1980). A second group given much attention regarding their use of alcohol are African Americans. Here the focus has often been on alcohol use during adulthood, particularly with regard to crime and poverty statistics (Caetano, 1997). According to a report by a committee on cultural psychiatry, "Alcoholism has substantial effects on the morbidity, mortality, and socioeconomic status of African Americans. Understanding why is a challenge of some import" (Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, 1996). In contrast to reports indicating high use among African American communities,

anecdotal as well as empirical evidence suggests a different picture of African American drinking on college campuses. For example, researchers examining drinking on college campuses often comparatively examine African American and Caucasian college student drinking patterns. Results suggest that African American students consume significantly less alcohol than their Caucasian peers and may consequently suffer from fewer negative results that may be traced to alcohol use (Kline, 1990).

Recent data which suggest incomplete and possibly inaccurate portrayals of alcoholism in the African American community point to a need to further assess rates of alcohol consumption and setting of African American drinking as well as possible causal mechanisms for these differences. Some evidence suggests differences in drinking patterns among African Americans that may be reflective of social attitudes towards the use of alcohol, as well as differences in the contextual setting where alcohol consumption takes place (Kenneth, 1985). For example, there may be differences in type of social interaction in which African American students consume alcohol as opposed to Caucasian college students.

Despite these differences, little research exists regarding the context of alcohol use dealing specifically with African American students. This study will attempt to examine not only the occurrence and rates of alcohol use among African American students, but also the context and potential protective factors which may be predictive of lowered alcohol use in a sample of African American students at a predominantly White university.

Throughout, this dissertation the terms race and ethnicity are used interchangeably as deemed appropriate by the prior use of these terms in studies

described. However, the term “race,” traditionally used in reference to genetic and biological similarities, may be less accurate than the construct investigated in this study, “ethnicity,” which refers to a shared history, culture, language, values or religion. In the following review, terminology used to refer to race is identical to the terminology used by the authors of the study being discussed. Also, the terms Caucasian and White are used synonymously, as are the terms African American and Black.

Epidemiological Data Regarding Alcohol Use

Community surveys carried out by the National Institute of Mental Health in the early 1980s report significant differences in total lifetime rates of alcoholism between African Americans and Caucasians. For example, between ages 18-29, 28.31% of Caucasian men in contrast to 12.61% of African American men exhibit a lifetime prevalence of alcoholism. These numbers show a similar trend for women. Caucasian women exhibit a lifetime prevalence of alcoholism of 7.5% while African American women have a lifetime prevalence of 4.19%. However these trends reverse themselves when inspecting rates for the ages between 45 and 64 years (Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry [GAP], 1996). Here, 19.75% of Caucasian men and 32.99% of African American men exhibit alcoholism. In contrast, 2.60% of Caucasian women and 7.33% of African American women exhibit alcoholism during this age group. Epidemiological data suggest that the alcoholism prevalence for African Americans is low in the young adult group, however for Caucasians during young adulthood the prevalence of alcoholism is high. Additionally, conflicting results have been presented in terms of African American versus Caucasian drinking patterns. Some research suggests that African Americans drink more than Caucasians (Christmon, 1995).

Not only do drinking rates differ, but African Americans may also have more detrimental psychological and environmental consequences regarding drinking (GAP, 1996). Other studies suggest that Caucasians have historically consumed more alcohol as well as received more positive reinforcement for drinking (Reese & Friend, 1994). For example, Pavkov (1993) found that African American participants reported higher severity of substance misuse as well as reported using more substances than Caucasian participants. In contrast, Collins (1993) found that African Americans were less likely than Caucasians to abuse alcohol. African Americans who did abuse alcohol were less likely to feel that they had a support system in contrast to Caucasians who abuse alcohol (Ford & Carr, 1990). Christmon (1995) comments that historical patterns of alcohol use in the African American community point to low use of alcohol until migration to the North at the turn of the century. At this time, African Americans began to abuse alcohol.

It is possible that Caucasian young adults may drink alcohol in different contexts than African American young adults or perhaps have different reasons for the consumption of alcohol. For example, Caucasian students may consume alcohol as a consistent portion of their socialization routines. This may not be the case for African American students. Anecdotal evidence suggests that African American students consume alcohol less often in social situations, such as parties, than do Caucasian students. And often, alcohol consumption is limited to specific situations for African American students. Examples of such situations include game playing gatherings and cookouts. Further, Caucasian students may regard the use of alcohol in social situations as patently, “normal,” while African American students may view alcohol’s use as out of the ordinary. Trends regarding drinking differences between African Americans and

Caucasians suggest that later in life, African American adults consume more alcohol than Caucasian Americans. Evidence suggests that older African Americans may also continue to drink in social situations (Christmon, 1995).

Conflicting data such as these may suggest that researchers are examining different populations of African Americans and Caucasians. For example, researchers may be exploring African American participants with little regard to cultural variables such as socioeconomic status or educational level. It may also be that the literature has overlooked the underlying mechanism that may accurately explain alcohol use among different cultural groups.

Several psychosocial correlates of alcohol consumption among African American college students have been examined (Ford & Carr, 1990). These researchers investigated social support, assertiveness, grade point average, parental approval of drinking, familial drinking problems, negative peer influence and age at first drink as predictors of drinking hard (distilled liquor) alcoholic beverages among African American students. Results revealed that the younger age at time of first drink, parental approval of alcohol consumption and number of friends who drank were variables likely to influence participants to consume fermented as well as distilled alcoholic beverages.

While epidemiological data regarding differences between African American and Caucasians have been examined, few theoretical explanations for their occurrence have been advanced. Collins (1993) addresses this by focusing on the failure to examine differences within ethnic groups rather than simple epidemiological differences between ethnic groups. Her review points out that an underlying theoretical mechanism for explaining differences between ethnic groups has yet to be explored.

Studies of Alcohol Use Regarding Differences Between Ethnic Groups

One possible explanation for differences between groups may be that African Americans and Caucasians receive differing reinforcement for consuming alcohol and therefore have different reasons for alcohol consumption. According to this hypothesis, social learning factors may help shape alcohol use and consequent abuse. An examination of 956 African American students' drinking patterns in a predominantly Caucasian university found that African American students consumed less alcohol than Caucasian students (Globetti et al., 1996). Perhaps more interestingly, differences were found in the ways and context in which African American students drank in contrast to Caucasian students. African American students drank responsibly and alcohol was only consumed socially in order to increase recreational activity.

Further, African American students exhibited strong peer disapproval of alcohol use. In contrast, 60% of Caucasian students attended parties where most or all of the time the majority were intoxicated. Furthermore, almost 40% of the Caucasian students reported getting high themselves. Social context may in fact be a major factor in determining alcohol consumption rates for African Americans as well as Caucasians. Factors linked to social context such as alcohol expectancies may explain differences between drinkers regardless of ethnicity. Again, however, results are conflicting. For example, Humara (1999) examined situational determinants of alcohol abuse between African American and Caucasian college students at a medium-sized regional university. Two hundred college students completed a confidential questionnaire regarding alcohol consumption patterns. However, the data revealed no effects of race on amount of alcohol consumed.

Protective Factors for Ethnic Minority Groups

Concepts such as acculturation, social support and environmental setting may also affect alcohol use. Dawkins (1996) compared African American metropolitan and non-metropolitan eighth graders on perceptions of substance use among their peers. In metro-urban populations, Dawkins found that 23% of students perceived alcohol problems as serious. However, in non metro-rural populations 30% of students perceived alcohol problems within their school to be serious. Dawkins concluded that differences in prediction of alcohol use must be related to differences within social context and social-environmental settings rather than simply race. When examining specific populations of African Americans the data become even more dependent upon environmental settings. Rodney (1997) examined African American youth ages 11-17 years, living in midwestern public housing. Children were interviewed using the adolescent version of the Children's Semi-Structured Assessment for the Genetics of Alcoholism Test (Rodney et al., 1997). These adolescents exhibited low rates of alcohol abuse with 12% of this population identified as alcohol abusers. Studies such as these, point to the relevancy of considering sociocultural environmental settings in devising mechanisms for predicting alcohol abuse. While race may be a descriptive factor in all of these studies, by itself, race is unable to account for major differences in alcohol consumption among the same racial or ethnic groups.

Other studies have examined socio-environmental factors such as level of acculturation on alcohol consumption. Hines and colleagues (1998) found that women who were heavy drinkers were also those found to be most acculturated. This study examined 470 African American women in a national probability sample as part of a

follow-up survey to a 1984 National Alcohol Survey. Those women who were most acculturated, were more likely to be heavy drinkers and engage in risky sexual behavior such as having multiple partners, or not using a condom consistently. African American women who were least acculturated were also those who drank less than their more acculturated peers.

In an examination of alcohol consumption trends during two time periods, specifically 1984 and 1995, Caetano & Clark (1998) found that rates of abstention of alcohol consumption remained stable among Caucasians but increased among African American drinkers. However, frequent heavy drinking decreased among Caucasian men from 20% to 12%, but remained stable for African American male drinkers. The authors concluded that reduction in alcohol consumption rates in the U.S. is differentially influencing Caucasian and African American ethnic groups and that African American drinkers might be at higher risk for developing problem drinking than Caucasians. In a similar investigation of drinking patterns among only African American drinkers, Jones-Webb (1998) discussed variables such as age, social class, church attendance, drinking norms, and coping mechanisms as variables potentially important in understanding drinking among African Americans. Many of the trends noted in typically Caucasian groups do not apply or have inverse relationships in African American groups. For example, while drinking in Caucasian Americans decreases with age, this relationship does not hold for African American drinkers who tend to consume more alcohol in later life than during late adolescence.

The national survey taken in 1984 was used to further address these drinking patterns in African American and Caucasian men. Herd (1990) concluded that while

African American and Caucasian men exhibit extremely similar drinking patterns, in terms of proportions of abstainers, infrequent, frequent and heavier drinkers, there were differences according to ethnic group within the two populations. Specifically, heavier drinking among Caucasian drinkers was more associated with youthfulness, high-income status and residing in traditionally “wet” areas of the country, whereas for African American men, these patterns were either reversed or entirely absent. For example, “dryer” areas of the U.S are traditionally thought of as the South and Midwest because of alcohol control laws in these areas. Drinking patterns among Caucasians were parallel to the traditional division of “wet” and “dry” areas. The proportion of abstainers was twice as high for Caucasian men in the South than for those in the Northeast and North-Central areas of the country (Herd, 1990). However, this trend reversed itself for African American male drinkers, with rates of heavy drinking higher for African American men in the South-Central regions than for African American men in North-Central America or the West.

In an investigation of African American men, Herd (1994) concluded that while African American men had higher mean scores on many types of alcohol-related problems such as loss of control, binge drinking, and problems with friends and relatives, this group did not report significantly higher rates of drinking or drunkenness. In this analysis, race independently predicted problem scores even after controlling for other social and demographic factors. Further, as rates of drinking did increase, rates of problem drinking rose faster for African American men than Caucasian men. Herd (1990) suggests that these differences in not only the prevalence of drinking, but of

problems associated with drinking, might be related to the sociocultural context of drinking.

In a 1983 study by Dawkins and Harper that investigates alcoholism among African American and Caucasian women problem drinkers the authors note, “race continues to be a significant factor of drinking behavior.” Race also appears to be a significant factor of differential outcomes of alcohol consumption between African American and Caucasian drinkers. Of note, in a study of 96 incarcerated Black males, racial identity attitudes were found to be differentially related to emotional adjustment (Campbell-Flint, 2000).

Herd (1996) tested a model in which ethnic identity and drinking patterns were explored and revealed that ethnic identity influenced drinking behavior indirectly through its effects on drinking norms as well as directly. Individuals who scored higher on involvement with African American social networks and African American social and political awareness drank at lower levels than respondents who did not identify with these issues. However, higher scores on the use of Black media, such as African American publications and television shows were associated with increased drinking rates. The authors suggest that the promotion of alcohol use in Black media increased drinking rates.

Another frequently investigated protective factor regarding the use of alcohol is social support. Presumably high social support is indicative of alcohol abstention and low consumption rates. Low levels of social support are indicative of high consumption rates among students (Tomaszewski, Stickler, & Maxwell, 1980). Significant effects have been found for amount of alcohol consumed as influenced by social setting cues.

For example, in a study by Tomaszewski, Stickler, and Maxwell (1980), participants consumed more alcohol when paired with a partner who was also consuming alcohol. The authors suggest that social setting cues may be discriminative for higher rates and larger amounts of alcohol consumption by social drinkers. In contrast, the high use of alcohol may be frowned upon within the African American community on college campuses (Globetti & Globetti, 1996).

Other studies examined the influence of social support, rather than social context on drinking. In a study of the relationship among financial stress, social support and alcohol use, investigators found that social support may indeed moderate the relationship between stress and alcohol involvement (Peirce, Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1996). Specifically, tangible support appeared to have a buffering influence on the effect of alcohol involvement. However, belonging support did not reveal a buffering pattern. The authors suggest the importance of examining different types of social support among alcohol users.

Studies of social support and alcohol use indicate that factors such as the experience of daily hassles, or experiences that may be perceived as racially demeaning or stereotypical to members of ethnic minority groups ((Kanner, Coyne, Schafer & Lazarus, 1981), may also serve as a risk factor for the increased use of alcohol consumption. One study examined the relationship between alcohol problems and life stress and concluded that social support interacted significantly with measures of life stress, such as daily hassles (McCreary & Sadava, 1998). This may be suggestive of a larger protective component of social support versus racial identity.

Alcohol Expectancies and Alcohol Consumption

Given these conflicting results regarding alcohol consumption and effects among African Americans and Caucasians and compounding factors such as socio-environmental context, the underlying mechanism integrating the above concepts may be related to the effects of alcohol expectancies. Alcohol expectancies differ from person to person, context to context and possibly from cultural group to group. Alcohol expectancies are beliefs that individuals possess regarding the effects that alcohol may have on behavior, above and beyond the physiological effects of alcohol use (Marlatt & Rohsenow, 1980).

Alcohol expectancy theory was first developed in response to observations regarding the effects of alcohol above and beyond the pharmacological effects of the substance. Classic studies of alcohol expectancies were conducted using the balanced placebo design (Marlatt & Rohsenow, 1980), which allows the researcher to separate the pharmacological and expectancy effects of alcohol use. Participants are given either placebo or alcohol and then told that they are receiving either alcohol or placebo. Consequently, information regarding the beverage is crossed with beverage content to create a 2 X 2 design. The four groups include participants who are told alcohol/receive alcohol, told alcohol/receive placebo, told placebo/receive alcohol, or told placebo/receive placebo. The group receiving placebo but told receiving alcohol is of primary interest, because it is in this group that a person's expectancies may be measured. Research on alcohol expectancies has demonstrated that the construct is effective in providing information regarding the effects of cognitive factors on the use of alcohol (Goldman, Brown, & Christiansen 1987).

Alcohol expectancies relate to beliefs such as “Drinking makes me feel less shy” and “Drinking increases my aggressiveness” (Collins, Lapp, & Emmons, 1990). Alcohol expectancies may help determine the context in which people choose to drink as well as the amount and type of alcohol they choose to drink (Critchlow, 1985). For example, Werner (1993) reported that participants’ expectations of positive outcomes for drinking were correlated with drinking behavior as well as alcohol health indices. Alcohol expectancies may be positive or negative in valence. Positive expectancies might include beliefs that alcohol will increase sexual performance or sociability whereas negative expectancies might include beliefs that alcohol will decrease sexual potency or increase muscular tension.

Individuals’ drinking behavior may not be dependent upon race at all, but rather, may be a function of alcohol expectancies, which may or may not be similar for ethnic groups. For example, Kline (1990) examined the race-specific alcohol expectancies of 104 Caucasian and 130 Black men and women ages 25-49, who were undergoing residential treatment for alcoholism. Kline hypothesized that race may moderate the relationship between expectancies and drinking behavior among alcoholics. However, results indicated that participants reported few race specific expectancies for drinking behavior. Of those that were found, they related to alcohol enhancing sexuality and inducing relaxation. Specifically, one expectancy-behavior association was found unique to Caucasian participants. This was the belief that high expectancy of sexual enhancement was related to loss of behavioral control while drinking. Moreover, among Black alcoholics, the belief that alcohol consumption alleviates tension was correlated with preoccupation with drinking among African Americans. These results point to a

theory of alcohol consumption behavior predicted by alcohol expectancies rather than merely race or social situation.

Different populations have been examined in regards to their behavioral expectancies for alcohol consumption. Caucasian subjects have been found to hold more positive expectancies than African American participants for the physical/social pleasure, social assertiveness, and tension-reduction subscales of the AEQ-R (Reese & Friend, 1994). Velez-Blasini (1997) examined Puerto Rican participants' alcohol expectancies and found that Puerto Rican participants associated positive aspects of alcohol use with increased sociability and increased expectations of effects on sexual behavior. In contrast, participants from the U.S. did not associate alcohol use with increased sociability or increased expectations of effects on sexual behavior. Other studies investigating Latino alcohol expectancies found that acculturation played a key factor in determining alcohol expectancies. Marin et al. (1993) found that more acculturated Hispanics were less likely to expect emotional and behavioral impairment or social extroversion from alcohol consumption in contrast to these expectations by less acculturated Hispanics.

Other studies show differing behavior as a function of the environment. Environmental factors such as setting as well as alcohol consumption alone or in a group have been examined (Sher, 1985). In a study of 98 male social drinkers ages 21-30, consumption of alcohol, setting and alcohol expectancies had independent as well as interacting effects on participants' subjective state following alcohol or placebo consumption. Subjective state was measured using questionnaires measuring mood and perceived physical sensations. In order to assess mood and perceived physical sensation

respectively, Kenneth employed the Mood Scale (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974) as well as the Sensation Scale (Maisto & Connors, 1990). However, variables such as race were not examined. Studies such as this highlight the need for an integrative theory of alcohol consumption among young adults that does not only focus on direct variables such as race or ethnicity, but instead integrates several variables which might predict alcohol consumption.

One of these factors that may predict consumption is physiological disinhibition. Fromme (1992) examined participants' reports of disinhibition following alcohol consumption. Participants were assigned to one of eight conditions in which beverage content (alcohol or placebo), social environment (friendly or unfriendly), and physical environment (simulated bar or residence) were varied. Disinhibition increased after receiving friendly social cues, however disinhibition was not affected by type of beverage or amount of beverage consumed. The suggestion here is that social cues may affect individuals' post-drinking perception of disinhibition more greatly than beverage content or amount. Again, this points to a theory of alcohol consumption that must account for environmental context as well as variables such as race. Here, environmental context includes friendly social cues that may encourage drinking. Consequently, investigating environment may give use more information regarding behavioral expectancies, particularly as they relate to ethnicity.

Reese and Friend (1994) examined differences between African American and Caucasian students in regards to their alcohol expectancies and alcohol consumption in different environments. It was hypothesized that ethnic differences in consumption patterns may reflect underlying group differences in alcohol expectancies. In an attempt

to measure these group differences, Caucasian participants were recruited from a state-supported predominantly Caucasian institution while most African American participants were recruited from a privately owned historically Black university. Potential within-group differences may have confounded results with setting. Although the authors found no differences between African American students from the two campuses on demographic measures, drinking variables, alcohol expectancies or religious variables, the uneven sample size and small N for one of the two groups may make conclusions difficult to draw.

While studies have attempted to examine the contribution of race or ethnicity to alcohol consumption behavior, none has as yet attempted to unify conflicting results with adequate theory. Focusing on the concept of race or culture to explain these differences in drinking may simply be too broad an approach. The above studies point to differences in alcohol expectancies within groups as well as across groups. Alcohol expectancies for a particular group may be defined broadly, without assumptions that individuals in identical ethnic groups will possess identical alcohol expectancies.

By examining potential protective factors such as racial identity, social support, and alcohol expectancies, as well as examining the contextual setting of alcohol use among African American students, a more complete picture of the African American drinking experience may arise.

Prior Research: Limitations and Implications

Previous research has focused on presenting epidemiological data rather than attempting to examine an underlying mechanism that may sort out the conflicting and somewhat confusing results regarding alcohol use among different populations. While previous research has examined alcohol consumption rates and expectancies of different ethnic groups, none has yet to examine consumption rates and expectancies while also examining relationships between protective factors such as racial identity and acculturation, as well as the social context of drinking. Doing so may explain conflicting results between ethnic groups as well as provide a mechanism for predicting alcohol consumption rates. Further, theories on Black drinking and social patterns have historically tended to focus on African American drinking as a deviant version of Caucasian middle-class norms (Herd, 1987). Often studies conducted that included African American participants were based on small population segments such as the Black underclass or groups that could not be considered representative of the Black population as a whole.

Current research calls for more models of explanation that are well grounded in both “alcohol studies as well as in the sociology of Black life” (Herd, 1987). The current study attempts to address this void in the literature by investigating the context of African- American drinking among college students, as well as the individual belief systems in which this context is rooted. In doing so, a better understanding of differences in alcohol consumption among individuals within an ethnic group can be examined.

Purpose and Hypothesis

This study will attempt to examine alcohol expectancies, racial identity, social support, as well as the context of drinking within a population of African American college students. Several hypotheses will be examined.

1. Based on previous findings that several factors may serve as protective mechanisms against the heavy use of alcohol, a model of variable alcohol consumption is proposed, in which the following factors will be examined:
 - a. Based on findings that high levels of racial identity may also serve as a moderate protective factor against the heavy use of alcohol (Dawkins, 1996; Herd, 1996), it is predicted that high levels of racial identity among African American students will be predictive of low alcohol use.
 - b. Based on findings that alcohol expectancies may serve a mediational function for predicting alcohol use among college populations (Werner, Walker, & Greene, 1995), it is predicted that alcohol expectancies may mediate the relationship between alcohol use and racial identity.
 - c. Based on findings that social support may serve as a factor in predicting lower levels of alcohol use (Cronin, 1997), it is predicted that high social support will be predictive of lower rates of alcohol use.
 - d. Based on findings that daily hassles may serve as a factor in predicting higher rates of alcohol use (Dawkins, 1996), it is predicted that high daily hassles will be predictive of higher rates of alcohol use.
2. Finally, based on previous discussions in the literature regarding the context of African American drinking (Humara, 1999), this construct will be explored,

including the environmental setting in which drinking occurs, as well as the social network in which drinking occurs. No specific hypotheses are proposed, as there is little theory to guide a prediction.

METHOD

Participants

A power analysis revealed that 107 participants should be recruited, for an effect size of 0.25, from University of Georgia (UGA) through the available research participant pool in the psychology department. Additional African American students were recruited from historically Black fraternities as well as Black student organizations on campus. Participants who were enrolled in introductory psychology courses such as Psychology 2101 received credit from the research pool towards the completion of these courses. Mean age of students in the sample was 21.5.

Measures

Daily Drinking Inventory (DDQ) (Collins, Parks, & Marlatt, 1985) The DDQ was derived from the Drinking Practices Questionnaire (DPQ; Cahalan, Cisin, & Crossley, 1969). This questionnaire assessed average daily alcohol consumption as well as the number of standard drinks consumed for each day of the week during a typical week. The convergent validity of the DDQ with the DPQ has been demonstrated with a Pearson's correlation of $r = 0.50$, $p = 0.001$ (Collins et al., 1985). Coefficient alpha for the current study was .76.

Alcohol Expectancy Questionnaire (AEQ) (Collins, Lapp, & Emmons, 1990). This questionnaire is a 40-item forced choice instrument that measured perceptions about the effects of alcohol consumption. The questionnaire possesses six subscales consisting of global positive changes, sexual enhancement, physical and social pleasure, social

assertion, relaxation and tension reduction, and arousal and aggression. These scales have internal consistency coefficients ranging from .72 to .92, and the overall scale has a test-retest correlation of .64. Coefficient alpha for the current study was .72.

Racial Identity Attitude Scale (RIAS) (Helms & Parham, 1985). This questionnaire is a 23-item Likert scale arrangement, which ranges from strongly agree (4) to strongly disagree (1). It is a measure of identification with a particular ethnic group. Questions include: "I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to" and "I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group." This scale also addressed the ethnic heritage of a participant's parents, by questioning the ethnicity of both the participant's mother and father. Coefficient alpha for the current study was .69.

Social Support Network (SSN) (Conger, Patterson, & Ge, 1995). This questionnaire measured positive and negative emotion experienced by individuals from their social networks. Respondents indicated how they felt about the member of their network as well as the support or conflict they experienced from that member. Social Networks are composed on this scale of friends as well as family members. Coefficient alpha for the positive scale is .75 and .63 for the negative emotion scale (Conger et al., 1995). Coefficient alpha for the current study was .84 for the positive scale and .84 for the negative emotion scale.

Experiences of Discrimination (EOD) (Conger, Patterson, & Ge, 1995). The EOD measured 13 types of racial discrimination. Examples of questions include, "How often has someone ignored you or excluded you from some activity just because you are African American?". Responses range from never to several times. Coefficient alpha for the scale is .93 (Conger, 1995). Coefficient alpha for the current study was .89.

Drinking Context Questionnaire (McNair, Spitalnick, & Dunn, 2001). This questionnaire is a 15 item measure of setting, occasion, and quantity in which alcohol is consumed. The questionnaire also assessed with whom individuals drank during these contexts, such as with friends, alone or with dating partners. Coefficient alpha for the current study was .90.

Demographic Questionnaire. This questionnaire assessed sex, age, and racial/ethnic background of participants and fraternity/sorority membership.

Procedure

Following obtaining informed consent, participants were asked to complete the Demographic Questionnaire followed by the Daily Drinking Questionnaire, Alcohol Expectancy Questionnaire, Racial Identity Attitude Scale, Social Support Network, Experiences of Discrimination Questionnaire and finally the Drinking Context Questionnaire. Following completion of these six measures, participants were debriefed and questions and concerns were addressed.

RESULTS

Descriptive Data

Sample sizes (n), means (M), and standard deviations (SD) of descriptive variables are presented in Table 1. A power analysis indicated a sample size of 107 participants should be recruited, for an effect size of 0.25. The sample consisted of 108 students (46 males, 62 females) enrolled in a predominantly Caucasian institution. Of the sample 102 (94.4%) identified themselves as African American, while 6 (5.6%) identified their ethnicity as multiracial.

Approximately 59% ($n = 64$) of the sample were fraternity and sorority members, while 44 (40.7%) students did not belong to a fraternity or sorority. Mean age of students in the sample was 21.5 years. Participants were recruited from historically Black fraternities as well as Black student organizations on campus. Students were also recruited from the outside of Ramsey Student Recreation Center. These students received bottled water for participation in the study.

Alcohol consumption among students was not normally distributed. Consequently, analyses were not completed using hierarchical multiple regression analyses as proposed. Analyses were done based upon a conceptualization of students who did not drink as different from those who did drink, and therefore multiple logistic regression was used to analyze the categorical variable of alcohol consumption versus abstention from alcohol. Alcohol consumption totals are referred to in the following analyses as DDQ categorical, for the variable representative of the following groups: students who abstain from

alcohol and students who do consume alcohol. “DDQ continuous” refers to the variable representative of the continuous variable of alcohol consumption in a typical week, not separated into groups. Means and standard deviations are given separately on each measure for students who consume alcohol as well as for those who do not. Total means and standard deviations are also presented. These are presented in Table 2. There were no statistically significant differences between male and female participants in important study variables such as alcohol expectancies $t(1, 103) = 43, p = .67$, racial identity $t(1, 106) = 1.08, p = .28$, social support $t(1, 104) = -1.22, p = .23$, or experiences of discrimination $t(1, 105) = -.92, p = .36$.

Correlational Analyses

Table 4 presents the Pearson product-moment correlations of the major variables. These correlations can be used to examine evidence for the relationships among gender, fraternity and sorority membership, alcohol consumption, alcohol expectancies, racial identity, social support, experiences of discrimination, and the ethnicity of the individual with whom students drink most frequently. Significant correlations are presented between gender and alcohol consumption ($r = .197, p < .05$), categorical alcohol consumption, categorized into students who do and do not drink, and alcohol expectancies ($r = .308, p < .01$), continuous alcohol consumption and alcohol expectancies ($r = .331, p < .01$), social support and categorical alcohol consumption ($r = .215, p < .05$), and finally the ethnicity with whom students drink most frequently and categorical alcohol consumption ($r = -.367, p < .01$).

Table 1

Gender and Ethnicity Demographic Data

Measure	%	n
Demographics		
Females	57.4	62
Males	42.6	46
Ethnicity		
African American	94.4	102
Multiracial	5.6	6

Table 2

Participant Descriptives for AEQ, RIAS, SSN, and EOD

Measure	M	SD	n
AEQ ^a			
Total	17.6	5.98	105
Drinkers	18.7	6.32	75
Abstainers	14.5	6.32	30
RIAS ^b			
Total	57.9	6.45	108
Drinkers	58.2	6.29	77
Abstainers	57.2	6.88	31
SSN ^c			
Total	20.3	3.69	106
Drinkers	20.8	3.02	76
Abstainers	19.0	4.84	30
EOD ^d			
Total	19.6	8.10	107
Drinkers	19.5	7.21	76
Abstainers	19.9	10.08	31
DDQ			
Total	5.1	5.98	105
Drinkers	7.2	5.94	72
Abstainers	0.0	0.00	31

^aAEQ scores range from 6-45 with higher scores indicating greater expectancies for alcohol use.

^bRIAS scores range from 35-70 with higher scores indicating greater identification with ethnic group membership.

^cSSN scores range from 2-23 with higher scores representing more social support.

^dEOD scores range from 0-38 with higher scores representing more experiences of discrimination.

^eDDQ scores range from 0-28 with higher scores representing more drinks per week.

Table 3

Participant Descriptives for DCQ 16

Ethnicity	%	n
African American	81.9	68
Asian American	1.2	1
Caucasian	10.8	9
Latina/o	0.0	0
Native American	0.0	0
Other	6.0	5

Note. DCQ 16 read “What is the ethnicity of the person with whom you drink most frequently?” No participants indicated further information regarding “Other”.

Table 4

Intercorrelations Among All Variables

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender	----								
2. Greek	-.162	----							
3. DDQcat.	.091	-.151	----						
4. DDQtotal	.197*	-.148	.546**	----					
5. AEQtotal	-.042	-.085	.308**	.331**	----				
6. RIAStotal	-.105	-.035	.072	-.053	.013	----			
7. SSNtotal	.119	-.007	.215*	.092	-.071	.149	----		
8. EODtotal	.089	-.131	-.018	.057	-.119	.285**	-.106	----	
9. DCQ16	.027	.152	-.367**	-.162	-.095	-.178	.088	-.068	----

Note. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Hypothesis 1: Racial Identity

It was hypothesized that high levels of racial identity among African American students would be predictive of lower levels of alcohol use. Results of a multiple logistic regression performed on the categorical variable of alcohol consumption revealed that alcohol consumption did not differ significantly according to racial identity ($\beta = 1.03$, $\chi^2 = .55$, $p = .45$). Table 5 and 6 present results of Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 4.

Hypothesis 2: Relationship between Alcohol use and Racial Identity Mediated by Alcohol Expectancies

It was hypothesized that alcohol expectancies may serve a mediational function for predicting the relationship between alcohol use and racial identity. Consistent with testing a mediational hypothesis (Baron & Kenny, 1986), results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis revealed that the relationship between racial identity and alcohol expectancies did not differ significantly ($\beta = .013$, $t = .132$, $p = .90$). The results of a multiple logistic regression performed on the categorical variable of alcohol consumption revealed that alcohol consumption did differ significantly according to alcohol expectancies ($\beta = 1.15$, $\chi^2 = 9.45$, $p < .05$). Finally, within this procedure, the significance of the relationship between racial identity and alcohol consumption revealed that alcohol consumption did not differ significantly according to racial identity ($\beta = 1.03$, $\chi^2 = .55$, $p = .45$). Subsequently, the relationship between alcohol use and racial identity did not prove to be mediated by alcohol expectancies.

Hypothesis 3: Social Support

It was predicted that social support may serve as a factor in predicting alcohol use. Results of a multiple logistic regression performed on the categorical variable of alcohol consumption revealed that alcohol consumption did differ significantly according to social support. Students who consumed alcohol had more social support than those who did not consume alcohol ($\beta = 1.13$, $\chi^2 = 4.33$, $p < .05$).

Hypothesis 4: Experiences of Discrimination

It was predicted that experiences of discrimination may serve as a factor in predicting alcohol use. Results of a multiple logistic regression performed on the categorical variable of alcohol consumption revealed that alcohol consumption did not differ significantly according to experiences of discrimination ($\beta = .99$, $\chi^2 = .03$, $p = .85$).

Hypothesis 5: Context of Alcohol Consumption

The context of African American drinking was explored, including the environmental setting in which drinking occurs, as well as the social network in which drinking occurs. Descriptive statistics revealed that students consumed alcohol most frequently in a bar setting ($M = .91$, $sd = .96$). It was also in a bar setting in which African American students consumed the most alcohol ($M = 2.05$, $sd = 2.40$). African American students drank most often with other African American students. Finally, African American students drank most often with their friends ($N = 66$, 61.1%). Results of mean scores for amounts of alcohol consumed in each setting are presented in Table 7.

Post-hoc Analyses Regarding Context of Alcohol Consumption

Some participants in the study were under the minimum age requirement by law to consume alcohol. Thirty-two students were under the age of 21. Descriptive statistics revealed that these students consumed alcohol most frequently at parties ($M = .90$, $sd = .94$) and in other people's homes or dorms ($M = .90$, $sd = 1.08$). It was also at parties in which African American under-age drinkers consumed the most alcohol ($M = 2.26$, $sd = 2.64$). These students reported a weekly consumption of approximately 6 drinks total ($M = 5.97$, $sd = 7.45$). Finally, African American student drinkers under the age of 21 drank most often with their friends ($N = 19$, 59.4%).

RIAS Exploratory Factor Analysis

An exploratory Factor Analysis of the Racial Identity Attitude Scale was conducted using principal-axis factoring analysis of the 20 item RIAS. Principal components extraction was used before conducting the principal-axis factoring to estimate the number of factors to retain for the final solution. Three criteria were used to determine the number of factors to be extracted and varimax rotated for the final solution: a) Kaiser's criterion (eigenvalues ≥ 1.0); b) percentage of variance accounted for by each factor; and c) interpretability of the solution (Tokar & Fischer, 1998).

Initial extraction resulted in five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. The fourth and fifth factor accounted for 6 and 5 percent additional variance and included only three items that loaded greater than or equal to .35. These items also cross-loaded on other factors. The third factor accounted for 10 percent additional variance, but included only 2 items and was not interpretable. These two items also cross-loaded on other factors. Therefore, the two-factor solution appeared to most accurately and

parsimoniously explain the underlying structure of the RIAS with the current population. The final solution yielded the following two factors which have been named with respect to the original four factors: Factor 1 (Post-Encounter), Factor 2 (Pre-Encounter). This two factor solution explained 43% of the common variance. Factor 1 accounted for 29% of the covariance and was composed of 14 items with salient loadings. These items were RIAS numbers 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 18, and 20. Factor 2 accounted for 13% of the covariance and was composed of 6 items with salient loadings. These items were RIAS numbers 4, 8, 9, 10, 17, and 19. Table 8 presents an abbreviation of the content of each item that loaded on the Post-Encounter and Pre-Encounter factors.

Pre-encounter and Encounter Racial Identity Subscales and Alcohol Use

Results of a post-hoc multiple logistic regression performed on the categorical variable of alcohol consumption revealed that alcohol consumption did not differ significantly according to either subscale of the RIAS. Alcohol use did not differ significantly according to the Pre-encounter subscale ($\beta = 1.10$, $\chi^2 = 1.73$, $p = .19$) nor the Encounter subscale ($\beta = 1.01$, $\chi^2 = .03$, $p = .87$).

Table 5

Logistic Regression Analysis of Racial Identity, Alcohol Expectancies, Social Support and Experiences of Discrimination

Predictor	β	SE β	Wald's χ^2	df	p	e^{β} (odds ratio)
Racial Identity	.024	.033	.555	1	.456	1.032
Alcohol Exp.	.138	.045	9.445	1	.002	1.153*
Social Support	.121	.058	4.334	1	.037	1.133*
Exp. Of Discrim.	-.005	.026	.034	1	.853	.992

Test	χ^2	df	p
Goodness-of-fit test Hosmer & Lameshow			
Racial Identity	5.724	8	.678
Alcohol Exp.	6.438	8	.598
Social Support	3.257	5	.660
Exp. Of Discrim.	7.673	7	.362

Note. *. $p < .05$. All statistics reported herein use 3 decimal places in order to maintain statistical precision.

Table 6

Logistic Regressions Predicting Alcohol Consumption

	O.R.	C.I.
	(n = 108)	
Racial Identity	1.03	.96, 1.09
Alcohol Expectancies	1.15*	1.05, 1.25
Social Support	1.13*	1.01, 1.27
Experiences of Discrimination	.99	.95, 1.05

Note. *. $p < .05$.

Table 7

Context of Alcohol Consumption Totals by Gender

	All	Men	Women
	N = 108	N = 45	N = 61
Setting	[M (sd)]	[M (sd)]	[M (sd)]
Home	1.96 (3.85)	2.71 (4.53)	1.41 (3.20)
Sporting event	0.58 (1.74)	0.82 (2.16)	0.41 (1.35)
Parties	2.82 (3.96)	3.33 (4.50)	2.44 (3.50)
Bars/Clubs	2.74 (3.79)	2.96 (4.09)	2.57 (3.56)
Restaurants	0.59 (1.07)	0.51 (1.06)	0.66 (1.08)
Other home*	1.56 (2.64)	2.20 (3.20)	1.11 (2.03)
Other	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.02 (0.15)

Note. *. $p < .05$.

Table 8

Content Summary Status for RIAS Items

Item	Content Summary	Status
1	Spent time trying to find out about my ethnic group.	Encounter
2	Active in organizations.	Encounter
3	Clear sense of what my background means for me.	Encounter
4	Like meeting and getting to know from other group.	Pre-encounter
5	Think a lot about how my life will be affected by membership.	Encounter
6	Am happy with group I belong to.	Encounter
7	Sometimes feel it would be better if groups didn't mix.	Encounter
8	Not clear about role of ethnicity in my life.	Pre-encounter
9	Often spend time with other ethnic groups.	Pre-encounter
10	Not spent time learning about culture and hist.	Pre-encounter
11	Have strong sense of belonging.	Encounter
12	Understand what group membership means in terms of relating to my group and others.	Encounter
13	Have often talked to others about my group.	Encounter
14	Have pride in my background.	Encounter
15	Don't try to become friends with other groups.	Encounter
16	Participate in cultural practices.	Encounter
17	Involved in activities with other ethnic groups.	Pre-encounter
18	Feel a strong attachment to own group.	Encounter
19	Enjoy being around people from other groups.	Pre-encounter
20	Feel good about my ethnic background.	Encounter

DISCUSSION

In the present analysis, a relationship between social support and alcohol consumption versus abstaining from alcohol was shown as well as a relationship between alcohol expectancies and alcohol consumption. However, unlike other studies, (Herd, 1990; Caetano & Herd, 1984), no relationship between racial identity and alcohol consumption was observed. Further, in the present study, no relationship between experiences of discrimination and alcohol consumption versus abstention, was found. Variables such as acculturative stress for African Americans and experiences of discrimination may be less important to alcohol use than researchers may have previously thought. This may be due to several factors. While the context of alcohol consumption may indeed be important, it may be that students who do drink, do so in similar environmental settings, regardless of race. Students who define their racial identities to be an important aspect of their identities and lives, may also be those students who have significant social support and therefore consume alcohol for its social consequences, rather than for reasons such as “self-medication” or ease of distress. In fact, the function of alcohol may be of a positive, social nature for those African American students who do consume alcohol. Studies have suggested that the risks associated with severe alcohol use may be higher for African Americans than Caucasians (Rodney, 1996). This mere concern that African American students may hold regarding higher risks, such as increased chance of being arrested, or placed on probation, may be a difference between African American and Caucasian students which place African American students’

drinking at lower rates. It is possible that African American students at universities which have historically been predominantly Caucasian institutions may not want to be seen as portraying negative group stereotypes, and therefore do not consume alcohol in larger, risky amounts.

Although Caucasian students are typically shown to consume more alcohol than African American college students, it may nonetheless be the case that African American college students who drink, are drinking with other African American students. The function of drinking may be similar for both groups of African American students as well as Caucasian students who consume alcohol. Even anecdotally, these students may be consuming alcohol in similar settings, such as clubs and bars. Social context may in fact be a major factor in influencing alcohol consumption rates for African Americans as well as Caucasians. For those African American students who do drink, they appear to be drinking “socially” just as Caucasian students describe. Factors linked to social context such as alcohol expectancies may explain differences between drinkers regardless of ethnicity (Holyfield et al., 1995). Students who hold alcohol expectancies related to the social consequences of alcohol consumption, regardless of ethnicity may indeed be those students who consume alcohol. Perhaps these students do not consume larger amounts of alcohol as may be the case with Caucasian students, but African American students who hold expectancies related to the enhancement of social activities, may be those who consume alcohol at all, rather than abstain. The data in this research suggest that of students who do consume alcohol, they do so in moderation.

Those African American students who do not consume alcohol may be a group for future study. Protective factors other than a strong racial identity or the presence of

social support might be explored for this group. Students' beliefs about the use of alcohol (alcohol expectancies) may indeed provide important clues to interventions aimed at reducing alcohol intake among college populations. Future research might investigate the ways to modify individual's beliefs concerning the positive aspects of alcohol use (Goldman, 1994). For African American students, this might include modifying beliefs related to the positive social expectancies of alcohol use.

Several limitations were present in the current study. First, the difficulty of finding African American students from which to collect data may have resulted in a population of African American students who are less than representative of the African American community as a whole. For example, those students who were recruited were often recruited in social settings, such as a fraternity or sorority meetings. It may be that these were students who were predisposed to high levels of social support and group activities that may involve alcohol consumption. Finally, a model of moderate alcohol consumption among African American students has yet to be delineated, although such models exist for alcohol consumption among Caucasian college students (Caetano & Clarke, 1998). Such a model might take into account variables such as socially mediated expectancies for alcohol use as well as other investigated protective mechanisms such as religiosity and parental modeling behavior. Also, an investigation of students' beliefs concerning their belongingness and sense of security at their own university and larger community may provide further delineation of alcohol consumption behavior among African American students.

Future studies regarding ethnicity and alcohol use may be beneficial in developing a model of alcohol consumption among African American students, both

those who consume alcohol, as well as those who do not. Finally, future research regarding ethnic groups, such as African Americans, who have historically been seen as “at risk” for substance using behavior may need to develop more cognitively and contextually based models that provide accurate representations of alcohol consumption within ethnic minority communities.

REFERENCES

- Baron, R.M., & Kenny, D.A. (1986) The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychcological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51, 1173-1182.
- Burston, B. W. & Roberson-Saunders, P. (1995). Drug use and African Americans: Myth versus reality. *Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education*. 40(2), 19-39.
- Caetano, R. & Clark, C.L. (1998). Trends in alcohol consumption patterns among Caucasians, Blacks and Hispanics: 1984 and 1995. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol*. 59(6), 659-668.
- Caetano, R. (1997). The epidemiology of alcohol-related problems in the U.S.: Concepts, patterns and opportunities for research. *Drugs and Society*, 11(1-2).
- Cahalan, D., Cisin, I., & Crossley, H. (1969). *American drinking practices*, New Brunswick: Rutgers Center of Alcohol Studies.
- Christmon, K. (1995). Historical overview of alcohol in the African American community. *Journal of Black Studies*, 25(3), 318-330.
- Cizek, G.J., & Fitzgerald, S.M. (1999). An introduction to logistic regression. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*. 31(4), 223-244.
- Collins, R.L. (1993). Sociocultural aspects of alcohol use and abuse: Ethnicity and Gender. *Innovations in Alcohol Treatment*, 8(1), 89-115.
- Collins, R.L., Lapp, W.M., & Emmons, K.M. (1990). Endorsement and strength of alcohol expectancies. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol*, 51, 336-342.

- Collins, R.L., Parks, G.A., & Marlatt, G.A. (1985). Social determinants of alcohol consumption: The effects of social interaction and model status on the self-administration of alcohol. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 97, 218-230.
- Corbin, W.R., Ffrench, K. Carter, J., Cotton, G.J., & McNair, L.D. (1999, November). *Validation of a brief alcohol measure*. Poster session presented at the annual meeting of the Association for the Advancement of Behavior Therapy, Toronto, Canada.
- Cronin, C. (1997). Reasons for drinking versus outcome expectancies in the prediction of college student drinking. *Substance Use and Misuse*, 32(10), 1287-1311.
- Critchlow, B. (1985). The blame in the bottle: Attributions about drunken behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*. 11, 258-274.
- Dawkins, M. P. (1996). The social context of substance use among African American youth: Rural, urban and suburban comparisons. *Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education*, 41(3), 68-85.
- Dawkins, M.P. & Harper, F.D. (1983). Alcoholism among women: A comparison of Black and Caucasian problem drinkers. *International Journal of Addictions*, 18(3), 333-349.
- Dixon, S. L. (1991). Contributions of cultural, social and psychological factors to the etiology of alcoholism in African Americans. *Western Journal of Black Studies*. 15(3), 133-137.
- Ford, D.S. & Carr, P.G. (1990). Psychosocial correlates of alcohol consumption among Black college students. *Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education*. 36(1), 45-51.
- Fromme, K. (1992). Alcohol expectancies, social and environmental cues as determinants

- of drinking and perceived reinforcement. *Addictive Behaviors*, 17(2), 167-177.
- Globetti, G., Globetti, E., Celia, L., & Brown, C.L. (1996). Alcohol and other drug use among African American students in a southern university. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, 24(2), 118-128.
- Goldman, M.S. (1994). The alcohol expectancy concept: Applications to assessment, prevention, and treatment of alcohol abuse. *Applied and preventive psychology*, 3, 131-144.
- Goldman, M.S., Brown, S.A., & Christiansen, B.A. (1987). Expectancy theory: thinking about drinking. In H.T. Blane, & K.E. Leonard, (Eds.), *Psychological theories of drinking and alcoholism* (pp. 181-220). New York: Guilford Press.
- Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry. (1996). *Alcoholism in the United States: Racial and ethnic considerations* (Report No. 141). Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Press.
- Gustafson, R. (1991). Alcohol and outcome expectancies: Tolerance for socially nonacceptable behaviors. *Psychological Reports*, 69, 67-74.
- Herd, D. (1987). Rethinking Black drinking. *British Journal of Addiction*, 82(3), 219-223.
- Herd, D. (1990). Subgroup differences in drinking patterns among Black and Caucasian men: Results from a national survey. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol*, 51(3), 221-232.
- Herd, D. (1993). An analysis of alcohol-related problems in Black and Caucasian women drinkers. *Addiction Research*, 1(3), 181-198.

- Herd, D. (1994). Predicting drinking problems among Black and Caucasian men: Results from a national survey. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol*, 55(1), 61-71.
- Herd, D. (1996). Black identity and drinking in the U.S: A national study. *Addiction*, 91(6), 845-857.
- Herd, D. (1997). Racial differences in women's drinking norms and drinking patterns: A national study. *Journal of Substance Abuse*, 9, 137-149.
- Hines, A., Snowden, L.R., & Graves, K.L. (1998). Acculturation, alcohol consumption and AIDS-related risky sexual behavior among African American women. *Women and Health*, 27(3), 17-35.
- Holyfield, L., Ducharme, L.J. & Martin, J.K. (1995). Drinking contexts, alcohol beliefs, and patterns of alcohol consumption: Evidence for a comprehensive model of problem drinking. *Journal of Drug Issues*, 25(4), 783-798.
- Hull, J.G., (1986). Social and behavioral consequences of alcohol consumption and expectancy: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*. 99, 347-360.
- Humara, M. J., & Sherman, M.F. (1999). Situational determinants of alcohol abuse among Caucasian and African American college students. *Addictive Behaviors*, 24(1), 135-138.
- Joel, S.E. (1989). Alcoholism: A response of minority communities to rejection of their cultural identity by the dominant culture. In S. Einstein (Ed.), *Drug and alcohol use: Issues and factors* (pp. 215-222). New York, NY: Plenum Press.
- Jones-Webb, R. (1998). Drinking patterns and problems among African Americans: Recent findings. *Alcohol Health and Research World*, 22(4), 260-264.

- Kanner, A.D., Coyne, J.C., Schafer, C., and Lazarus, R.S. (1981) Comparison of two modes of stress measurement: Daily Hassles and Uplifts versus major life events. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 4, 1-39.
- Kenneth, S. (1985). Subjective effects of alcohol: The influence of setting and individual differences in alcohol expectancies. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol*, 46(2), 137-146.
- Kline, R. B. (1990). The relation of alcohol expectancies to drinking patterns among alcoholics: Generalizations across gender and race. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol*, 51(2), 175-182.
- Leigh, B. C. (1989). In search of the seven dwarves: Issues of measurement and meaning in alcohol expectancy research. *Psychological Bulletin*, 105(3), 361-373.
- McCreary, D. R.; Sadava, S. W. (1998). Stress, drinking, and the adverse consequences of drinking in two samples of young adults. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, 12(4), 247-261.
- McNair, L.D., Spitalnick, J., Dunn, J.K (2001). *The Drinking Partnership: Alcohol Convergence in College Couples*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Georgia at Athens.
- Maisto, S.A. & Connors, G.J. (1990). Clinical diagnostic techniques and assessment tools in alcohol research. *Alcohol Health and Research World*, 14(3), 232-238.
- Marlatt, G.A. & Rohsenow, D.J. (1980). Cognitive processes in alcohol use: Expectancy and the balanced placebo design. In N.K. Mello (Ed.), *Advances in substance abuse: Behavioral and biological research. A research annual* (Vol. 1 pp.159-199) Greenwich, CT: JAI press.

- Marin, G., Posner, S.F., & Kinyon, J.B. (1993). Alcohol expectancies among Hispanic and non-Hispanic Caucasians: Role of drinking status and acculturation. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 15(3), 373-381.
- Mehrabian, A. & Russell, J.A. (1974). A verbal measure of information rate for studies in environmental psychology. *Environment and Behavior*. 6(2), 233-252.
- Miller, L.S., & Kelman, S. (1992). Estimates of the loss of individual productivity from alcohol and drug abuse and from mental illness. In F.G. Richard & S. Kelman (Eds.), *Economics and mental health*. (pp. 91-129). Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University press.
- O'Hare, T. (1995). Differences in Asian and Caucasian drinking: Consumption level, drinking contexts, and expectancies. *Addictive Behaviors*. 20(2), 261-266.
- Parham, T.A., & Helms, J.E. (1985). Attitudes of racial identity and self-esteem for Black students: An exploratory investigation. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, 26(2), 143-147.
- Pavkov, T.W., McGovern, M.P., & Geffner, E.S. (1993). Problem severity and symptomatology among substance misusers: Differences between African Americans and Caucasians. *International Journal of the Addictions*, 28(9), 909-922.
- Peirce, R.S., Frone, M.R., Russell, M, & Cooper, M.L. (1996). Financial stress, social support, and alcohol involvement: A longitudinal test of the buffering hypothesis in a general population survey.

- Reese, F. L., & Friend, R. (1994). Alcohol expectancies and drinking practices among Black and Caucasian undergraduate males. *Journal of College Student Development*, 35(5), 319-323.
- Rodney, E. H. (1996). Inconsistencies in the literature on collegiate adult children of alcoholics: Factors to consider for African Americans. *Journal of American College Health*, 45(1), 19-25.
- Rodney, E. H., Mupier, R., & O'Neal, S. (1997). African American youth in public housing showing low alcohol and drug use. *Journal of Child and Adolescent Substance Abuse*, 6(4), 55-73.
- Saranson, I. G., Saranson, B. R., Shearin, E. N., & Pierce, G. R. (1986). A brief measure of social support: Practical and theoretical implications. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 4, 497-510.
- Sher, K.J. (1985). Subjective effects of alcohol: The influence of setting and individual differences in alcohol expectancies. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol*, 46(2), 137-146.
- Sobell, M.B., Sobell, L.C., Klajner, F., Pavan, D., & Basian, E. (1986). The reliability of a timeline method for assessing normal drinker college students recent drinking history: Utility for alcohol research. *Addictive Behaviors*, 11, 149-161.
- Steele, C.M. (1985). Alcohol and social behavior II: The helpful drunkard. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 68, 199-214.
- Tokar, D.M. & Fischer, A.R. (1998). Psychometric Analysis of the Racial Identity Attitude Scale-Long Form. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, 31, 138-150.

- Velez-Blasini, C. J. (1997). A cross-cultural comparison of alcohol expectancies in Puerto Rico and the United States. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, 11(2), 124-141.
- Vernon, P. A., Lee, D., Harris, J.A., & Jang, K.L. (1996). Genetic and environmental contributions to individual differences in alcohol expectancies. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 21, 183-187.
- Werner, M. J. (1993). Alcohol expectancies, problem drinking, and adverse health consequences. *Journal of Adolescent Health*. 14(6) 446-452.
- Werner, M. J., Walker, L.S., & Greene, J.W. (1995). Relationship of alcohol expectancies to problem drinking among college women. *Journal of Adolescent Health*. 16(3), 191-199.

APPENDIX A

Consent Form

I agree to participate in the research study titled, Alcohol Use and Social Relationships, which is being conducted by Garnette J. Cotton and Dr. Lily McNair, University of Georgia, Department of Psychology, (706) 542-1173. I understand that my participation is entirely voluntary, and I can withdraw my consent at any time without penalty and have the results of this participation, to the extent that it can be identified as mine, returned to me, removed from my research records, or destroyed. If I would like to learn about the results of this study, I may contact Lily McNair or Garnette Cotton by mailing a letter requesting the results of the study entitled Alcohol Use and Social Relationships. I will include my name and permanent address in the letter. The researchers can be reached at the following address: Department of Psychology, Psychology Building, The University of Georgia, Athens GA 30602.

The following points have been explained to me:

- 1.) The reason for this study is to gain a better understanding of the relationship between alcohol use and social relationships.
- 2.) The benefits that I may expect from it are:
I will receive credit toward course requirements such as PSYC 2101 or other PSYC courses in which I am enrolled that participation in research is a requirement. Also, I will receive information regarding the process of research and data collection as well as a better understanding of the steps involved in this process. Also, I may gain some insight regarding my own use of alcohol as well as gain insight regarding my own racial identity and behavior related to cultural practices. I can withdraw from the study without losing RP Pool Credit. I can also skip questions within the study that may make me uncomfortable without losing RP Pool Credit.
- 3.) The procedure will be as follows: I will respond to a series of questionnaires and return them to the researcher when completed. The questionnaire packet will take approximately 50 minutes to complete.
- 4.) The discomforts and stresses that I may face during this research are:
I will be asked to provide some personal and possibly upsetting information in order to complete the questionnaires. Specifically, I will be asked about alcohol use and experiences related to my racial identity.
- 5.) No risks are expected.
- 6.) My responses to this study will be anonymous, meaning that the researcher will be unable to link my responses to my name or identity.
- 7.) The researcher will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project, and can be reached by telephone at: 706-542-1173.

I understand that I am agreeing by my signature on this form to take part in this research project and understand that I will receive a signed copy of this consent form for my records.

Lily D. McNair, Ph.D.
Telephone: (706)542-1173
Email: ldmcnair@egon.psv.uga.edu

Signature

Date

Name of Participant

Signature

Date

Please sign both copies, keep one and return one to the researcher.

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to Chris A. Joseph, Ph.D. Human Subjects Office, University of Georgia, 606A Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu

APPENDIX B

Demographic Questionnaire

Please answer the following questions by checking the blank next to the most appropriate answer or filling in the blank.

1. Sex

Female

Male

2. Age: _____

3. How do you describe yourself?

American Indian or Alaska Native

Asian

Black or African American

Hispanic or Latino

Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander

White, non-Hispanic, non-Latino

Multiracial

Other (please specify) _____

4. I am currently in or a pledge of a fraternity or sorority

Yes

No

If yes, please specify name of fraternity/sorority _____

APPENDIX C

Daily Drinking Questionnaire (Collins, R.L., Parks, G.A., & Marlatt, G.A., 1985)

DDQ

We are interested in how much alcohol you consume during each drinking occasion. By one drink, we mean one 12 ounce bottle of beer, one shot of liquor – straight or in a mixed drink, or one 4 ounce glass of wine. Think of all of the times you have been drinking in the past month.

1. When you drank, how often did you have as many as 5 or 6 drinks?

- A = Nearly every time
- B = More than half of the time
- C = Less than half of the time
- E = Never

2. When you drank, how often did you have 3 or 4 drinks?

- A = Nearly every time
- B = More than half of the time
- C = Less than half of the time
- E = Never

3. When you drank, how often did you have 1 or 2 drinks?

- A = Nearly every time
- B = More than half of the time
- C = Less than half of the time
- E = Never

Please fill in a number for each day of the week indicating the average number of drinks you consumed during one week.

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Sunday

4. Please add together the numbers in the above boxes. The combined weekly average number of drinks is:

A = 0 drinks

B = 1 – 3 drinks

C = 4 – 11 drinks

D = 12 or more drinks

5. When I drink alcoholic beverages or soft drinks, I regularly drink:

A = beers and colas

B = beers but not colas

C = colas but not beers

D = neither beers or colas

APPENDIX D

Alcohol Expectancies Questionnaire (Collins, Lapp & Emmons, 1990)

Please read each of the following statements and respond according to your experiences with a moderate amount of alcohol. If you believe alcohol sometimes or always has the stated effect on you check AGREE. If you believe alcohol never has the stated effect on you, check DISAGREE.

Then, in the column to the far right, fill in the number that best corresponds to the strength of your belief, according to the following scale:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
	Mildly believe										Strongly believe
							Agree	Disagree	Strength of belief		
1. Alcohol increases muscular tension in my body	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	
2. Drinking makes me feel less shy.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	
3. Alcohol enables me to fall asleep much more quickly.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	
4. I feel powerful when I drink, as if I can really influence others to do as I want.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	
5. I'm more clumsy after I drink.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	
6. I'm more romantic when I drink.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	
7. Drinking makes the future seem brighter to me.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	
8. If I have had alcohol, it is easier for me to tell someone off.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	

	Agree	Disagree	Strength of belief
9. I can't act as quickly when I've been drinking	_____	_____	_____
10. Alcohol can act as an anesthetic for me, that is, it can deaden pain.	_____	_____	_____
11. I often feel sexier after I've been drinking.	_____	_____	_____
12. Drinking makes me feel good.	_____	_____	_____
13. Alcohol makes me careless about my actions.	_____	_____	_____
14. Alcohol has a pleasant, cleansing, tingly to me.	_____	_____	_____
15. Drinking increases my aggressiveness.	_____	_____	_____
16. Alcohol seems like magic to me.	_____	_____	_____
17. Alcohol makes it hard for me to concentrate.	_____	_____	_____
18. After drinking, I am a better lover.	_____	_____	_____
19. When I'm drinking, it is easier to open up and express my feelings.	_____	_____	_____
20. Drinking adds a certain warmth to social occasions for me.	_____	_____	_____
21. If I'm feeling restricted in any way, drinking makes me feel better.	_____	_____	_____
22. I can't think as quickly after I drink.	_____	_____	_____
23. Having drinks is a nice way for me to celebrate special occasions.	_____	_____	_____
24. Alcohol makes me worry less.	_____	_____	_____
25. Drinking is pleasurable because it's enjoyable for me to join in with other people who are enjoying themselves.	_____	_____	_____
26. After drinking, I am more sexually responsive.	_____	_____	_____

	Agree	Disagree	Strength of belief
27. I feel more coordinated after I drink.	_____	_____	_____
28. I'm more likely to say embarrassing things after drinking.	_____	_____	_____
29. I enjoy having sex more if I've had alcohol.	_____	_____	_____
30. I'm more likely to get into an argument if I've had alcohol.	_____	_____	_____
31. Alcohol makes me less concerned about doing things well.	_____	_____	_____
32. Alcohol helps me sleep better.	_____	_____	_____
33. Drinking gives me more confidence in myself.	_____	_____	_____
34. Alcohol makes me more irresponsible.	_____	_____	_____
35. After drinking it is easier to pick a fight.	_____	_____	_____
36. Alcohol makes it easier to for me to talk to people.	_____	_____	_____
37. If I have alcohol it is easier to express my feelings.	_____	_____	_____
38. Alcohol makes me more interesting.	_____	_____	_____
39. After I've had a few drinks, I'm more likely to feel sexy.	_____	_____	_____
40. Drinking makes me feel flushed.	_____	_____	_____

APPENDIX E

Racial Identity Attitude Scale (Parham, T.A. & Helms, J.E., 1985)

RIAS

In this country, people come from a lot of different cultures and there are many different words to describe the different backgrounds or ethnic groups that people come from. Some examples of the names of ethnic groups are Mexican-American, Hispanic, Black, Asian-American, American Indian, Anglo-American, and Caucasian. Every person is born into an ethnic group, or sometimes two groups, but people differ on how important their ethnicity is to them, how they feel about it, and how much their behavior is affected by it. These questions are about your ethnicity or your ethnic group and how you feel about it or react to it.

Please fill in:

In terms of ethnic group, I consider myself to be

Use the numbers given below to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement.

- | 4: Strongly agree | 3: Somewhat agree | 2: Somewhat disagree | 1: Strongly disagree |
|---|-------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. I have spent time trying to find out more about my own ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs. | | | _____ |
| 2. I am active in organizations or social groups that include mostly members of my own ethnic group. | | | _____ |
| 3. I have a clear sense of my ethnic background and what it means for me. | | | _____ |
| 4. I like meeting and getting to know people from ethnic groups other than my own. | | | _____ |
| 5. I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my ethnic group membership. | | | _____ |
| 6. I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to. | | | _____ |
| 7. I sometimes feel it would be better if different ethnic groups didn't try to Mix together | | | _____ |
| 8. I am not very clear about the role of my ethnicity in my life. | | | _____ |

9. I often spend time with people from ethnic groups other than my own. _____
10. I really have not spent much time trying to learn more about the culture and history of my ethnic group. _____
11. I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group. _____
12. I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me, in terms of how to relate to my own group and other groups. _____
13. In order to learn more about my ethnic background, I have often talked to Other people about my ethnic group. _____
14. I have a lot of pride in my ethnic background, I have often talked to Other people about my ethnic group. _____
15. I don't try to become friends with people from other ethnic groups. _____
16. I participate in cultural practices of my own group, such as special food, music, or customs. _____
17. I am involved in activities with people from other ethnic group. _____
18. I feel a strong attachment towards my own ethnic group. _____
19. I enjoy being around people from ethnic groups other than my own. _____
20. I feel good about my cultural or ethnic background. _____

Write in the number that gives the best answer to each question

21. How do you describe yourself?
- (1) American Indian or Alaska Native
 - (2) Asian
 - (3) Black or African American
 - (4) Hispanic or Latino
 - (5) Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
 - (6) White, non-Hispanic, non-Latino
 - (7) Multiracial
 - (8) Other (write in): _____
22. My father's ethnicity is (use numbers above) _____
23. My mother's ethnicity is (use numbers above) _____

APPENDIX F

Social Support Network (Conger, Patterson, & Ge, 1995).

For these next questions, please think about your friends and family.

1. How often do you have contact with close friends, either in person, on the phone, or by writing letters? Would you say...
 - 1 Every day
 - 2 More than once a day
 - 3 About once a week
 - 4 One to three times a month
 - 5 Less than once a month
 - 6 Never
 - 7 I HAVE NO CLOSE FRIENDS

For each of the following people, please tell me if that person made you feel appreciated, loved, or cared for a lot, some, or not at all.

1. How much does the relative you feel closest to, make you feel appreciated, loved or cared for? Is it...

- 1 A lot
- 2 Some
- 3 Or Not at all
- 4 NO SUCH PERSON OR PERSON DECEASED

2. How much does your best friend (who is not a relative) make you feel appreciated, loved, or cared for? Is it...

- 1 A lot
- 2 Some
- 3 Or Not at all

3. How much can you depend on this person?

- 1 A lot
- 2 Some
- 3 Or Not at all

4. How much can you depend on the relative you feel closest to when you need them?

- 1 A lot
- 2 Some
- 3 Or Not at all

5. How much can you depend on your best friend (who is not a relative) when you really need them?

- 1 A lot
- 2 Some
- 3 Or Not at all

6. How much concern or understanding does this person show for your feelings and problems?

- 1 A lot
- 2 Some
- 3 Or Not at all

7. How much concern or understanding does the relative you feel closest to show for your feelings and problems?

- 1 A lot
- 2 Some
- 3 Or Not at all

8. How much concern or understanding does your best friend (who is not a relative) show for your feelings and problems?

- 1 A lot
- 2 Some
- 3 Or Not at all

1. How much conflict, tension, or disagreement do you feel there is between you and the relative you feel closest to?
 - 1 A lot
 - 2 Some
 - 3 Or Not at all

2. How much conflict, tension, or disagreement do you feel there is between you and your best friend (who is not a relative)?
 - 1 A lot
 - 2 Some
 - 3 Or Not at all

3. How often do you feel that person makes too many demands on you?
 - 1 Often
 - 2 Sometimes
 - 3 Never

4. How often do you feel that the relative you feel closest to you makes too many demands on you?
 - 1 Often
 - 2 Sometimes
 - 3 Never

5. How often do you feel that your best friend (who is not a relative) makes too many demands on you?
 - 1 Often
 - 2 Sometimes
 - 3 Never

APPENDIX G

Experiences of Discrimination (Conger, Patterson, & Ge, 1995).

1. How often has someone said something derogatory or insulting to you just because you are African American?
Has it been...
 - 1 Never
 - 2 Once or twice
 - 3 A few times
 - 4 Or several times

2. How often has a store owner, sales clerk, or person working at a place of business treated you in a disrespectful way just because you are African American?
Has it been...
 - 1 Never
 - 2 Once or twice
 - 3 A few times
 - 4 Or several times

3. How often have the police hassled you just because you are African American?
Has it been...
 - 1 Never
 - 2 Once or twice
 - 3 A few times
 - 4 Or several times

4. How often has someone ignored you or excluded you from some activity just because you are African American? Has it been...
 - 1 Never
 - 2 Once or twice
 - 3 A few times
 - 4 Or several times

5. How often has someone suspected you of doing something wrong just because you are African American? Has it been...
- 1 Never
 - 2 Once or twice
 - 3 A few times
 - 4 Or several times
6. How often has someone yelled a racial slur or racial insult at you? Has it been...
- 1 Never
 - 2 Once or twice
 - 3 A few times
 - 4 Or several times
7. How often has someone threatened to harm you physically just because you are African American? Has it been...
- 1 Never
 - 2 Once or twice
 - 3 A few times
 - 4 Or several times
8. How often have you encountered whites who are surprised that you as an African American person did something really well? Has it been...
- 1 Never
 - 2 Once or twice
 - 3 A few times
 - 4 Or several times
9. How often have you been treated unfairly because you are African American instead of white? Has it been...
- 1 Never
 - 2 Once or twice
 - 3 A few times
 - 4 Or several times

10. How often have you encountered whites who didn't expect you to do well just because you are African American? Has it been...
- 1 Never
 - 2 Once or twice
 - 3 A few times
 - 4 Or several times
11. How often has someone discouraged you from trying to achieve an important goal just because you are African American? Has it been...
- 1 Never
 - 2 Once or twice
 - 3 A few times
 - 4 Or several times
12. How often have close friends of your been treated unfairly just because they are African Americans? Has it been...
- 1 Never
 - 2 Once or twice
 - 3 A few times
 - 4 Or several times
13. How often have members of your family been treated unfairly just because they are African American? Has it been...
- 1 Never
 - 2 Once or twice
 - 3 A few times
 - 4 Or several times

APPENDIX H

Drinking Context Questionnaire (McNair, Spitalnick, Dunn, 2001)

We are interested in your drinking patterns during a typical week. For each of the situations listed below, please indicate how many **times** you consume alcohol in that situation in the “Occasions” column, and how many **drinks** you typically consume during each of these occasions in the “Quantity” column. For example, if you drink at a bar twice in a typical week, and you typically have 3 drinks each time you go to a bar, write “2” in the Occasions column, and write “3” in the Quantity column of the row corresponding to “Bars/Clubs.”

Remember, you are answering based on your drinking during a **typical week**. If you do not consume alcohol, please check here _____.

Setting	Occasions	Quantity
1. Your own home/dorm/apartment		
2. Sporting events		
3. Parties		
4. Bars/Clubs		
5. Restaurants		
6. Someone else's home/dorm/apartment		
7. Other		

We are also interested in who you are with when you are consuming alcohol. For each of the following situations, please indicate the **total number of drinks** you consume in each of these settings, when you are alone, with your significant other, or with friends, in a **typical** week. For example, if you have a total of 5 drinks with your friends at a party during the week, you would write “5” in the “friends” column next to Parties.

Setting	Alone	With Boyfriend /Girlfriend	With Friend(s)	With Friends and Boyfriend /Girlfriend
8. Your own home/dorm/apartment				
9. Sporting Events				
10. Parties				
11. Bars/Clubs				
12. Restaurants				
13. Someone else's home/dorm/apartment				
14. Other				

15. With whom do you drink most frequently?

- a. friend(s)
- b. roommate(s)
- c. boyfriend/girlfriend
- d. acquaintances
- e. none of the above, I usually drink while I am alone

16. What is the ethnicity of the person(s) with whom you drink most frequently?

- a. African American
- b. Asian American
- c. Caucasian
- d. Latina/o
- e. Native American
- f. Other: _____

APPENDIX I

Debriefing Statement

We are interested in examining alcohol use in African-American students, and the relationship between alcohol consumption patterns as a function of ethnicity, and social circumstances and relationships. It has been consistently shown that African-American college students drink less alcohol than Caucasian college students. Several psychosocial factors may be protective factors in the relationship between alcohol consumption and race for African-American students. Concepts such as racial identity, social support and environmental setting may be some of these protective factors that affect alcohol use.

The major purpose of this study is to identify patterns of alcohol consumption among African-American students as a function of the following protective factors: racial identity, alcohol expectancies, the context in which alcohol is consumed, the experience of stressful situations related to race, and social support. The results of this study will help us to better understand the relationship between alcohol use and ethnicity in college students. It is also expected that our findings will contribute to developing more effective intervention strategies aimed at addressing problematic drinking patterns in college populations. If you are interested in the significance and practical implications of this research, please contact Garnette J. Cotton or Dr. Lily McNair at 542-1173. If you have any questions or comments, the experimenter is available at this time to discuss the study with you.

In order to ensure the anonymity of all data, all responses you provide will be recorded with a code number. At no time will your scores or any other information you have given us be associated with your name. Additionally, we ask that you not discuss this study with other students. In order to ensure the validity of the results, it is important for participants to be unaware of the purpose of the study. Thank you once again for your time and participation in this research.