The influence of peer friendships on drinking patterns among students at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop Campus)

Neluvhalani Mpho Daphney

Mini − Masters Dissertation

Submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master pf Arts

In

Clinical Psychology

In the

Faculty of the Humanities

(School of Social Sciences)

At the

University of Limpopo

Supervisor: Prof. K A Nel

YEAR: 2015

Declaration

I declare that THE INFLUENCE OF PEER FRIENDSHIPS ON DRINKING PATTERNS AMONG STUDENTS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO (TURFLOOP CAMPUS) is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. I also declare that this work has not been submitted before for any other degree at any other institution.

………………………………………….   …………………………..

Full Names   Date

………………………………….

Student number

Acknowledgements

I want to thank the following persons for their contributions to this dissertation.

- Thank you to my supervisor, Prof KA Nel, for her guidance and support.
- My family, friends and colleagues for their support.
- The students who participated in this research.

Abstract

The present research investigated the relationship between peer friendships and alcohol drinking patterns, amongst second year students at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop campus). The use and abuse of alcohol amongst students in South African and globally is problematic and increases decade after decade. Students consider alcohol consumption a normal part of university life and often overlook the consequences of health and social problems associated with high levels of alcohol use. The study utilised a quantitative approach with a cross sectional survey design. A convenience sample of second year students was used. Descriptive statistics were used to present the results as they give a clear and concise picture of the data. The chi-square test was utilised to see if there were any significant differences between male and female participants in terms of the study propositions and questions. The results suggest that positive psychosocial and psychological needs are intrinsic and are more likely to occur if an individual has ongoing and positive peer friendships, particularly amongst female participants. Generally, significant results indicate that females are more likely to engage in positive peer friendships and behaviours than males. Responses from male participants suggest that they are more likely to engage in maladaptive behaviours and are more likely to be negatively influenced by their peers, in terms of alcohol consumption, than females. However, females may tend to underestimate how much they drink as they are less likely to go out to a bar and are more likely to drink in their rooms or homes with friends than males.

Table of Contents

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

CHAPTER 7: RESEARCH STRENGTHS, WEAKNESSES AND RECOMMENDATIONS

List of frequency tables

List of chi-square tables

List of figures

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Students enrolled in tertiary institutions are at an age when they explore different philosophies, lifestyles and relationships (Mogotsi, 2011). In the long term this exploration helps them in making commitments to an integrated set of personal beliefs, values, and goals. This exploration of identity is considered normal and healthy but may increase experimentation involving risky behaviours for instance, heavy alcohol consumption. Risky behaviours are associated with being friends with peers who, because they drink (and binge drink) themselves, want to see the situation as normal thus encourage others to drink (McAlaney & McMahon, 2007).

According to Mogotsi (2011) the consumption of alcohol at universities in South Africa is becoming more problematic and is associated with outcomes that are negative, both socially and academically. It has been stated by various researchers that peer influence and factors in peer relationships encourage students to drink (Newman, Crawford & Nellis, 1991; Taylor, Jinabhai, Naidoo, Klein, Schmidt & Dlamini, 2003). Although mention is made of peer pressure being an important factor in alcohol consumption in various South African studies the focus of such research, at previously disadvantaged institutions, has been on drinking patterns (Mogotsi, 2011), or the effects of alcohol consumption (Dlamini, Rugbeer, Naidoo, Metso & Moodley, 2012). The present study therefore aims to fill this gap in the literature on alcohol consumption at previously disadvantaged institutions by investigating the link between peer friendships and alcohol consumption.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The transition from high school to university is not only an important phase in an adolescent's life from an academic perspective, but also in terms of new friendships which are one of the hallmarks of this transition. The typical university student's shift from high school to higher education often includes leaving home for the first time and being away from the influence of parents, caregivers and/or childhood friends (Kenny & Donaldson, 1991; Larose & Boivin, 1998; Mogotsi, 2011). This estrangement, and the need to belong, leads students to seek new friendships which fulfill several purposes such as, friendships

which offer emotional support, those which offer support academically, and those which have the potential for romantic liaisons (Hays, 1985; Mogotsi, 2011; Rose, 1985).

When students have reached second year in a tertiary education setting they have usually formed bonds with those they consider friends, these relationships can be positive or negative (Mogotsi, 2011). Reiss (1990) reported that most tertiary education students reported that having only a few close friends was more important than having many acquaintances. Students who experiment with alcohol when first entering a tertiary education setting may not continue drinking in their second year. However, second and third year students who have cemented friendships with peers who drink alcohol usually continue to do so, often as a result of peer pressure (Dlamini et al., 2012; Larose & Boivin, 1998).

The present study thus investigated the relationship between peer friendships and alcohol drinking patterns, amongst second year students at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop campus).

1.3   Background to the study

According to Newman, Crawford and Nellis (1991) every higher education environment has an institutional culture that differs from that of other institutions, whether it is based on student demographics, entrance requirements, cost, traditions, competitiveness, athletics, and size or region of the country. However, there are other external environmental variables which may influence student behaviours for instance, socio-economic and cultural factors (Dlamini et al., 2012). Other factors include the availability of alcohol, pricing of alcohol, density of distribution outlets (that is, bars and clubs) in the area surrounding the campus, the social settings where drinking takes place and campus customs. Such factors all play a role in shaping the drinking environment for students (Dlamini et al., 2012; Mogotsi, 2011).

According to Borsari, Bergen-Cico and Carey (2003) problems commonly associated with alcohol abuse frequently include property damage, poor academic performance, problematic peer relationships, unprotected sexual activity, physical injuries, date rape and suicide. It is also noted that while some students begin using alcohol and other drugs after enrolling in tertiary institutions, research suggests that other students begin drinking during adolescence. Furthermore, these problems escalate during tertiary education years. Binge drinking has also been found to be more prevalent in young people who attend tertiary institutions than their peers who do not, which is consistent with findings that the use of alcohol is part of the culture of university life (Dlamini et al., 2012; Mogotsi, 2011; Taylor et al., 2003).

According to Mogotsi (2011) binge drinking has been identified as one of the biggest problems globally for undergraduate students. Additionally, she reports that in South Africa females are reported to be drinking as much as their male counterparts. This is problematic because females do not have the same physiological capacity to deal with alcohol. Females are prone to incurring more physiological and psychological problems in later life than males as a result of abuse of alcohol.

1.4 Purpose of the study

1.4.1 Aim of the study

The aim of the study is to investigate the influence of peer friendships on the consumption of alcohol amongst second year psychology students at University of Limpopo (Turfloop campus).

1.4.2 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study:

- to determine if peer friendships have an influence on the consumption of alcohol amongst second year psychology students at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop campus);
- to determine if second year psychology students are more likely to engage in binge drinking if their best friends drink than those students whose best friends do not drink.

1.5 Significance of the study

The current study aimed to identify the various components of peer friendship among second year psychology students at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop campus). Generally, second year students are believed to have cemented friendships with their peers and, at this stage of their university life, have best friends. This is important because the underlying factors of friendship may be the key to understanding the increasing rates of alcohol consumption amongst students in higher education settings. Preceding studies at previously disadvantaged universities have focused on if alcohol use exists and/or why students drink but have not focused on whether peer friendships influence drinking patterns (Dlamini et al., 2012; Mogotsi, 2011). The study is considered important, as it has identified the aforementioned gap in the literature.

1.6 Summary

Chapter one gives the background to the study. It clarified the aim and objectives of the study and notes its significance. The following chapter gives an overview of relevant literature pertaining to the study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The use and abuse of alcohol amongst tertiary education students is very problematic as it is increasing at an exponential rate (Dlamini et al., 2012), particularly amongst female students (Mogotsi, 2011). According to Bosari et al. (2003), alcohol consumption is considered a norm at almost all institutions of higher learning however, students overlook the consequences associated with alcohol consumption, particularly binge drinking. The authors note that physical fights, getting into trouble with the law and suicide are linked to binge drinking. Peer friendships are, according to some researchers, a key component in drinking patterns (Mogotsi, 2011; Verbrugge, 2007). This chapter aims to give an overview of relevant literature pertaining to the research problem.

2.2 Peer friendships

According to Berndt (2004) friendship refers to close, mutual and voluntary relationships. Sullivan (1953) first articulated the concept in the early 20th century. He developed a conceptual framework, still used in contemporary research. He believed the functions of friendship developed in early childhood. Sullivan (1953, p.254) described friendship as providing the following functions:

- offering consensual validation;
- bolstering feelings of self-worth;
- providing affection and a context for intimate disclosure;
- promoting interpersonal sensitivity, and
- setting the foundation for romantic and parental relationships.

Berndt (2004) reinforced the theory, and expanded upon it, by stating that friends provide different kinds of support for one and other namely, informational support, instrumental support, companion support and esteem support. Informational support refers to guidance and advice in terms of personal problems. Instrumental support refers to help with any type of task ranging from homework to household chores. Companionship support refers to reliance on friends for company for instance, going out to parties or sporting events. It is usually

during companionship that peer influence can be either positive or negative. For instance, when a party takes place some individuals are pressurised by their peers to drink alcohol or participate in drinking games. They frequently do this because they want to be seen as part of an in-group, which is a group that is perceived to be popular thus desirable (Nel, 2009; Mogotsi, 2011). The last type of support is esteem support which refers to the encouragement friends provide, both when life is going well and when life is difficult.

Research by Ryan and Ladd (2012) on friendship formation suggests that positive friendships are most likely to be developed and maintained over time when children display personal attributes such as the ability to communicate responsively, have the ability to exchange information, and establish common ground. Children must also have the ability to self-disclose, join the activities of others, resolve conflict, and provide emotional support to their peers. Young children describe their friendships in terms of obvious characteristics such as spending time together or having common interests whereas older children and young adults are more likely to include psychological characteristics such as intimacy, self-disclosure, loyalty, and commitment in describing their friends. Friendships also become more stable as children reach different developmental levels.

Recent research suggests that researchers who study peer relationships typically focus on one of two peer contexts. The first is children's dyadic friendships and the second their larger peer groups. The major distinction between friendships and involvement with the broader peer group is that friendships reflect relatively private, unrestricted relationships formed on the basis of individual criteria. In contrast, peer groups are defined by publicly recognised and therefore easily recognisable and predictable characteristics which are valued by the group. Friendships are enduring aspects of children's peer relationships at all ages, whereas peer groups emerge primarily in the adolescent years, peak at the beginning of high school, and then diminish in frequency as well as influence by the end of high school (Ryan & Ladd, 2012)

2.3 Friendship factors and peer influence in drinking alcohol

According to Verbrugge (1977) there are many different definitions and understandings of friendship however, there is a consistency in the literature about what makes a friend. At the most basic level, friendship is just an interaction between people who are close to each other and share similar interests. The author developed the proximity principle which states that

people have an increased likelihood of becoming friends due to physical closeness. This principle is demonstrated in the development of friendships in higher education environments. This is because many students live far away from their homes and cannot rely on their former friends or families for friendship and advice about challenges they may face on campus. In an early study by Hays (1985), the proximity principle was examined by asking college students to give a list of potential friends at the beginning of the academic year, three months later the potential friends that lived closer were revealed as being more likely to become friends compared to those who lived further away. Festinger, Schacter, and Back (1950) and Johnson (2008), also examined the proximity principle by looking at the friendship between people who lived in apartments, the physical location of the apartments and the likelihood of friendships developing. They found that married graduate students were twice as likely to become friends with one another if they lived in close proximity compared to other couples who lived far away. These findings emphasized the proximity principle as a factor in the emergence of friendships.

Feld (1981) believes that social networks are formed around a focus, meaning that, people form relationships when there are social, psychological, legal or physical situations around which joint activities are shared. It is the action of working with another individual towards a common goal that leads individuals to feel connected to one another and motivated to build a relationship. McPherson, Smith-Lovin and Cook, (2001) produced evidence that individuals who share more common interests had bigger and more supportive social networks, indicating that there is a relationship between focus centered activities and positive interpersonal relationships. Further, they suggested that these underlying foci are what brings individuals together and helps their relationships grow in terms of intimacy, and the amount of time that they spend together.

According to Mogotsi (2011) tertiary education students experience increasing autonomy and independence from their parents thus they spend more time with their peers, and many are susceptible to peers' suggestions that they engage in risky behaviours, including excessive drinking. She further reports that cultural myths about campus drinking may increase use and misuse of alcohol, especially when alcohol use is considered as a fundamental part of social relationships and socializing.

Research has documented that peer groups exhibit similarity in many characteristics and attributes. The tendency of individuals to associate with others who share similar attributes is

a social dynamic called homophily. Homophily of peer group beliefs and behaviours has been found across a wide range of outcomes. For example, a study carried out by Rubin (2006) found that adolescent peer groups were found to be more homogeneous than for instance, university peer groups. Homophily of peer groups has also been found amongst peers regarding academic characteristics such as the ability to finish homework on time, and general engagement with schoolwork. Two processes contribute to homophily, these are socialisation and selection. Socialisation refers to the tendency for friends to influence similar attributes in each other over time. Selection refers to the tendency for individuals to choose friends with similar attributes to themselves (Fletcher & Ross, 2012).

Fletcher and Ross (2012) suggest that socialisation (also referred to as peer influence or peer pressure) manifests itself in both direct and indirect ways. For example, social reinforcement plays a role. Beliefs and behaviours that are discouraged or received negatively by a peer group are less likely to be displayed again by an individual belonging to that particular group. Conversely, beliefs and behaviours that are encouraged or positively received by the peer group are more likely to be displayed again. However, peer influence also occurs in less direct ways. For example, modelling processes are likely to be involved in peer influence. Modelling, as described by Fletcher and Ross (2012) could include the following for instance, observing a peer's commitment to schoolwork or indulging in alcohol or voicing a belief about the meaning of school. Depending on the consequences, observation of a model can strengthen or weaken the likelihood that the observer will engage in such behaviour or adopt such beliefs in the future. Finally, peer influence is also likely to occur through indirect means such as gossip, teasing, and humour. Gossiping about others, for example, is a means of communicating unacceptable behaviour without direct confrontation. Thus, peers share experiences and exchange information. This results in a context emerging regarding peer group norms and values. This peer group context is likely to influence many outcomes, including an individual's motivation and engagement in academic or other activities.

2.4 Peer pressure

Students have a tendency to move away from the reliance of parents to peers. Peers provide the student with social opportunities and they share views and behaviours, some of which are good while others are bad (Newcomb, 1976). According to Jaccard, Dodge and Blanton (2005), new university students, who drink alcohol, tend to be vulnerable to negative behaviours as they usually choose friends with similar drinking patterns as themselves.

According to Marshal and Chassin (2001) peer pressure has been found to be the strongest predictor of alcohol use. The reason for this strong relationship is that peers influence students drinking behaviour by serving as role models and also by influencing students' attitude toward alcohol use. They tend to encourage one another to use alcohol.

Parry and Bennett (1998) suggested that students who drink alcohol reported that alcohol increases their self-esteem. Peers are shown to be the most important people in students' lives as they provide opportunities to interact with one another and are the same age. Students can facilitate the development of social skills such as getting along with each other in various situations. They can confront one another and enjoy participating in activities together. They also listen to each other and take ideas, new senses of morality and values that are provided by their peers. When they grow older, students are likely to change their behaviours and attitudes which tend to revert back to those they learnt from their parents (Dusek, 1987).

According to Yanovitzky, Stewart and Lederman (2006) many students imitate their peers' attitudes to drinking, clothing and hairstyles in order to be accepted into the in-group. Faulkner, Hendry, Roderigues and Thomson (2006) state that peers can have a positive or negative social influence on each other. A positive social influence leads individuals to develop social skills in such a way that when they are offered alcohol, but do not really want it, they will say no. Klein (1992) states that students who acquire positive social influences are more likely to resist peer pressure to drink than those who experience negative social influences. It is also suggested that negative social influences may lead to negative behaviour and have a detrimental effect on an individual's life and family relationships. Generally, students with negative social skills, who are from unhappy or dysfunctional backgrounds, are more likely to be influenced by peers and accept offers of alcohol from them. It can also be stated that generally students who are seen to have a lot of friends, and who are considered to be socially competent by their peers, have a negative influence (in terms of drinking alcohol) on them (Hartup, 1996; Mogotsi, 2011).

2.5 Beliefs about alcohol
There is evidence which suggests that beliefs about alcohol are related, or linked, to the initiation of drinking behaviours. It is common for a university student to begin drinking, based on what he or she has observed adults or close relatives doing, to cope with stress or relieve boredom. Although most of this belief structure is usually in place before university,

the tertiary education environment provides a stimulus structure that can reinforce prior beliefs for example, the notion that drinking is fun and makes people popular (Crawford & Novak, 2010; Dlamini et al., 2012; Mogotsi, 2011).

Students vary considerably in their perceptions and expectations of whether alcohol is a positive or negative influence on their behaviour. Their reasons for drinking also vary, and have been linked to the management of specific emotional states for instance, being depressed and drinking alcohol as a form of self-medication for dealing with these feelings. A person who drinks to manage negative emotional states might use alcohol to cope with stress, relieve depression or social anxiety and/or to boost low self-esteem (Crawford &Novak, 2010).

In their study of alcohol on a college campus in the United States of America (USA) Crawford and Novak (2010) found that beliefs about alcohol and college experience affected the relationship between perceived campus drinking norms and students' personal alcohol use in a negative manner. Students were more likely to put aside moderate personal drinking norms and embrace campus drinking norms which were always much less moderate. According to a study carried out by Turrisi (2012) at Tufts University, also in the USA, some students believe that drinking is one way to celebrate a special occasion. For example, a friend may suggest to another that they have a few beers after finishing an important assignment. Additionally, participants in the study gave believed that drinking alcohol made it easier for them to express feelings or talk with members of the opposite sex. Some participants also reported that drinking alcohol adds to sexual experiences, overlooking the dangers in mixing alcohol and sex. The authors reported that because alcohol impairs judgment students may do things that they may regret such as having casual sex and not using a condom.

Another reason students give for drinking is that alcohol helps reduce worries. Instead of trying to find out why they are stressed and anxious thus they avoid directly confronting these worries in a realistic manner (Mogotsi, 2011). Students choose to avoid worries by drinking and trying to forget their problems however, in the long term this makes things worse (Turrisi, 2012).

2.6 Religiosity

Several studies conducted on large campuses in the USA indicate that students who are more religious and more committed to traditional values drink less than peers who are less religious (Engs, Diebold & Hanson, 1996; Wechsler, Dowdall, Davenport & Castillo, 1995). In support of this, a study conducted by Marsiglia, Ayers and Hoffman (2012) in a semi-rural area in Mexico, on religiosity and substance use, reported that adolescents who had a higher church attendance, coupled with more religious values, were at less risk of using alcohol.

Religiosity is thought to act as a protective factor for substance use and abuse because participation in religion provides what is termed social capital. At the micro level, social capital is viewed as the tools and resources available to the individual which are useful in achieving specific goals. Specifically, for young adults religion can serve as a normative structure providing positive guidelines within a nurturing environment (Marsiglia, Ayers & Hoffman, 2012).

Religiosity often refers to both religious behaviours and religious attitudes. This multi-dimensional construct characteristically includes external religiosity (public religiosity) and internal religiosity (private religiosity). External religiosity refers to an individual's participation and involvement in religious activities, such as church attendance, while internal religiosity refers to the importance an individual places on religion through personal behaviours. When religiosity is high, alcohol use is low (Marsiglia, Ayers & Hoffman, 2012).

A study conducted by Wells (2010) in America revealed that as an individual's religiosity increases, the likelihood of alcohol consumption decreases. Secondly she found that students who attend an academic institution which promotes religious value have a higher level of religiosity than students who attend a secular university.

2.7 The influence of prior drinking, peers, and family

Wechsler et al. (1995), report that some students in the USA use alcohol at high school, even though the age at which alcohol can be consumed in the country is 21 years. This leads to heavy drinking in tertiary education settings. The results of this study, which was carried out in a 140 higher education settings, found that the frequency of binge drinking in high schools predicted the frequency of binge drinking in higher education environments.

Peer use is one of the strongest correlates of adolescent alcohol use according to various international studies (Jacob & Leonard, 1994; Larimer, Irvine, Kilmer & Marlatt, 1997, Martin & Hoffman, 1993; Reis & Riley, 2000). These studies report that young adults tend to select peers who drink like they do and then influence one and other to drink more. For instance, students who associate with more friends who drink consume more alcohol than students who associate with fewer friends who consume alcohol (Martin & Hoffman, 1993). Parental conflict, insufficient monitoring of adolescent behaviour (for example, not knowing where children are at night), and poor communication have also been linked to adolescent drinking problems which leads to higher alcohol use in middle and late adulthood (Jacob & Leonard, 1994; Reis & Riley, 2000).

Research in the last several decades (Jaccard et al., 2005) suggest that parental factors may represent an important, and under studied potential protective influence on adolescent drinking. In early adolescent literature, numerous types of psychosocial parental factors that might serve to influence adolescent drinking behaviours have been identified. These influences may be broadly conceptualised according to parents' behavioural influences, such as nurturance and monitoring, and value - related domains, such as parents' attitudes toward and permissiveness related to adolescent drinking (Wood, Read, Mitchell, & Brand, 2004).

2.7.1 Parental Nurturance

Parental nurturance, or support, has been identified as a significant influence on early adolescent alcohol use (Jaccard et al., 2005). Parental nurturance is characterised by parenting behaviours that demonstrate caring and acceptance of the child and may include such things as encouragement of the child's activities and being actively involved in the child's life. Deficits in parental support have been linked both cross-sectionally and prospectively to a number of problem behaviours in adolescents, including adolescent substance abuse (Wood, Read, Mitchell & Brand, 2004).

2.7.2 Parental Monitoring

Parental monitoring can be defined as a way in which parents attempt to track, or control their children's activities and whereabouts as a way of monitoring them in order to eliminate or decrease undesirable behaviour. This type of parenting behaviour is thought to be an effective protective factor in guarding adolescents against alcohol misuse and related problems. Some studies on parental monitoring have shown low parental monitoring to be a

strong correlate of alcohol use in early adolescents, with higher levels of parental monitoring being associated with less levels of alcohol use (Wood, Read, Mitchell & Brand, 2004).

According to Cohen (2007) families which are characterised by low levels of parental monitoring and exposure to substance using peers may serve as a marker of increased vulnerability, playing a key role in the onset and development of young people's alcohol use. Furthermore, parental monitoring is reportedly a protective factor for the selection of substance using friends. The authors demonstrated peer influence (use of alcohol by same age peers and friends, friends' approval of drinking) had a stronger effect on adolescent behaviour than family environment. According to Wood et al. (2004), there is a significant association between both peer and parental influences and alcohol involvement.

2.7.2.1 Parental Attitudes

Jacob and Leonard (1994) and Wood, Vinson and Sher (2001) suggest that parental attitudes toward drinking represent a means of indirect social modelling and may be communicated through the implementation of boundaries regarding the expression of values pertaining to alcohol use by parents. Parents who have a permissive attitude regarding alcohol use may be influential in determining adolescent alcohol initiation and the transition into heavier drinking. This permissiveness has been associated with greater alcohol and drug involvement in early adolescence in several studies (Ghuman, Meyer – Weitz & Knight, 2012; Wood, Read, Mitchell, & Brand, 2004). Explicit parental disapproval of substance use has also been suggested as a protective factor although this is an area that has not been widely studied (Ghuman et al., 2012; Wood et al., 2004).

According to a study carried out by Ghuman et al. (2012), alcohol consumption by the children of parents who drink is motivated by the frequency with which the parents abuse alcohol in their presence. It was also found that the abuse of alcohol by fathers on a weekly basis was a significant predictor of the frequency with which their children abuse alcohol in their lives. Problematic relationships with parents were also found to influence adolescent alcohol use and abuse. The authors concluded that this highlights the responsibility of parents in the socialisation of their children and the protective role they can play as positive versus negative role models against engagement in risky behaviours.

2.7.3   Combined Influences

In their application of developmental theory to alcohol misuse Windle and Davies (1999) noted the importance of considering moderators in the conceptualisation of alcohol use behaviours. They noted that research points to associations amongst environmental factors and drinking behaviours as being interactive rather than linear. They concluded that examination of moderators may help to explain inter-relationships amongst variables associated with drinking patterns. Consistent with this formulation, and with the literature suggesting that both peer and parental factors play an important role in influencing substance use behaviours amongst older adolescents, an examination of these combined influences appears to be a step in the identification of risk and protective socialisation influences in this population (Ghuman, Meyer-Weitz & Knight, 2012).

2.8 Drinking games

Drinking games have increased in popularity over the past several decades (Bosari, 2004; Cameron et al., 2010). Complete vocabularies have been developed to describe participation in these games, which suggests that they have become a tradition associated with tertiary education lifestyles (Cameron et al., 2010; Douglas, 1987).   Many students report that drinking games facilitate relaxation and disinhibition which, in turn, increases the enjoyment of events. It was further reported that participants in studies state that involvement in drinking games allows them to fit in with their peers (Cameron et al., 2010; Johnson & Sheets, 2004). According to these authors drinking games facilitate binge drinking, which can lead to physical impairment, blackouts and sometimes death. Peers who choose to stop drinking during these games are frequently subject to being called names. This often motivates them to start drinking again, so that they are not left out of the group (Bosari, 2004; Cameron et al., 2010; Mogotsi, 2011).

Cameron et al. (2012) report that various studies indicate that a significant proportion of tertiary education students authorized treatment following an alcohol related incident. The state that participation in drinking games, frequency and quantity of alcohol consumption are significant predictors of drinking game participation, thus tertiary students who report a high frequency and quantity of alcohol consumption tend to report a high frequency of drinking game participation and consume high quantities of alcohol while participating. Drinking games may be an important factor in socialising first year students into heavy episodic alcohol use. The authors also found that males were more likely to report recent participation

and reported higher levels of consumption while playing drinking games. Furthermore, they found that drinking game participants were more likely to experience a range of alcohol-related problems than females. The authors concluded that these results suggest that drinking game participation is a risk factor for elevated levels of alcohol consumption and alcohol-related problems.

Drinking games represent a social context consisting of a set of rules and guidelines that facilitate heavy alcohol use (Mogotsi, 2011). Involvement in drinking games can lead to a reversal of competence that is, as players/participants become more intoxicated, their skills diminish. Moreover, the nature of most drinking games is such that as participants start losing the game, they are forced to drink more as a penalty, which in turn further diminishes their skills, thus worsening the consumption cycle. Given these characteristics, it is predictable that playing drinking games can place tertiary education students at a high risk for heavy alcohol consumption and negative health, academic and social outcomes (Mogotsi, 2011; Zamboanga et al., 2010). It is unclear if participation in drinking games alone, without including other factors that contribute to binge drinking, puts an individual at a higher risk for negative drinking outcomes.

2.9 Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory focuses on learning through social modelling (Bandura, 1977). This means that environmental influences help control how individuals learn different kinds of behaviour. Bandura (1977) believed that although behaviour can be shaped into new patterns to some degree, by rewarding and punishing penalties, learning would be very difficult if continued only on that basis. He added that for this reason it would be misguided to trust on differential reinforcement of trial-and-error performances in teaching children for instance, to swim and adults to develop complex occupations and social skills.

Apart from questions of survival, Bandura (1977) states that it is difficult to visualize a socialisation process in which the language, vocational activities, familial customs, and educational, religious and political practices of culture are taught to each new member by selective reinforcement of unplanned behaviours, without the benefit of models which demonstrate the cultural patterns in their own behaviour.

Most of the behaviours the people display are learned, either deliberately or unconsciously, through the influence of example. There are several reasons why modelling influences are prominent in day – to day life learning. When mistakes are hazardous new modes of response can be developed without unnecessary errors by providing proficient models that determine how the required activities should be performed. Some complex behaviour can be produced only through the influence of models (Bandura, 1977; Dlamini et al., 2012).

In terms of drinking alcohol to excess this is a pattern which can be modelled on parental, sibling and/or peer behaviour. If it is peer behaviour alone, and has not been modelled by parents or caregivers, the individual is more likely to fall back on learnt behaviours after experimenting with alcohol. However, if the behaviours are modelled on parents or caregivers the individual is likely to have a lifelong struggle with alcohol (Dlamini et al., 2012; Zamboanga et al., 2010).

2.9.1 Direct positive and negative reinforcement

According to Nagle, McHale, Alexander and French (2009) positive reinforcement is reinforcing behaviour which means that behaviour(s) will be repeated and used in the future. When an individual interacts with their family, peers, and society, they learn how to use various types of social skills. These skills are learned through a sequence of positive and negative reinforcements. These reinforcements must be consistent as possible which often does not happen in the early years of development. Some skills, which children learn, but which are not consistent in presentation and not reinforced consistently, usually diminish over a period of time.

2.9.2 Observational Learning

It is often assumed that observational learning is based on the idea that the observer learns or imitates the model when reinforcement is used (Bandura, 1977). Researchers have found it challenging to prove this theory when there are often no responses after an observer watches a specific form of modelling (Bandura, 1977). Consequently, social learning theory supports the notion that learning is accomplished through observation and symbolic representation (Bandura, 1977; Dlamini et al., 2012; Zamboanga et al., 2010).

2.9.3 Environmental Learning

Environmental learning links the skill to learn or adapt to our context or surroundings. For instance, the ability to learn is improved through acknowledging a teacher, parent, or positive outcome. Environmental learning is flexible so different types of learning do not apply equally to the same individual (Yanovitzky et al., 2006). According to Bandura (1991), another important feature of environmental learning is fundamentally an active experience. This experience (which is interactive) allows the individual to experience feedback, which encourages them to continue learning (Bandura, 1991; Zamboanga et al., 2010).

2.9.4 Cognitive Learning

Bandura (2001) and Dlamini et al. (2012), posit that cognitive learning combines the theories of self-regulation and self-reflection. Essentially, individuals have the ability to symbolise, understand, and adjust environmental influences in their specific life contexts. Cognitive learning is responsible for processing external information and determines the type of information that an individual observes and stores as symbol for later use. Consequently, social cognitive learning is transferred through kinds of social interactions which influence the meanings of individual cognitions.

2.9.5 Social Learning Theory and alcoholism

According to Pascall, Grube, Black, and Ringwalt, (2007) social learning theory and alcoholism are linked. They state that various studies have indicated that the risk of alcoholism is higher in people that have poor self-control or self-regulation. Individuals that have the ability to self-regulate are better able to recognise when behaviour is damaging and are able to change their behaviour or leave the destructive environment. An individual with poor or low self-regulation is more prone to obesity and other addictions. Furthermore, research has indicated that people with poor self-regulation often use alcohol consumption or other drugs (for instance, marijuana) as a form of self-medication. This type of behaviour tends to disguise the different types of psychological problems they might experience (Mogotsi, 2011). Social learning as explained above aims to only give a clear understanding of reasons why some students drink alcohol and why some students do not thus was not used as a theoretical framework.

2.9.6 Drinking to cope

An individual is at risk of becoming an alcoholic if they use alcohol as a coping mechanism. Social learning theory underpins the notion that a person at risk of becoming an alcoholic, often drinks to get away from day – to – day problems in order to briefly escape negative emotions (Mogotsi, 2011). There have been several studies conducted which support this theory. For example, one study found that 93% of the sample drank to escape their problems (Mogotsi, 2011; Pascall et al., 2007).

2.9.7 Alcohol expectancy

From the perspective of social learning theory an individual's belief about alcohol can influence their decision of whether to drink alcohol or not (Cooper & Russell, 1988; Wall et al., 2003). For example, if an individual has learned that drinking can help overcome a crisis and drinks every time he or she feels stressed then the individual is at risk of becoming an alcoholic. An individual's social environment is also likely to affect their beliefs about drinking. For example, a study conducted by Wall et al. (2003), found that when participants were asked to evaluate their beliefs about alcohol, the results changed significantly after the participants were drunk. Before drinking the participants made unfavourable remarks about alcohol but once they were intoxicated their view of alcohol was much more positive. The authors note that the study did have limitations but nevertheless concluded that it does support the idea that drinking is learned from interacting and observing people in a social context. A similar study conducted with women students in the USA found that women were more likely to drink alcohol if they joined a college fraternity because of the social expectations when pledging (LaBrie et al., 2007).

2.9.8 General coping skills

Coping skills are important if a social worker, health worker or psychologist wants to assess if an individual is at risk of alcoholism (as well as family background). It is important that individuals' learn appropriate coping strategies in order to deal with stressful events in everyday life. Some health workers have taught coping skills to individuals when they are actually drinking. In this case scenario, it appears that presenting negative images of alcohol while the individual is drinking helps when teaching positive coping skills in relation to lessening alcohol consumption (Monti et al., 1993; Dlamini et al., 2012). Other methods of increasing individual coping skills include teaching cognitive and behavioural skills and

social skills in order to increase positive self-regulation. These methods also help increase individual self-esteem which, in turn, helps them learn effective ways of managing stress and anxiety (Botvin, Schinke, Epstein, & Diaz, 1994; Ghuman et al., 2012).

2.10 International research pertaining to peer friendships and drinking

According to Wall, Thrussell and Lalonde (2003) alcoholism affects millions of individuals globally. The diagnosis of alcoholism is still more prevalent in males but females are drinking to the same extent in contemporary society and are also prone to alcoholism (often misdiagnosed as depression). Social learning theory suggests that alcohol drinking is a cognitive behaviour that individuals imitate from their peers and family members. Media influence which portrays alcohol as glamorous is also linked to overconsumption. Research studies however, do conclude that in some cases alcohol abuse can be reduced if an individual is taught positive coping skills.

The influence of peer or peer alcohol use on adolescent drinking has been widely reported (Borsari & Carey, 2003; Dishion & Owen, 2002; Henry, Oetting & Slater, 2009; Rawana & Ames, 2012; Simons-Morton, 2004). Evidence suggests that young people are more likely to drink frequently and drink to excess if they spend more than two evenings a week with friends or have friends who drink (Bremner et al., 2011; Goodman et al., 2011; Mogotsi, 2011; Higgins, McCann, McLaughlin, McCartan & Perra, 2013).

Dick et al. (2007), report that gender differences are apparent in alcohol consumption. Friends' drinking has been more strongly related to alcohol use in females, compared to males and in adolescents with opposite-sex friends, compared to adolescents with only same-sex friends. Peer relationships have been reported to have greater effects on drinking behaviour in female than in male adolescents (Smit, Pretorious & Joubert, 2009). Gaughan (2006), investigated best friend dyads, he reported that adolescents in same - sex friendships influenced one another equally; boys in mixed-sex best friendships had an influence over their female friends' drinking patterns while girls did not have any effect on their male friends drinking behaviour. Higgins et al. (2013), suggests that having norm breaking friends is predictive of alcohol use among young females and males. Perceived peer group drinking has also been demonstrated as a significant individual level predictor of drinking initiation (Stock et al., 2011) and increases in alcohol use as adolescents get older.

Simons-Morton, Chen, Abroms and Haynie (2004) reported that although the growth in the number of friends who drink and smoke was positively associated with adolescent drinking, parental involvement and monitoring over time, provided direct protective effects against drinking progression and indirect effects by limiting increases in the number of friends who drink. Furthermore, Bergh, Hagquist and Starrin (2011) found high levels of peer activity were associated with higher frequencies of alcohol use although the effects of relations with parents were modified by peer activity frequencies. High levels of parental monitoring were significantly associated with less frequency of alcohol use, regardless of peer activity frequency of alcohol use (Higgins et al., 2013).

2.11 South African research pertaining to peer friendships and drinking

Mogotsi (2011) reported that historically South Africa did not have reliable systems in place to facilitate the collection of data relating to substance use and abuse. To-date, much of the available information has come from ad hoc cross-sectional research studies often conducted in a single location and from information on police arrests. This has been supplemented by national surveys. Apart from the police arrest data, which is influenced by factors such as resources available and particular policing policies and initiatives, there has been no longitudinal information available on trends in alcohol and substance abuse. With regard to alcohol, the only national trend data available are: (a) information on adult, per capita annual absolute alcohol consumption from 1985 and b) information on the results of annual testing of alcohol levels among drivers and pedestrians from 1975.

Morojele, Ziervogel, Parry and Robertson (1997) in a study of adolescents in Cape Town found that 39% of males and 18% of females in a school in a predominately middle class white community engaged in binge drinking at least once during the past 14 days as compared to 26% of males and 25% of females in a middle class, predominately Coloured community, and 36% of males and 4% of females in a less middle-class, predominately African community. In all three of the schools peer relationships, attitudes towards binge drinking and perceptions of control around binge drinking were found to be significant and independent predictors of binge drinking intentions.

Mogotsi (2011), in a study conducted at a previously disadvantaged university in South Africa, concluded that her results were similar to other results in the field which indicate that that students are likely to abuse alcohol which leads to problems with academic work and social relationships. Furthermore, she concluded that males and females have very similar

drinking patterns and females tend to consume as much alcohol as males. The study assumptions, which were linked to students experiencing social and academic problems, having incomplete knowledge about the risks individuals take when drinking alcohol, were upheld. Qualitative results concluded that although some of the sample was aware that alcohol drinking is problematic they still drank because of peer group influence.

2.12 Summary

The literature review gave an overview of research relevant to the topic. This included aspects of peer friendships, beliefs about alcohol, religiosity and family dynamics with regard to alcohol use. Activities that are believed to influence drinking amongst peers such as drinking games were explored and literature pertaining to social learning theory was presented as it explains why some behaviours lead to alcohol consumption. Lastly international and South African studies pertaining to alcohol consumption and peer group influence was presented. The following chapter gives the theoretical framework for the study.

CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY

3.1 Introduction

Protection Motivation Theory (PMT) is used as a framework for the current study. The central principle of the theory is that people protect themselves based on their perceptions of four factors: 1) the severity of a threatening event; 2) the probability of the occurrence of threat; 3) the effectiveness of the recommended preventive behaviour and 4) self-efficacy in reference to the ability to adapt the behaviour. Thus, PMT includes both threat and coping appraisals, making it particularly useful to explain why people engage in unhealthy behaviours, such as drinking, despite the well-known health risks.

3.2 Operational definitions for the study

- **Intimate friendship**

  Intimate friendship is defined according to this study as a very close friendship (best friend) with whom an individual can communicate with, and confide in, about feelings and personal problems (Caldwell & Peplau, 1982).

- **Peer group/s**

  Peer group is defined in this study as a group of people who, through homophily, share similarities such as age, background, educational level and social status (Jacob & Leonard, 1994).

- **Peer friendship/s**

  The term peer friendship in this study is defined as private unrestricted relationships typically shaped by personal norms (Elliot & Dweck, 2005)

- **Homophily**

  In the current study is defined as the tendency of individuals to associate and bond with others who share certain similarities and/or activities (McPherson, Smith-lovin & Cook, 2001).

- **Binge drinking**

  The National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism (2004) defines binge drinking as a pattern of drinking that brings a person's blood alcohol concentration to 0.08 grams percent, or above, in a short period of time. In South Africa the accepted drinking limit is 14 standard drinks per week or 4 drinks (glasses) per day. In binge

drinking an individual can drink this amount of alcohol (or more) in one night. Binge drinking is thus defined in terms of this study as an individual, who according to McAlaney and McMahon's (2007) definition of binge drinking is when an individual consumes five or more alcoholic drinks (which could be spirits in a glass or bottles/cans of beer) in one session, in a period of less than 2 hours. This is the definition adopted by the study.

3.3 Protection Motivation Theory (PMT)

The original version of PMT (Rogers, 1975) grew out of research on fear appraisal. Fear appraisal (or appeal) is an informative communication about a threat to an individual's well-being. Along with details of the threat itself, the communication suggests measures that can be taken to avoid it, or to reduce its impact. For example, a fear appraisal could be a health-education pamphlet outlining the threat of breast cancer with a recommendation to perform breast self-examination as a means to detect the cancer early, thereby reducing its potential impact. A central issue in fear-appraisal research is establishing the way in which a fear-arousing communication can change attitudes and, subsequently, change behaviour.

Rogers introduced PMT in order to address this difficulty. It was originally developed in an attempt to provide conceptual clarity in the area of fear appraisals and to bridge the gap between research on fear appraisals and research on attitude change. Protection Motivation Theory (PMT) was designed to specify and operationalise the components of a fear appeal in order to determine the common variables that produced attitude change. It was assumed that each component of a fear appeal would initiate a corresponding cognitive mediating process. These processes would, in turn, influence protection motivation, in the form of an intention to adopt the recommended behaviour contained within the fear appeal. Protection motivation was said to be an intervening variable that arouses, sustains and directs activity..

Two additional constructs were incorporated in a later revision of PMT: a) rewards associated with maladaptive responses (for instance, smoking and relaxation) and b) costs associated with adaptive responses (for instance, non-smoking and gaining weight). Rogers (1983) added the two variables and redefined PMT as an attitude-based model (in which attitudes are the product of outcome expectations and evaluations of those outcomes).

The PMT consists of two related pathways: 1) Threat Appraisal, assessing the maladaptive behaviours (for example behaviours that lead an individual toward a health risk behaviours and/or to noxious consequences) and, 2) Coping Appraisal, assessing the ability to manage and avoid the threatened danger described by threat appraisal. The threat appraisal pathway consists of four constructs in two groups, Perceived Threat and Perceived Rewards. Perceived Threat consists of two constructs, Severity and Vulnerability. Severity assesses the perceived negative consequences from risk behaviour, and Vulnerability assesses the perceived likelihood of the individual being affected by potential negative consequences. Perceived Rewards also includes two constructs, Intrinsic Rewards and Extrinsic Rewards. Intrinsic Rewards assesses the perceived positive physical and psychological effect from engaging in a risk behaviour, and Extrinsic Rewards assesses the perceived positive social reactions or consequences of engaging in the risk behaviour. Overall, perception of a greater threat will decrease the probability of selecting and engaging in a maladaptive behaviour, whereas perception of a greater reward will increase the probability of selecting a maladaptive behaviour (MacDonell, Chen, Yan, Li & Gong, 2013).

The PMT Coping Appraisal Pathway consists of three constructs in two groups Perceived Efficacy and Perceived Costs. Perceived Efficacy consists of two constructs, Self-Efficacy and Response Efficacy. Self- Efficacy assesses the perceived ability to adapt a protective behaviour, while Response Efficacy assesses the effectiveness of the protective behaviour in lessening the health threat. Perceived Costs consists of one construct, Response Costs, which measures the perceived social, monetary, personal, time and effort costs from adapting the protective behaviour. Increases in Perceived Efficacy and declines in Perceived Costs will decrease the likelihood of selecting maladaptive risk behaviour (MacDonell et al., 2013).

The Protection Motivation Theory (PMT) was thus considered a useful framework with which to guide the study and report the research results. The four components of the Protection Motivation Theory which will be used in the study are as follows and are adapted from Rogers (1975) by Monat and Lazarus (1991).

- Pre – contemplation – people enter a stage when change is not really considered in a serious manner.
- Contemplation – people become aware of the benefits of change.
- Preparation – individuals begin to make changes towards a better lifestyle.
- Action – direct action is taken in terms of what is perceived as a positive change.

The PMT suggests that individuals protect themselves based on four factors: the perceived severity of a threatening event, the perceived probability of the occurrence or the individual's vulnerability to it, the usefulness of the recommended preventive behaviour, and an individual's perceived self-efficacy or self-confidence. In terms of the PMT a threat appraisal assesses the severity of a situation and examines how serious the situation is. Coping appraisal is how the individual responds to any given situation (MacDonell et al., 2013).

The PMT is thus a theoretical model which, in research, is used to explain why people engage in behaviours that are not good or healthy for them. It revolves around the individual's expectancy that carrying out recommendations or a specific course of action (for instance, not drinking alcohol because it causes liver damage and/or individuals under the influence of alcohol are more likely to indulge in risk taking behaviours), can remove the threat. Self-efficacy or self-confidence, which is also a component of the theory, is the belief an individual has, in his or her ability to execute a recommended course of action successfully (MacDonell et al., 2013).

3.4 The use of Protection Motivation Theory (PMT) in previous research

The PMT has been widely used as a framework for researchers to investigate and understand a range of health-related behaviours. As a theoretical guide, the PMT has been used in aetiological studies to investigate various risk and protective behaviours, including tobacco use, alcohol consumption, physical activity, self-care, safe and protective behaviours at the workplace and protective parental behaviours. As a conceptual framework, the PMT has been utilized in intervention research to develop and evaluate programmes for positive behaviour change, including interventions to promote adherence to medical treatment, to prevent and evaluate various types of alcohol and other substance abuse and, as a framework for research in sexually transmitted disease risk behaviours and various types of substance abuse (MacDonell et al., 2013; Mogotsi, 2011; Monat & Lazarus, 1991)

Although originally conceived to explain health related behaviours, the PMT has been applied to wide range of protective behaviours, including earthquake protection (Asgary & Willis, 1997; Palm, 1995) and traffic safety (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998). A previous exploratory study demonstrated its applicability to significant predictors of virus protection adoption behaviour (MacDonell, Chen, Yan, Li & Gong, 2013).

A meta-analysis of PMT literature conducted by Milne, Sheeran, and Orbell (2000) found that self-efficacy was the variable that was most often associated with significant intention to enact a specific behaviour, with a medium effect size (r+ = .33).   They also analyzed cognition change after experimental manipulation of a variety of PMT variables.   Self-efficacy had, again, a medium effect (r+ = .32). The authors reported that experimental manipulations appear to be more successful than health-education interventions in changing threat - and coping-appraisal cognitions (Milne, Sheeran & Orbell, 2000).

3.5 Summary

The chapter presented Protection Motivation Theory as a framework for the study. The following chapter discusses the research methodology used to conduct the investigation.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the research methodology used in the study. The discussion in the chapter was structured around the research design, population under analysis, sample for the investigation, data collection and data analysis. Ethical considerations are also discussed.

4.2 Research design

The research approach for this study was quantitative in nature. It utilised a cross - sectional survey design.

4.2.1 Area where the study took place

The study was conducted at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop Campus). The University is situated at Mankweng, about 40 km East of Polokwane.

4.2.2 Description of the population

The population included in the study was all second year students registered at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop campus). It was expected that second year students would have cemented friendships thus any peer-influence would be evident.

4.2.3 Description of the Sample

The sample consisted of all second year undergraduate students registered in the Department of Psychology, as this provided a convenient and easy to access sample. This is because fewer resources were required and access was easier to obtain than if all departments, faculties and schools at the university were sampled.

4.2.3.1 Inclusion criteria
All registered second year students in the Department of Psychology.

4.2.3.2 Exclusion criteria

The sample consisted only of second year students in the Department of Psychology, those registered at first and third year level or postgraduates were excluded.

4.3 Sampling

Convenience sampling was used in the current study. This is a sampling method used in quantitative research to select people because of their availability, or easy access, particularly when there is no access to funding and other resources (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). The population of second year students at the university, at the time the research took place, was more than 3000 and was not readily accessible to the researcher. As a result of this a convenience sample of second year psychology students was decided upon as, the number was more manageable and accessible to the researcher. According to the school administrator (Personal communication Mr. Kekana, School of Social Sciences administrator, July 2013) the Department of Psychology had 400 registered second year students. A sampling frame from Krejcie and Morgan (1970) was used to determine the sample size, which is the number of participants for the current study. Krejcie and Morgan (1970), developed an efficient, convenient and standardized method of determining the sample size needed to be representative of a given population with no calculations needed in a form of a sampling frame with a standard error = .05 hence it was used in the study. According to the sampling table the number of participants necessary for the study was 196 (see appendix 1).

4.4 Data collection

The current study employed questionnaires and scales as a means of collecting data. A self-report survey was used to collect the data for the investigation (see appendix 3).

The researcher visited the second year psychology class with permission from the second year coordinator and lecturer of the module at the time. The researcher explained that participation in the research was voluntary. Attached to each survey protocol was a covering letter (see appendix 2). The survey questionnaires were handed out to the first 196 students in the class who agreed to participate. Participating students were asked to complete the surveys and then hand them back to the researcher. To ensure equal representation of both genders the researcher informed the students that she wanted an equal number of males and females to participate in the study. To do this researcher put the questionnaires into two equal piles and handed them out to males and females respectively. Instructions on how to complete the questionnaire appeared on the first page of each protocol. The researcher also told the participants what the research was about and why it was important. Participants were referred to the covering letter and ethics forms if they required further information.

4.4.1 Data collection tools

The survey consisted of four sections. The first was a brief demographic questions followed by three standardized scales. The scales were used in order to determine whether friendship factors motivate peers to drink and if these factors do, in fact, affect the drinking patterns of the participants.

4.4.2 The Intimate Friendship Scale (IFS, Sharabany, 1974)

Sharabany (1974) developed the Intimate Friendship Scale (IFS) which measures the quantity and quality of dimensions that define friendship. The IFS has thirty-two items assessing eight subscales: Frankness and Spontaneity (items 2, 8, 11, and 18), Sensitivity and Knowing (items 9, 10, 23, and 24), Attachment (items 4, 21, 30, and 32), Exclusiveness (items 1, 3, 14, and 27), Giving and Sharing (items 12, 20, 26, and 29), Imposition (items15, 17, 26, and 31), Common Activities (items 7, 13, 19, and 22), and Trust and Loyalty (items 5, 6, 16, and 25). These questions were derived from three sources: a definition of friendship, sociological studies on social distance and relevant psychoanalytical literature. Respondents are required to rate items on a 5-pt Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". According to Sharabany (1974) reliability has been demonstrated, in several studies, by reporting alpha coefficients for each of the four items on each subscale. These values ranged from .72 to .77 for each subscale and show internal consistency acceptable for a survey questionnaire. In addition, Sharabany (1974) calculated inter-cluster correlations, the results of which indicated that the scale is not just measuring one aspect of friendship, but several distinct facets.

4.4.3 Drinking Patterns Questionnaire abbreviated (Allgood, 2008)

The Drinking Patterns Questionnaire (DPQA) is a self-report instrument designed to identify high-risk (HR) drinking situations. In a study carried out by Allgood (2008) the internal consistency of the whole scale was acceptable for a survey questionnaire (.72 to .74 Cronbach alpha). Drinking patterns among friends will be specifically measured with two questions on the scale. The first, "During the past three months, how often have you been in contact with your friend?" This was be used so that the researcher can examine if contact with a friend is a concomitant of alcohol use during contact. The second question, "During the past month, on how many occasions did you and your friend consume alcohol (for instance, beer, wine or

hard liquor) together," specifically addresses the question of contact between friends which involves alcohol use.

4.4.4 Drinking Motives Questionnaire (Cooper, 1994)

The Drinking Motives Questionnaire, measures the motives of alcohol drinking among participants (Cooper, 1994). This scale consists of 20 self-administered items that has four factors namely, social, coping, enhancement, and conformity to peer pressure (MacLean & Lecci, 2000). There are five items associated with each factor. Participants indicate how often that they drink alcohol for each reason using a scale from 1 (never) to 6 (almost always). This assists in indicating the variance of particular behaviours between individuals. The Drinking Motives Questionnaire thus breaks alcohol use down into four motivational components.

- Drinking to cope with negative affect.

- Drinking to enhance positive affect.

- Drinking to be sociable.

- Drinking to conform to a group.

This questionnaire was developed in an effort to better understand motivations for alcohol use. It was therefore included in the current study to help determine the underlying motivations of alcohol drinking amongst peer friendships. In previous studies internal consistency of the scale was established with a mean reliability coefficient of 0.87 within a range of 0.81-0.92 (MacLean & Lecci, 2000). Test-retest reliability was also established and found to be stable across gender, race and age (Cooper, 1994).

4.5 Data analysis

Descriptive statistics was used to give a broad picture of the data. Frequency distributions were used to reflect the frequencies, percentages and percentiles of the sample demographics (between genders) as well as figures. The chi-square test was used to test for the association between two nominal variables (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).Essentially, the chi-square test will be used to see if there is a significant difference between the male and female groups with reference to friendships and peer influence pertaining to drinking alcohol.

4.6 Research propositions

- Second year male psychology students who drink alcohol at the University Of Limpopo (Turfloop Campus) are more likely to have a best friend who shares common activities and similar drinking patterns than females.
- There is an association between peer relationships and alcohol consumption at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop campus) amongst second year psychology students.
- Males are more likely to drink alcohol with their friends than females.

4.7 Reliability and Validity

Reliability is the degree to which the indicator or test is a consistent measure over time, or if the respondent gives the same response if asked to give an answer at a different time or place (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2005). The questionnaires are standardised and reliable as discussed under (4.4.2, 4.4.3 and 4.4.4). Validity in surveys is the extent to which the questions provide a true measure of what they are designed to measure. The scales are standardised and validated thus they measure what they are designed to measure (Allgood, 2008; Cooper, 1994; Sharabany, 1974).

4.8 Bias

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001) bias refers to results being misrepresented in a particular direction. A standardized measure is used to ensure that there are no ambiguous or badly defined questions. Other threats to reliability and validity occur through administrator bias when for instance, a researcher gives clues to how he or she would like a question answered. Awareness and insight into this fact lends objectivity to the process. Response bias is more pronounced with self-completed questionnaires since non-response is not a random process. This is partially controlled as, although the questionnaire is self-report in nature, respondents were asked to fill in the during a lecture period which is likely to improve response rates. The response rate should ideally be around 65%.

4.9 Ethical considerations

The research was informed by the ethical guidelines of the Discipline of Psychology as laid down by the Health Professions Council of South Africa (Psychology Board). In terms of informed consent respondents were informed about purpose of the study by a covering letter attached to the survey (see appendix 2). The names and identity of the respondents were not required on the survey as it was self-report in nature. However, respondents signed a consent form which only the researcher and supervisor had access to. They will remain anonymous in order to comply with the requirement of confidentiality. The researcher did not deceive the participants and she explained the true nature of the study honestly and explained any risks to the participants. The researcher also informed the respondents that there were no material benefits to be gained by participating in the study. Students were also informed that participation was voluntary, so they could decide if they want to fill in the survey questionnaire and return it, or not. Respondents that approached the researcher or supervisor, after filling in the questionnaire, because they felt they need help were be referred to appropriate professionals available at the campus. An ethical consent form was also filled in (see appendix 4).

4.10 Summary

The research design for the study was explained in the chapter as was the sampling method, data collection and modes of data analysis. The following chapter presents the survey results with a brief analysis thereof.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents analysis of data with a brief interpretation. The aim of the study was to investigate the influence of peer friendships on the consumption of alcohol amongst second year psychology students at University of Limpopo (Turfloop campus). Data were analysed using frequency distributions, tables and bar graphs (presented as figures) and, on appropriate data, the chi square test. Demographics are presented first in order to provide background information about the sample. Section B reports data from the Intimate Friendship Scale (Sharabany, 1974), section C reports data from the Drinking Patterns Questionnaire (Allgood, 2008) and section D reports data from the Drinking Motives questionnaire (Cooper, 1994).

5.2 Non-response to survey questionnaires

This research had a sample of 196 respondents. One hundred and eighty one (181) respondents returned the completed questionnaires. The return rate was thus 92.34% which is an above average return rate. This is probably because the researcher handed out the questionnaires and waited for participants to return them (the attrition rate was thus 7.65%).

5.3 Questionnaire - Section A: Demographics

Section A is demographic in nature and asked participants their sex (gender), age and religion. The results are presented below in a form of frequency tables and figures (bar charts).

Frequency table 1: <u>Sex</u>

Value	Frequency	Percentage %
Male	111	61
Female	70	39
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 1: <u>Sex</u>

Barchart for SEX
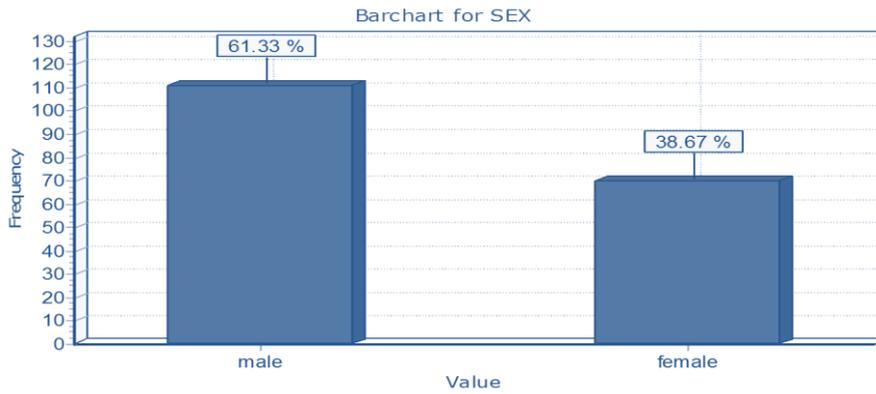
Frequency table 1 and figure 1 indicate that 61 % of the respondents were males and 39% of the respondents were females.

Frequency table 2: <u>Age</u>

Value	Frequency	Percent%
18	2	1.10
19	8	4.42
20	38	21
21	41	23
22	30	17
23	30	17
Other	32	18
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 2: <u>Age</u>
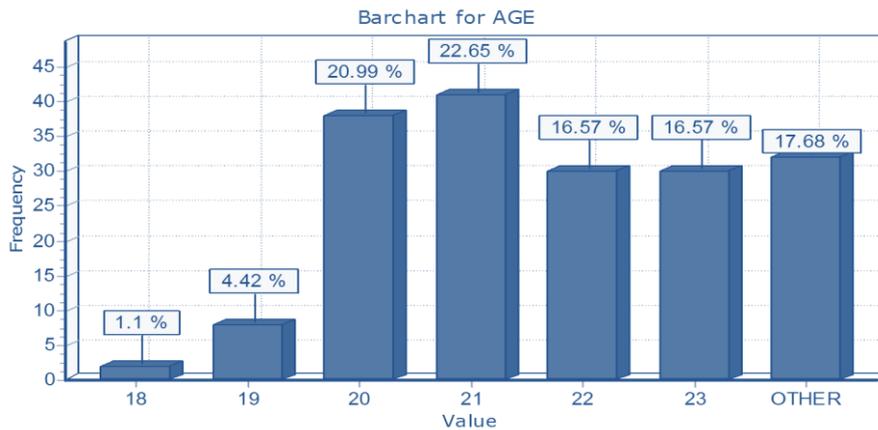
Frequency table 2 and figure 2 indicate that 1% of respondents were 18 years old, 4% -19 years old, 21% - 20 years old, 23% - 21 years old, 17% - 22 years old , l7% - 23 years old and 18% were aged 24 years and older. Standard Deviation (SD) = 4.32.

Frequency table 3: <u>Religion</u>

Value	Frequency	Percent%
Christian	140	77
Rastafarians	6	3
Africanism	10	6
Buddhism	1	0.6
None	21	12
Other	3	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 3: <u>Religion</u>
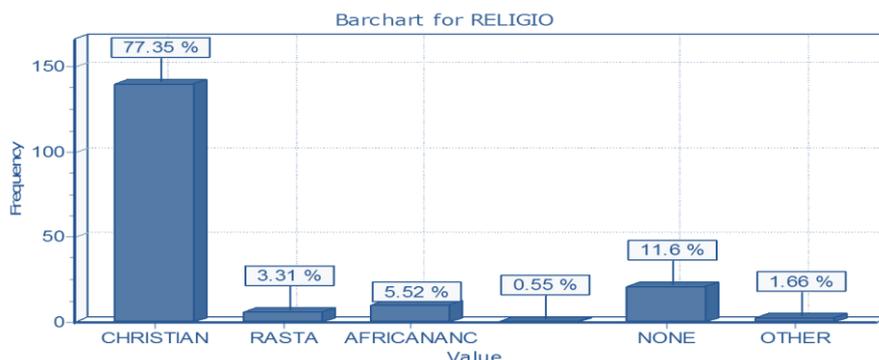
Frequency table 3 and figure 3 for religion indicates that 77% of respondents were Christians, 3% were Rastafarians, 6% were Africanists (they believe in ancestral rituals), 0.55% were Buddhists, while 12% of respondents reported to not having any religious affiliation and 2% of respondents reported to having other (not specified) forms of religion.

5.4 Questionnaire – Section B: Intimate Friendship Scale (Sharabany, 1974)

Section B reports data from the Intimate Friendship Scale (IFS) which sought to measure the quantity and quality of dimensions that define friendship, has thirty-two items assessing eight subscales: Frankness and Spontaneity (items 2, 8, 11, and 18), Sensitivity and Knowing (items 9, 10, 23, and 24), Attachment (items 4, 21, 30, and 32), Exclusiveness (items 1, 3, 14, and 27), Giving and Sharing (items 12, 20, 26, and 29), Imposition (items 15, 17, 26, and 31), Common Activities (items 7, 13, 19, and 22), and Trust and Loyalty (items 5, 6, 16, and 25). These questions were derived from three sources: a definition of friendship, sociological studies on social distance and relevant psychoanalytical literature. Respondents are required to rate items on a 5-pt Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The results are presented below in a tabular format and the responses to each question are presented as percentages for both the male and female groups, in frequency tables and cross tabulations charts. Chi square results are also presented. It must be noted that the chi-square results are accommodated by the statistical programme in terms of the averages from each group (in this case male and female participants) thus the figures indicating the number of responses may be misleading as statistical significance is arrived at through a calculation of different group averages not the number of responses.

Frequency table 4: <u>I stay with my friend when my friend wants to do something that other people don't want to do</u>

I stay with my friend when my friend wants to do something that other people don't want to do	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly Agree	24	13
Agree	35	19
Neutral	61	34
Disagree	30	17
Strongly Disagree	31	17
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 4: <u>I stay with my friend when my friend wants to do something that other people don't want to do</u>
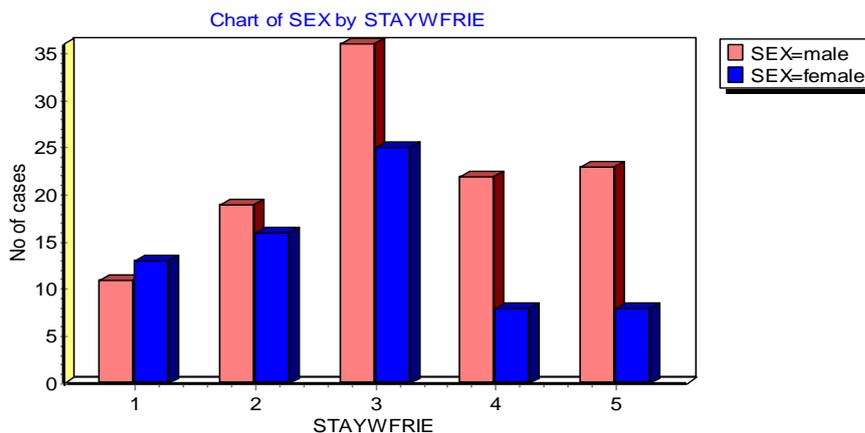
Frequency table 4 and figure 4 indicate that 13% of participants strongly agree that they can stay with their friends when they want to do something that other people don't want to do, 19% participants agree, 34% participants were neutral while 17% of participants disagree and 17% strongly disagree. The chi-square test results indicate if there is any relationship between two categorical variables, in this case males and females. Here the probability value (p) is larger than 0.05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=7.29; df=4; p=0.122 suggests that both males and females are likely to stay with their friends when they want to do something that other people don't want to do.

Frequency table 5: <u>I feel free to talk to my friend about almost anything</u>

I feel free to talk to my friend about almost anything	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	70	37
Agree	56	4
Neutral	34	19
Disagree	12	7
Strongly disagree	9	5
Total	181	100.00

Figure 5: <u>I feel free to talk to my friend about almost anything</u>
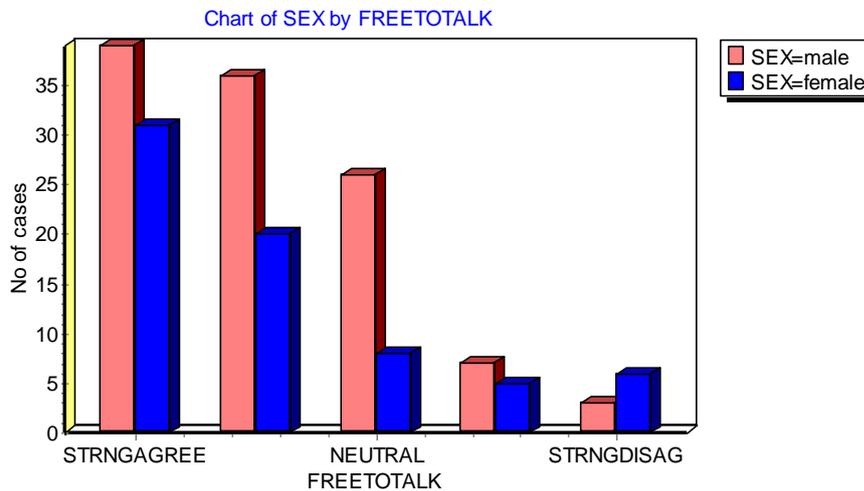
Frequency table 5 and figure 5 indicate that 39% of the participants strongly agree that they feel free to talk about almost anything with their friends, 4% of participants agree while 19% of participants were neutral, 7% of participants disagree with the statement and 4% participants strongly disagree. The chi-square test results indicate if there is any relationship between two categorical variables, in this case males and females. Here the probability value (p) is larger than 0.05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square =7.44; df=4; p=0.114 suggests that both males and females feel free to talk to their friends about almost anything.

Frequency table 6: The most exciting things happen when I am with my friend and nobody else is around

The most exciting things happen when I am with my friend and nobody else is around.	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	40	22
Agree	75	41
Neutral	35	19
Disagree	17	9
Strongly disagree	14	8
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 6: The most exciting things happen when I am with my friend and nobody else is around
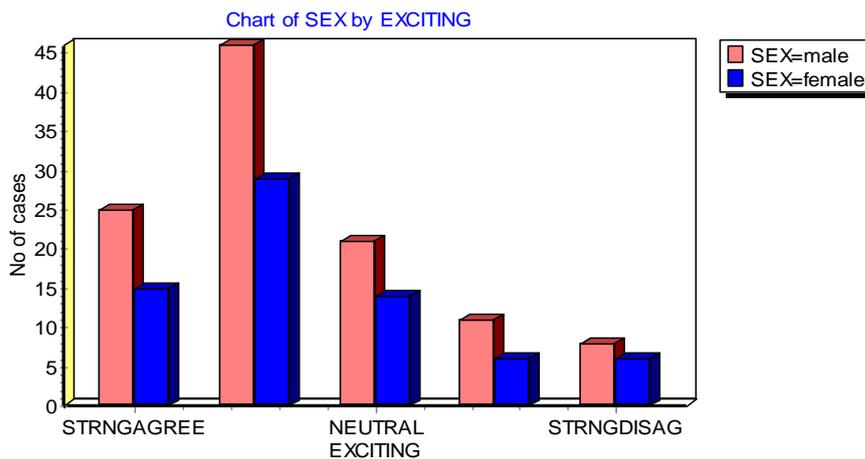
The results for frequency table 6 and figure 6 indicate that 22% of participants strongly agree with this statement and 41% participants agree while 19% of the participants were neutral, 9% of the participants disagree with the statement and 8% strongly disagree. The chi-square test results indicate if there is any relationship between two categorical variables, in this case males and females. Here the probability value (p) is larger than 0.05 (marked effects significant if $p \leq .05$). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square $=0.23$; df=4; p=0.994 suggests that both males and females find that the most exciting things happen when they are with their friends and nobody else is around.

Frequency table 7: I feel close to my friend

I feel close to my friend.	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	55	30
Agree	73	40
Neutral	39	22
Disagree	7	4
Strongly disagree	7	4
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 7: I feel close to my friend
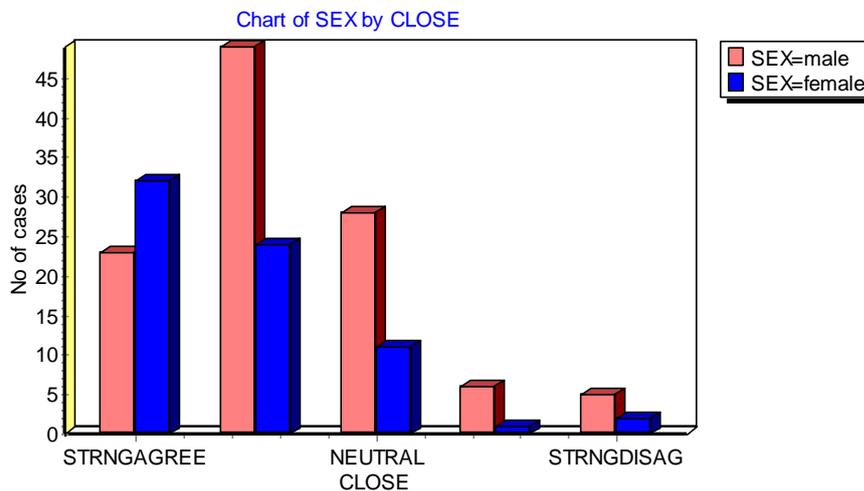
Frequency table number 7 and figure 7 results show that 30% of participants strongly agree to feeling close to their friends and 40% agrees while 22% of participants were neutral to this statement and those participants that disagree with the statement is the same as those participants that strongly disagree in percentage which is 4%. Here the probability value (p) is smaller than 0.05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square =13.72; df=4; p=0.008. The trend is in this instance, that females feel closer to their friends than males.

Frequency table 8: <u>I know that whatever I tell my friend will be kept secret between us</u>

I know that whatever I tell my friend will be kept secret between us.	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	41	23
Agree	56	31
Neutral	54	30
Disagree	18	10
Strongly disagree	12	7
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 8: <u>I know that whatever I tell my friend will be kept secret between us</u>
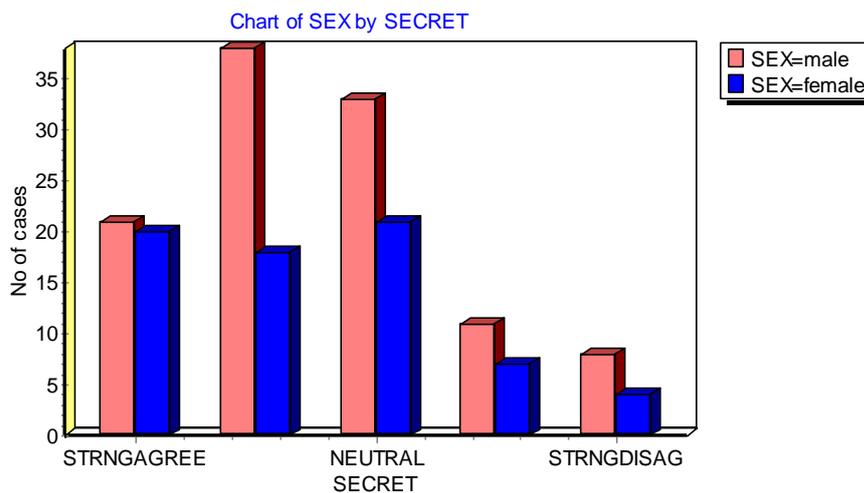
The results of frequency table number 8 and figure 8 reveal that 27% of participants strongly agree that they know that whatever they tell their friends tell them in secret will be kept secret, 31% of participants agree with the statement while 29% of participants were neutral and 10% of participants disagree while 7% of participants strongly disagree. Here the probability value (p) is larger than 0.05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square =2.92; df=4; p=0.572 suggests that both males and females know that they can tell their friends secrets and that the secrets will be kept between them.

Frequency table 9: I tell people nice things about my friend

I tell people nice things about my friend	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	55	30
Agree	75	41
Neutral	41	23
Disagree	5	3
Strongly disagree	5	3
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 9: I tell people nice things about my friend
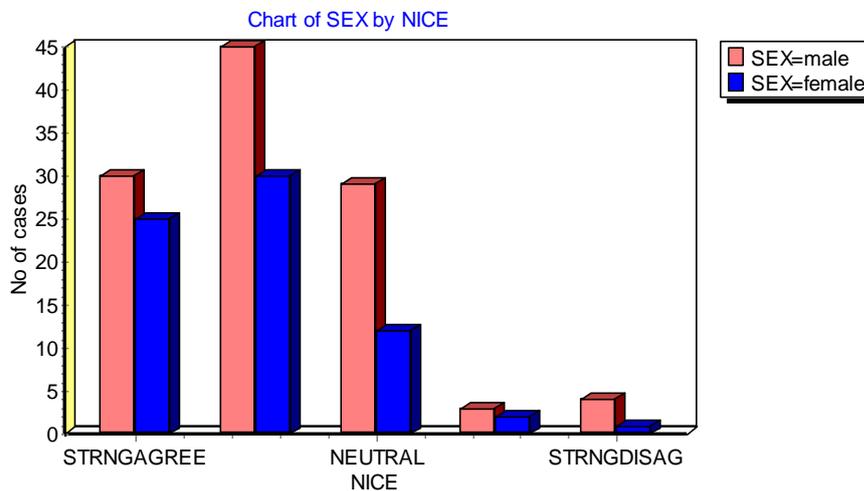
Frequency table number 9 and figure 9 indicate that 30% of participants strongly agree with the statement, 41% participants agree while 23% of participants were neutral with this statement and 3% participants disagree with the statement and 3% participants strongly disagree. Here the probability value (p) is larger than 0.05 (marked effects significant if $p \leq .05$). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square =3.39; df=4; p=0.495 suggests that both males and females know that they can tell their friends secrets and that the secrets will be kept between them. Although the chi square is not significant it appears that males are more likely to say nice things about their friends as it is approaching significance.

Frequency table 10: <u>Whenever you see me, you can be pretty sure that my friend is around too.</u>

Whenever you see me, you can be pretty sure that my friend is around too.	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	39	22
Agree	60	33
Neutral	47	26
Disagree	25	14
Strongly disagree	10	6
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 10: <u>Whenever you see me, you can be pretty sure that my friend is around too.</u>

Chart of SEX by WHENEVER
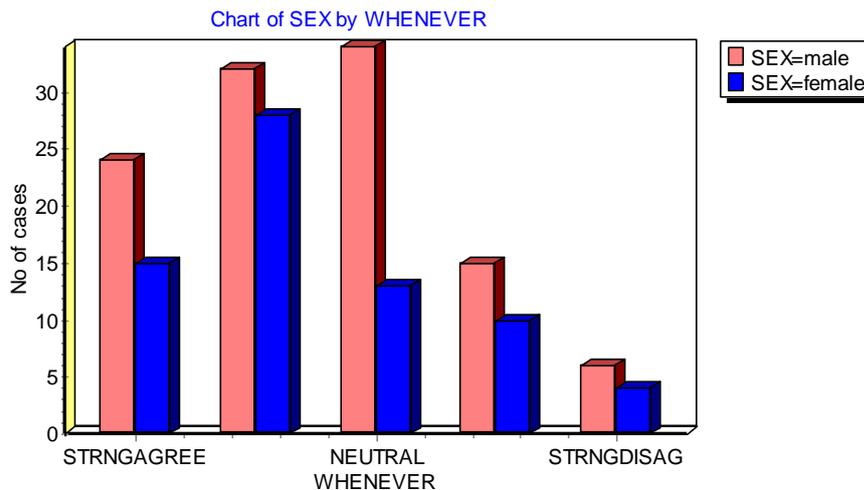
Frequency table number 10 and figure 10 indicate that 22% of participants strongly agree with the statement, 33% of participants agree while 26% were neutral and 14% of participants disagree and 6% strongly disagree with the statement. Here the probability value (p) is larger than 0.05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square =4.05; df=4; p=0.400 suggests that both males and females know that whenever they are seen it is pretty certain their friend is around as well.

Frequency table 11: <u>If my friend does something I don't like, I can always talk to him/ her about it</u>

If my friend does something I don't like, I can always talk to him/ her about it	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	66	36
Agree	76	42
Neutral	26	14
Disagree	7	4
Strongly disagree	6	4
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 11: <u>If my friend does something I don't like, I can always talk to him/ her about it</u>
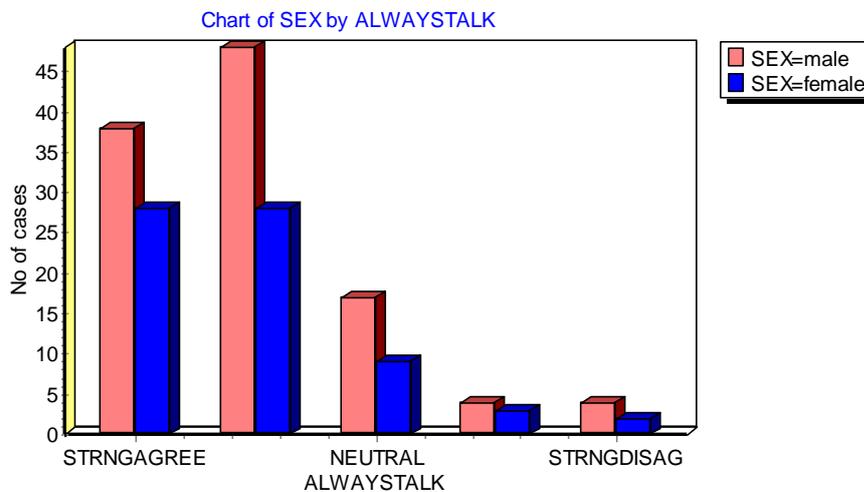
Frequency table 11 and figure 11 indicate that 37% of participants strongly agree that they are able to tell their friends if they have done something they don't like, 42% participants agree, 14% of participants were neutral, 4% of participants disagree while 3% of participants strongly disagree with the statement. Here the probability value (p) is larger than 0.05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square =0.80; df=4; p=0.938 suggests that both males and females are able to tell their friends if they do something they don't like.

Frequency table 12: <u>I know how my friend feels about his/her girlfriend/boyfriend</u>

I know how my friend feels about his/her girlfriend/boyfriend	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	46	25
Agree	76	42
Neutral	42	23
Disagree	13	7
Strongly disagree	4	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 12: <u>I know how my friend feels about his/her girlfriend/boyfriend</u>
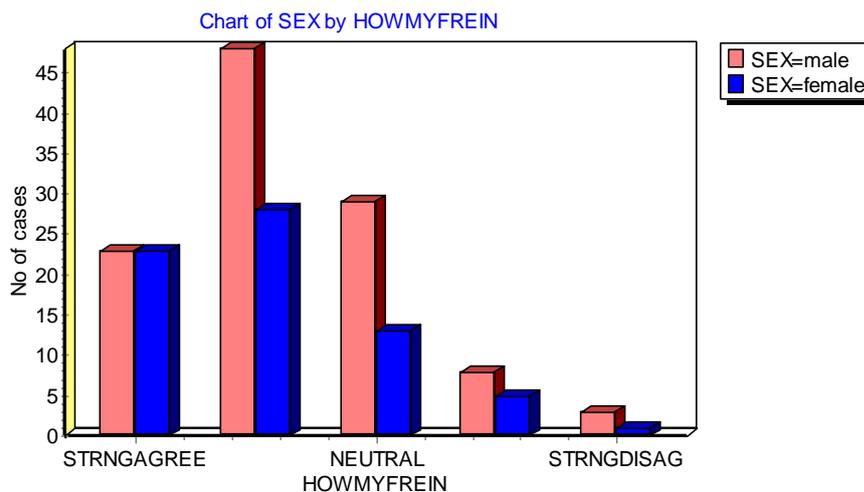
Frequency table 12 and figure 12 indicate that 25% of participants strongly agree with the statement, 42% participants agree while 23% of participants were neutral to the statement and 7% of participants disagree with the statement and 2% of participants strongly disagree that they know how their feel about their friends girlfriends or boyfriends. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square =3.97; df=4; p=0.410 suggests that both males and females know how their friends feel about their boyfriends or girlfriends.

Frequency table 13: I can tell when my friend is worried about something

I can tell when my friend is worried about something	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	57	31
Agree	84	46
Neutral	31	17
Disagree	7	4
Strongly disagree	2	1
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 13: I can tell when my friend is worried about something
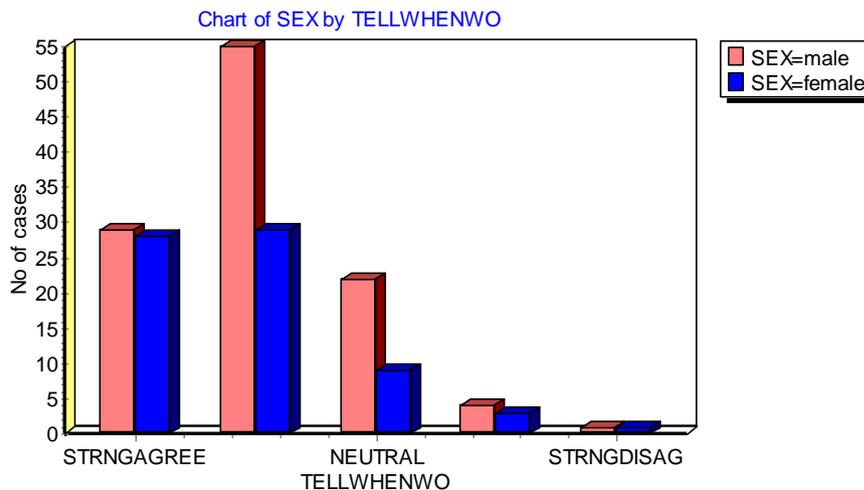
The results from frequency table 13 and figure 13 reveal that 31% of participants strongly agree with the statement, 46% agree while 17% of participants were neutral and 4% participants disagree and 1% strongly disagrees with the statement. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square =4.61 df=4; p=0.330 suggests that both males and females, when they are worried, can tell their friends about it.

Frequency table 14: <u>I can tell my friend when I have done things that other people do not approve of</u>

I can tell my friend when I have done things that other people do not approve of	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	37	20
Agree	83	46
Neutral	39	22
Disagree	18	10
Strongly disagree	4	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 14: <u>I can tell my friend when I have done things that other people do not approve of</u>
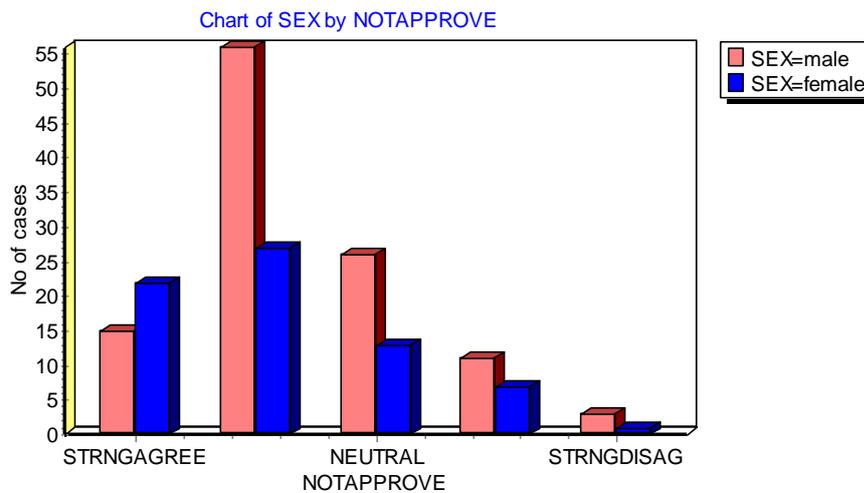
Frequency table 14 and figure 14 indicate that 20% participants strongly agree with the statement, 46% participants agree while 22% participants were neutral and 10% participants disagree and 2% participants strongly disagree. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square =8.85 df=4; p=0.065 suggests that both males and females can tell their friends when they have done things that other people would not approve of.

Frequency table 15: <u>If my friend wants something, I let him/her have it, even if I want it too (as well)</u>

If my friend wants something, I let him/her have it, even if I want it too (as well)	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	21	12
Agree	54	30
Neutral	66	36
Disagree	28	15
Strongly disagree	12	7
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 15: <u>If my friend wants something, I let him/her have it, even if I want it too (as well)</u>
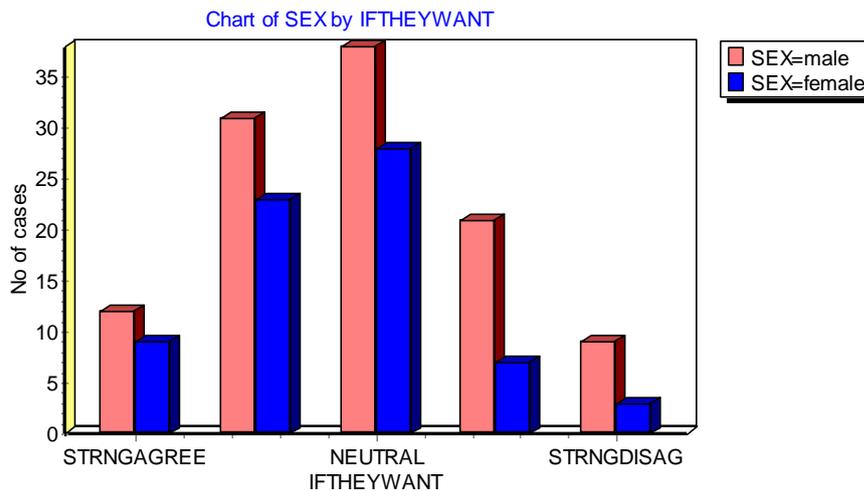
Frequency table number 15 and figure 15 indicate that 12% participants strongly agree that if their friend want something, they let him/her have it even if they want it too (as well), 30% participants agree, 37% participants were neutral with the statement while 16% disagrees and 7% participants strongly disagree with the statement. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square =4.05 df=4; p=0.399 suggests that both males and females will let their friends have something even if they want it as well.

Frequency table 16: <u>I work with my friend on some university or work projects</u>

I work with my friend on some school or work projects.	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	50	28
Agree	68	38
Neutral	37	20
Disagree	20	11
Strongly disagree	6	3
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 16: <u>I work with my friend on some school or work projects</u>
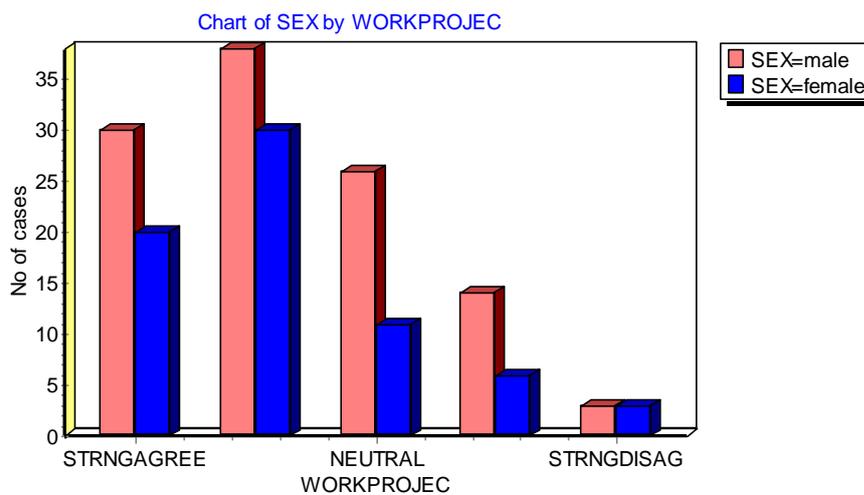
Frequency table 16 and figure 16 indicates that 28% participants strongly agree that they work with their friends on some school or work projects, 38% participants agree, 20% participants were neutral and 11% participants disagrees and 3% strongly disagrees with the statement. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 3.09 df=4; p=0.542 suggests that both males and females work on university or school projects together.

Frequency table 17: <u>I do things with my friends that are quite different than what other people might do</u>

I do things with my friends that are quite different than what other people might do	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	30	17
Agree	69	38
Neutral	46	25
Disagree	25	14
Strongly disagree	11	6
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 17: <u>I do things with my friends that are quite different than what other people might do</u>
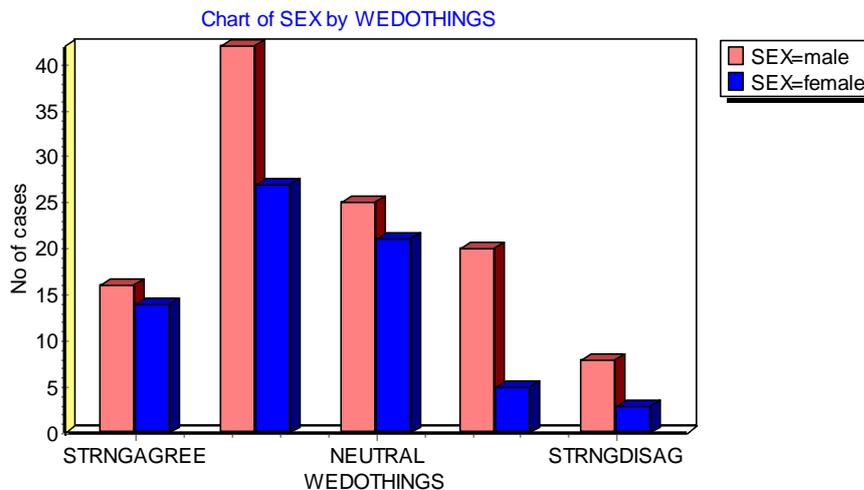
Frequency table 17 and figure 17 shows that 17% participants strongly agree that they do things with their friends that are quite different than what other people might do, 38% participants agree while 25% were neutral and 14% participants disagree and 6% participants strongly disagree with the statement. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 6.04 df=4; p=0.196 suggests that both males and females do things with their friends that are different from what other people might do.

Frequency table 18: <u>I can plan how we'll spend our time without first having to check with</u>
<u>my friend.</u>

I can plan how we'll spend our time without first having to check with my friend.	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	16	9
Agree	53	30
Neutral	70	39
Disagree	34	19
Strongly disagree	8	4
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 18: <u>I can plan how we'll spend our time without first having to check with my friend.</u>
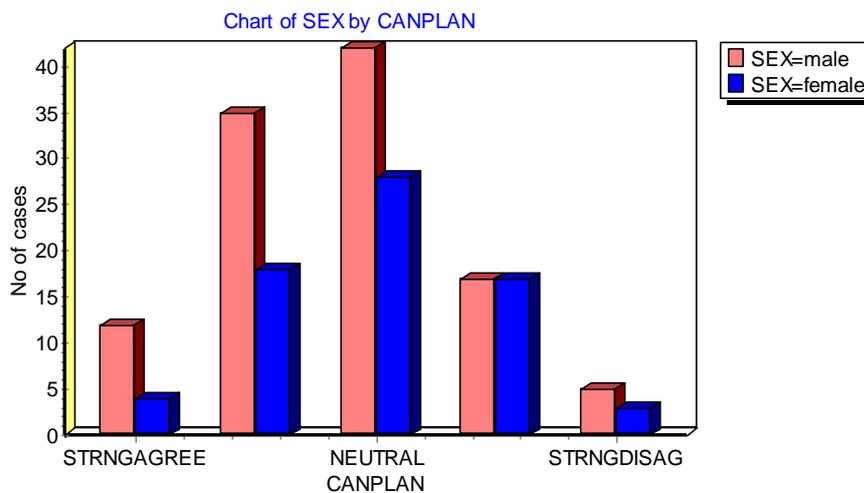
Frequency 18 and figure 18 indicate that 9% of participants strongly agree with the statement, "I can plan how we'll spend our time without first having to check with my friend," 29% participants agree while 39% participants were neutral and 18.78% participants disagree with the statement and 4% participants strongly disagree. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 3.64; df=4; p=0.455 suggests that both males and females can plan how they will spend time together without having to check with their friends first.

Frequency table 19: <u>I speak up to defend my friend when other people say bad things about him/her</u>

I speak up to defend my friend when other people say bad things about him/her.	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	58	32
Agree	75	41
Neutral	37	20
Disagree	4	2
Strongly disagree	6	3
Total	**181**	**100.00**
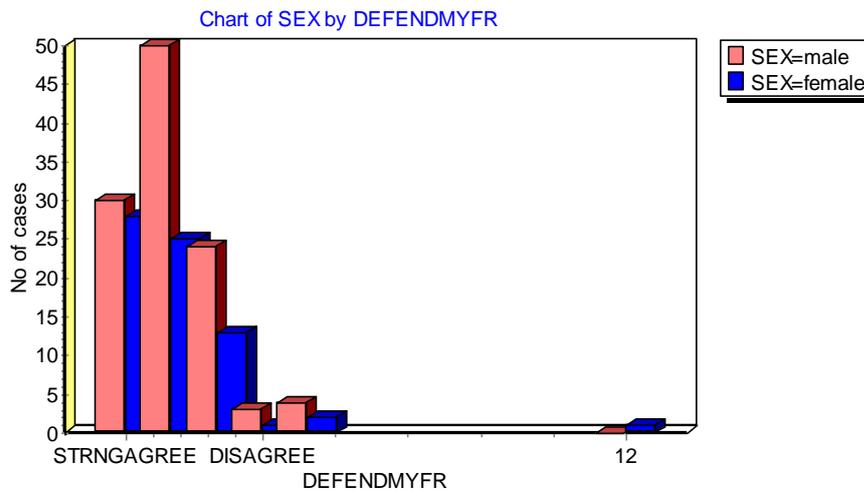
Frequency table 19 and figure 19 indicate that 32% participants strongly agree with the statement, 41% participants agree while 20% participants were neutral and 2% participants disagree with the statement that they can speak up to defend their friend when other people say bad things about them and 3% participants strongly disagree. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if $p \leq .05$). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 5.33; df=5; p=0.377 suggests that both males and females can speak up to defend their friend when other people say bad things about them.

Frequency table 20: I can use my friend's things without asking permission

I can use my friend's things without asking permission	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	21	12
Agree	31	17
Neutral	50	28
Disagree	46	25
Strongly disagree	33	18
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 20: I can use my friend's things without asking permission
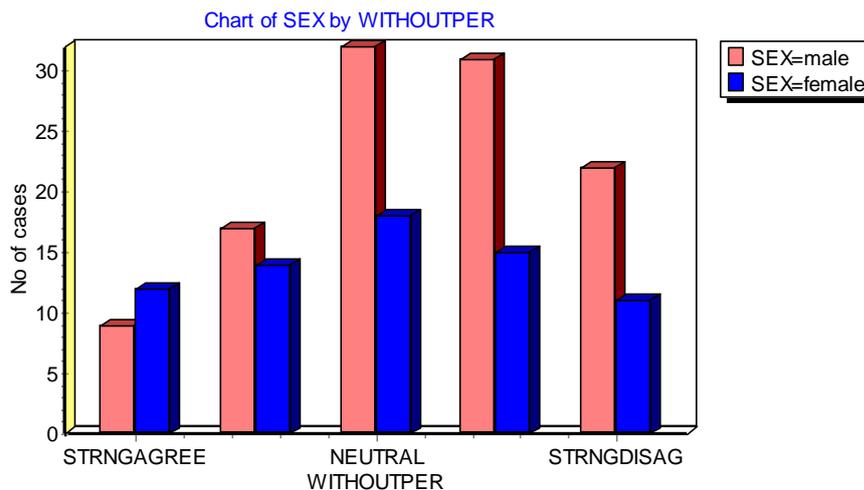
Frequency table number 20 and figure 20 indicate that 12% of participants strongly agree with the statement, 17% participants agrees while 28% participants were neutral and 25% disagree and lastly 18% strongly disagrees that the can use their friend's things without getting permission. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05).This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 4.83; df=4; p=0.305 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). The result suggests that both males and females have the same ability to use their friends' things without asking. It must be noted that in this instance over 40% of the combined sample either disagree or strongly disagree with the statement.

Frequency table 21: <u>I talk to my friend about my hopes and plans for the future</u>

I talk to my friend about my hopes and plans for the future	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	65	36
Agree	70	39
Neutral	33	18
Disagree	7	4
Strongly disagree	6	3
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 21: <u>I talk to my friend about my hopes and plans for the future</u>
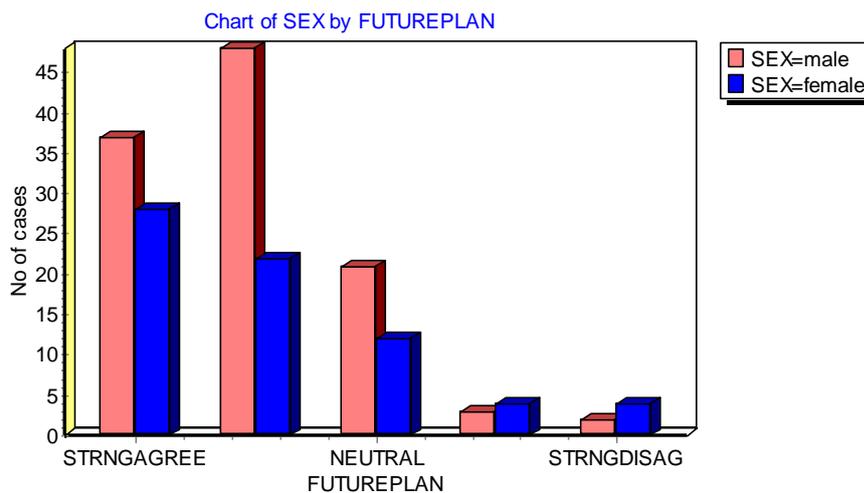
Frequency table 21 and figure 21 indicate that 36% participants strongly agree with the statement "I talk to my friend about my hopes and plans for the future" while 39% participants agree and 18% participants were neutral. 4% participants however disagree with the statement and 3% participants strongly disagree. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 5.14; df=4; p=0273 suggests that both males and females can speak to their friends about the future to the same extent.

Frequency table 22: <u>I like to do things with my friend</u>

I like to do things with my friend	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	53	26
Agree	93	51
Neutral	30	17
Disagree	2	1
Strongly disagree	3	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 22: <u>I like to do things with my friend</u>
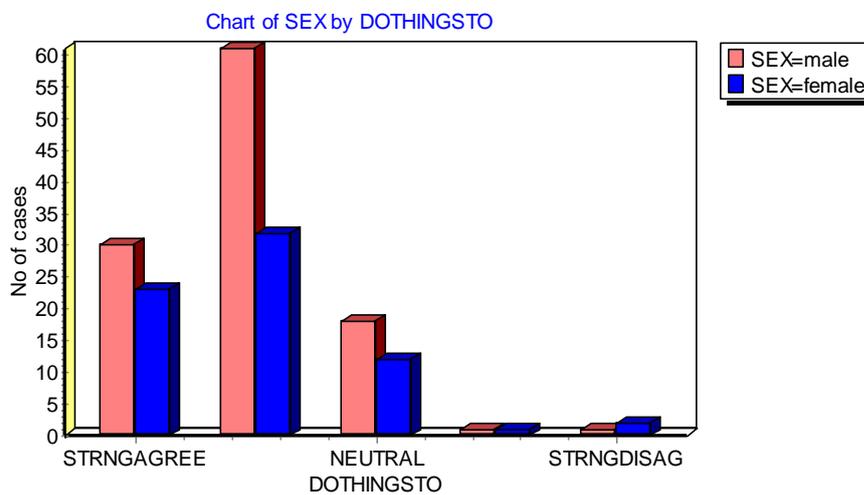
Frequency table 22 and figure 22 indicates that 26% participants strongly agree with the statement "I like to do things with my friend" and 51% participants agree, while 17% participants were neutral and 1% participants disagree with the statement and 2% strongly disagree. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 2.33; df=4; p=0675 suggests that both males and females like to do things with their friends to the same degree.

Frequency table 23: <u>When something nice happens to me, I share the experience with my friend</u>

When something nice happens to me, I share the experience with my friend	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	73	40
Agree	64	35
Neutral	31	17
Disagree	10	6
Strongly disagree	3	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 23: <u>When something nice happens to me, I share the experience with my friend</u>
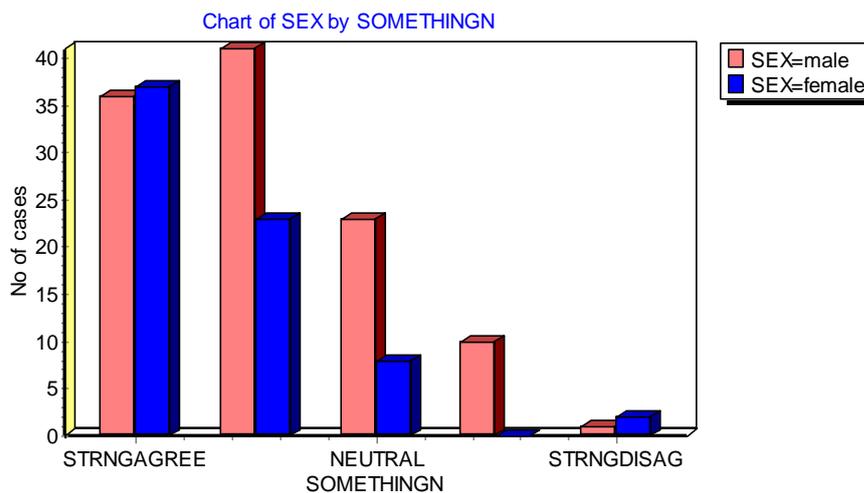
Frequency table 23 and figure 23 indicate that 40% participants strongly agree with the statement "when something nice happens to me I share the experience with my friend", 35% participants agree, and 17% participants were neutral and 6% participants disagree with the statement and 2% strongly disagree. Here the probability value (p) is smaller than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 14.10; df=4; p=0.004 suggests that more females are more likely to share their experience with a friend if something nice happens to them.

Frequency table 24: <u>When my friend is not around, I keep wondering where he/she is and what he/she is doing</u>

When my friend is not around, I keep wondering where he/she is and what he/she are doing	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	32	18
Agree	66	36
Neutral	56	31
Disagree	16	9
Strongly disagree	10	6
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 24: <u>When my friend is not around, I keep wondering where he/she is and what he/she is doing</u>
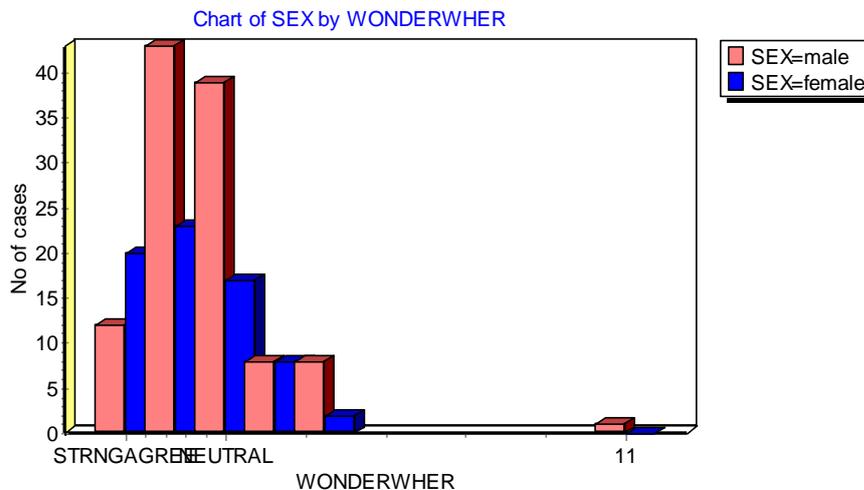
Frequency table 24 and figure 24 indicate that 18% participants strongly agree with the statement "When my friend is not around, I keep wondering where he/she is and what he/she are doing", 37% participants agree while 31% participants were neutral and 9% participants disagree with the statement and 6% participants strongly disagree. Here the probability value (p) is *less* than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 12.67; df=5; p=0.027 suggests that more females are more likely to wonder what their friends are doing when they are not around.

Frequency table 25: <u>I work with my friend on some hobbies</u>

I work with my friend on some hobbies	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	32	22
Agree	66	43
Neutral	43	24
Disagree	18	10
Strongly disagree	3	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 25: <u>I work with my friend on some hobbies</u>
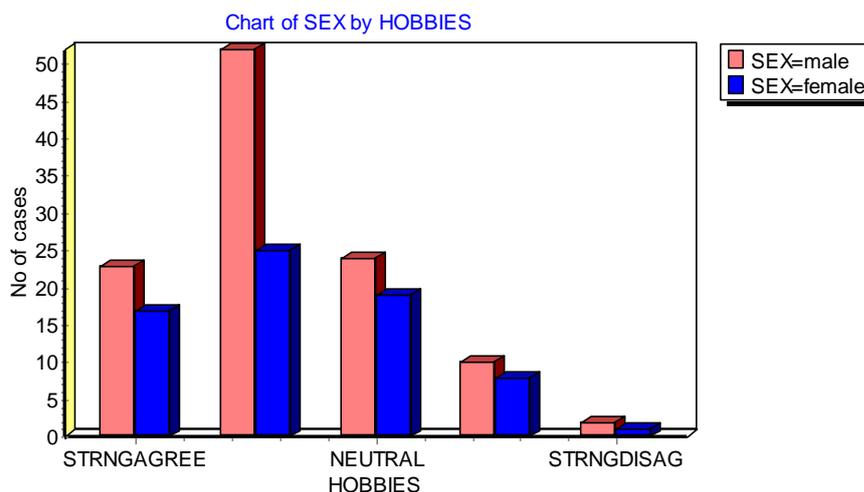
Frequency table 25 and figure 25 indicate that 22% participants strongly agree that they work with their friends on some hobbies, 43% participants agree while 24% participants were neutral and 10% participants disagree with the statement and 2% strongly disagree. Here the probability value (p) is *less* than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 2.34; df=4; p=0.0674 suggests that both males and females are equally as likely to work on their hobbies with some friends.

Frequency table 26: <u>I know how my friend feels about things without having to be told</u>

I know how my friend feels about things without having to be told.	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	24	13
Agree	74	41
Neutral	71	39
Disagree	9	5
Strongly disagree	3	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 26: <u>I know how my friend feels about things without having to be told</u>
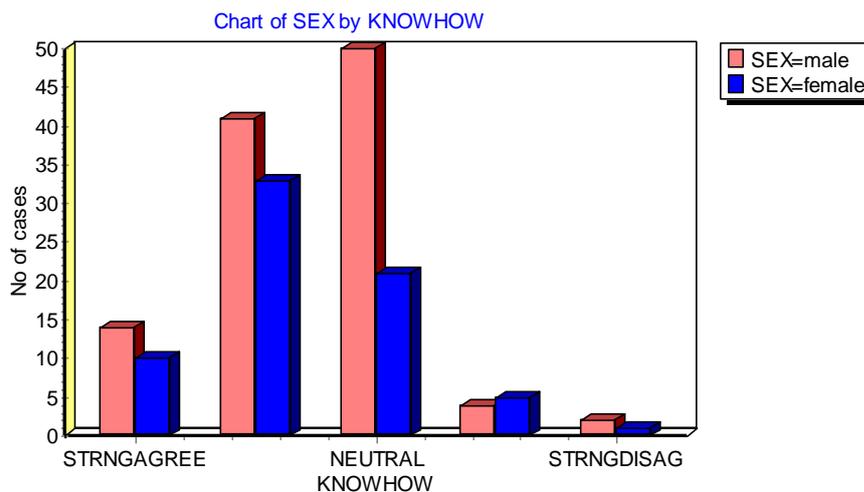
Frequency table 26 and figure 26 indicates that 13% participants strongly agree that they know how their feels about things without having being told, 41% participants agree while 39% participants were neutral and 5% disagree with the statement and 2% strongly disagreed. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there no statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 4.78; df=4; p=0.3111 suggests that both males and females are equally as likely to know how their friends feel without being told.

Frequency table 27: I know what kind of books, hobbies and other activities my friend likes

I know what kind of books, hobbies and other activities my friend likes.	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	47	26
Agree	69	38
Neutral	51	28
Disagree	11	7
Strongly disagree	3	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 27: I know what kind of books, hobbies and other activities my friend likes
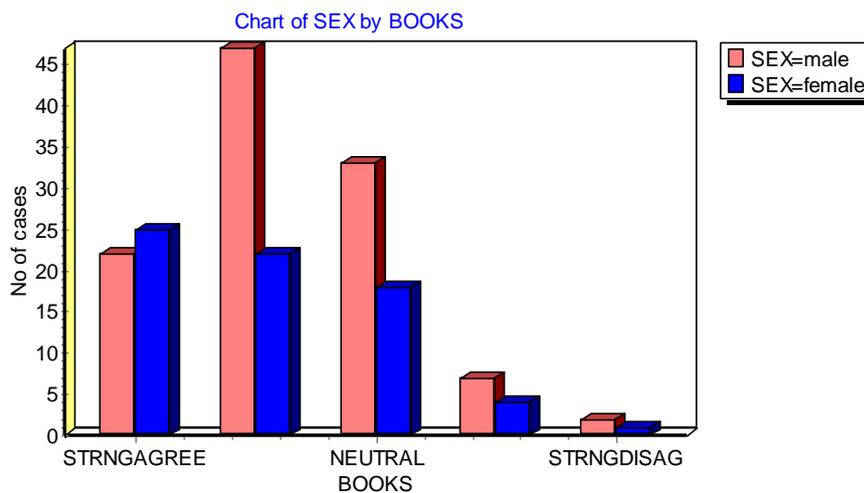
Frequency table 27 and figure 27 indicate that 26% participants strongly agree that they know the kind of books, hobbies and other activities that their friends like, 38% participants agree while 28% participants were neutral and 6% participants disagree with the statement and 2% strongly disagreed. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is not a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 5.82; df=4; p=0.213 suggests that both males and females know what kind of hobbies and books their friends like.

Frequency table 28: <u>I will not go along with others to do anything against my friend</u>

I will not go along with others to do anything against my friend	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	75	41
Agree	64	35
Neutral	23	13
Disagree	12	7
Strongly disagree	7	4
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Frequency table 28: <u>I will not go along with others to do anything against my friend</u>
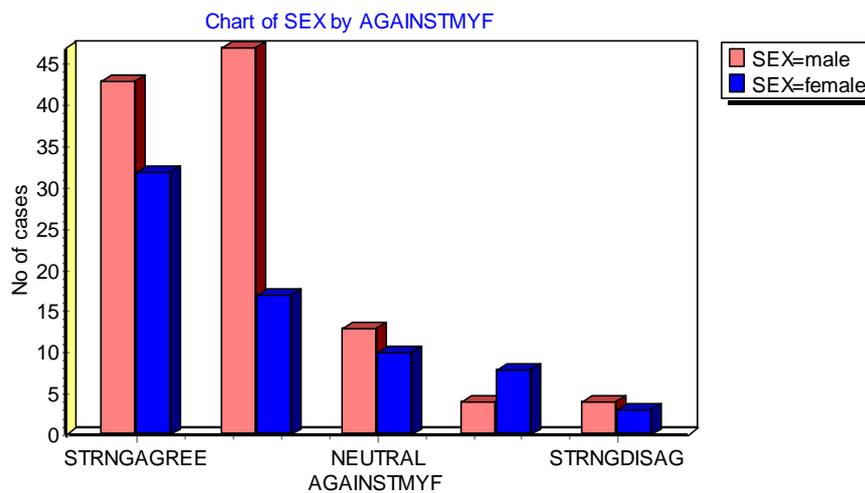
Frequency table 28 and figure 28 indicate that 41% participants strongly agree that they would not go along with others to do anything against their friends, 35% participants agree while 13% participants were neutral and 7% participants disagree with the statement and 4% strongly disagreed. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is not a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 8.70; df=4; p=0.069 suggests that both males and females will not go along with others to do anything against their friend.

Frequency table 29: I offer my friend the use of my things (like clothes, possessions, food, etc.)

I offer my friend the use of my things (like clothes, possessions, food, etc.)	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	45	25
Agree	73	40
Neutral	33	18
Disagree	14	8
Strongly disagree	15	8
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 29: I offer my friend the use of my things (like clothes, possessions, food, etc.)
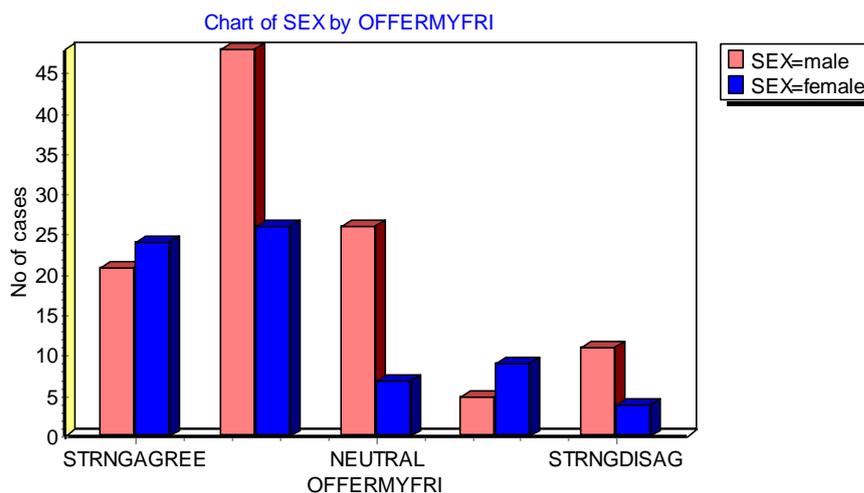
Frequency table 29 and figure 29 indicate that 25% of participants strongly agree that they offer their friends to use their things, 40% participants agree while 18% participants were neutral and 8% participants disagree with the statement and 8% strongly disagreed. .Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 13.49; df=4 p=0.009 which suggests that more females are more likely to offer their friends the use of their things.

Frequency table 30: <u>It bothers me to have other people come around and join in when the two of us are doing something together</u>

It bothers me to have other people come around and join in when the two of us are doing something together	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	19	11
Agree	62	34
Neutral	58	32
Disagree	29	16
Strongly disagree	13	7
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 30: <u>It bothers me to have other people come around and join in when the two of us are doing something together</u>
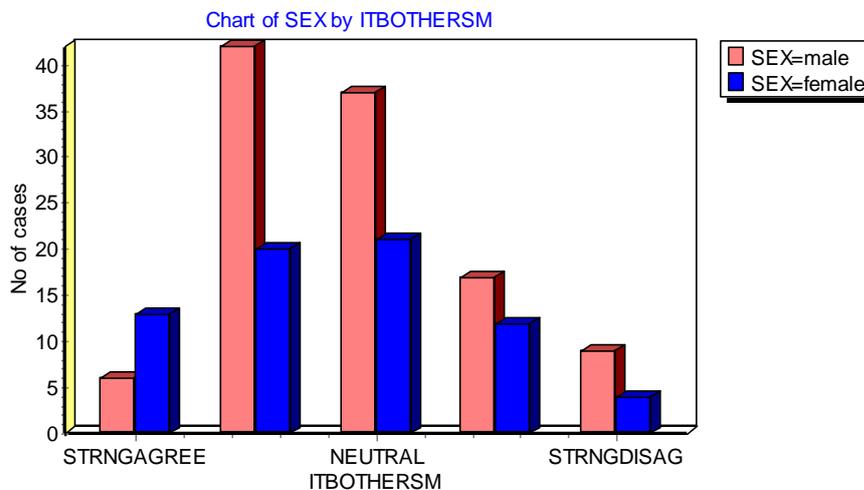
Frequency table 30 and figure 30 indicate that 11% participants strongly agree that it bothers them to have other people come around and join in when they are doing something with their friend, 34% participants agree, while 32% were neutral and 16% disagree with the statement and 7% strongly disagreed. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is not a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 8.75; df=4; p=0.06 suggests that the trend is that both males and females have the same level of being bothered when other people join them.

Frequency table 31: <u>If I want my friend to do something for me, all I have to do is ask</u>

If I want my friend to do something for me, all I have to do is ask	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	62	34
Agree	79	44
Neutral	29	16
Disagree	5	3
Strongly disagree	6	3
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 31: <u>If I want my friend to do something for me, all I have to do is ask</u>
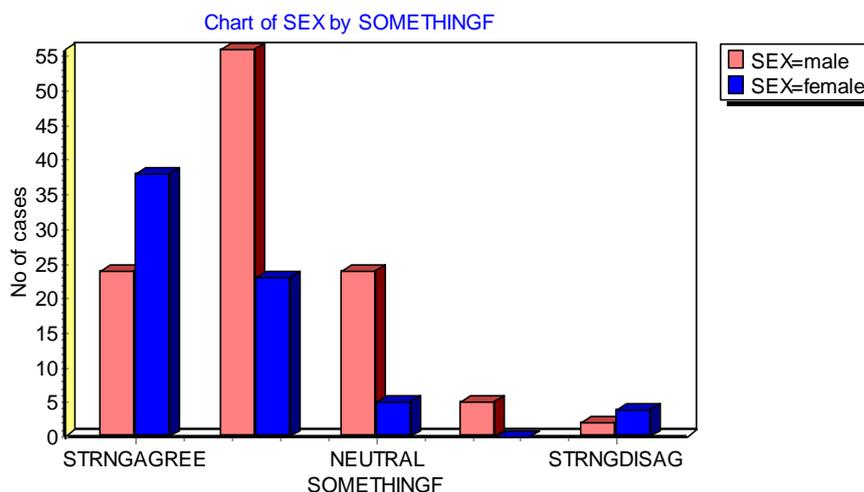
Frequency table 31 and figure 31 indicate that 34% of participants strongly agree that if they want their friends to do something for them all they have to do is ask, 44% participants agree, while 16% were neutral and 3% disagree with the statement and 3% strongly disagreed. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 27.17; df=4 p=.00 which suggests that more females only have to ask if they want their friend to do something for them.

Frequency table 32: <u>Whenever my friend wants to tell me about a problem, I stop what I am doing and listen for as long as my friend wants</u>

Whenever my friend wants to tell me about a problem, I stop what I am doing and listen for as long as my friend wants	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	53	29
Agree	83	46
Neutral	31	17
Disagree	8	4
Strongly disagree	6	3
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 32: <u>Whenever my friend wants to tell me about a problem, I stop what I am doing and listen for as long as my friend wants</u>
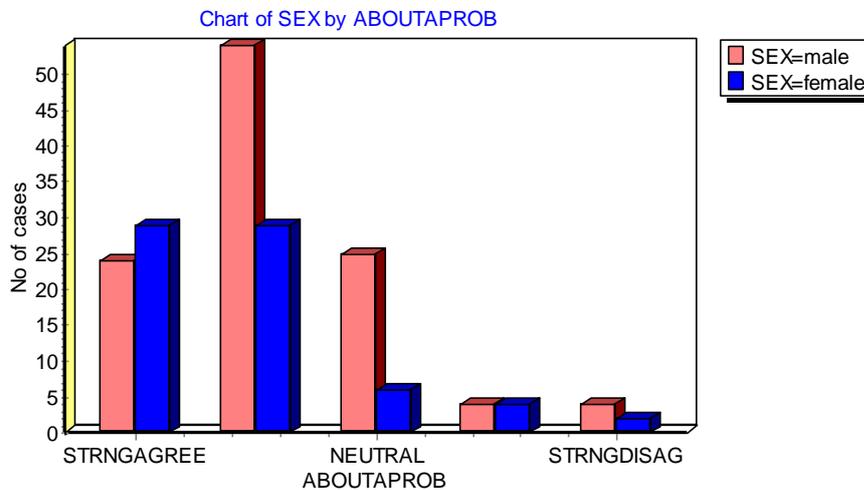
Frequency table number 32 and figure 32 indicate that 29% participants strongly agree that whenever their friends want to tell them about their problems they stop what they are doing and listen to them for as long as their friends want, 46% participants agree, while 17% participants were neutral and 4% participants disagree with the statement and 3% strongly disagreed. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 11.62; df=4

p=0.020 which suggests that more females are more likely to listen to the problems their friends have than males.

Frequency table 33: I like my friend

I like my friend	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	85	47
Agree	81	45
Neutral	10	6
Disagree	1	0.6
Strongly disagree	4	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 33: I like my friend
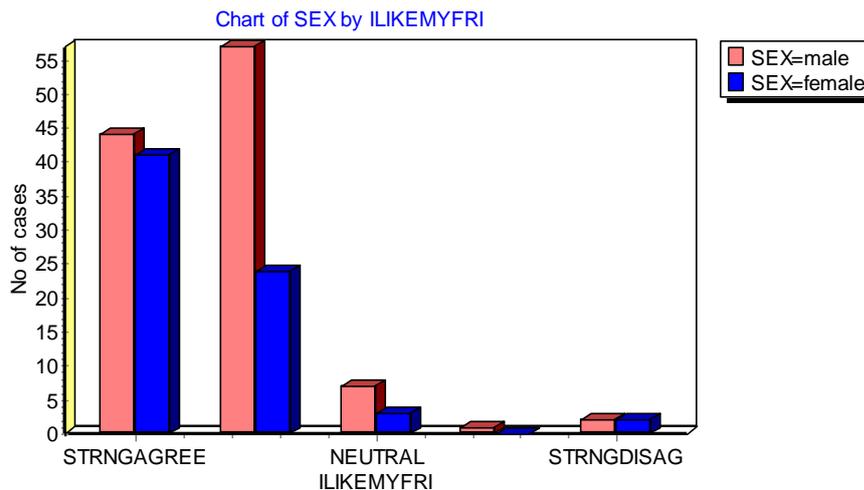
Frequency table 33 and figure 33 indicates that 47% participants strongly agree that they like their friends, 45% participants agree, while 6% were neutral and 0.6% participants disagree with the statement and 2% participants strongly disagreed. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is not a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 7.23 df=4; p=0.124 suggests that both the male and female participants like their friends equally.

Frequency table 34: <u>I can be sure that my friend will help me whenever I ask for it</u>

I can be sure that my friend will help me whenever I ask for it	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	59	33
Agree	72	40
Neutral	43	24
Disagree	3	2
Strongly disagree	4	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 34: <u>I can be sure that my friend will help me whenever I ask for it</u>
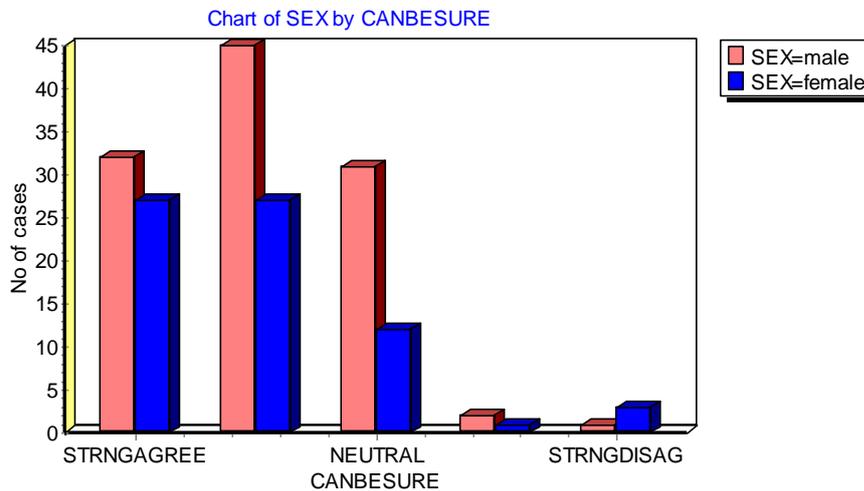
Frequency table 34 and figure 34 indicate than 33% participants strongly agree that they can be sure that their friends will help them whenever they ask for it, 40% participants agree, while 24% participants were neutral and 2% participants disagree with the statement and 2% participants strongly disagree. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if $p \leq .05$). This means that there is not a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 5.66 df=4; p=0.226 suggests that both the male and female participants' friends will help them whenever they ask.

Frequency table 35: <u>When my friend is not around, I miss him/her</u>

When my friend is not around, I miss him/her	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	50	28
Agree	95	52
Neutral	23	13
Disagree	7	4
Strongly disagree	6	3
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 35: <u>When my friend is not around, I miss him/her</u>
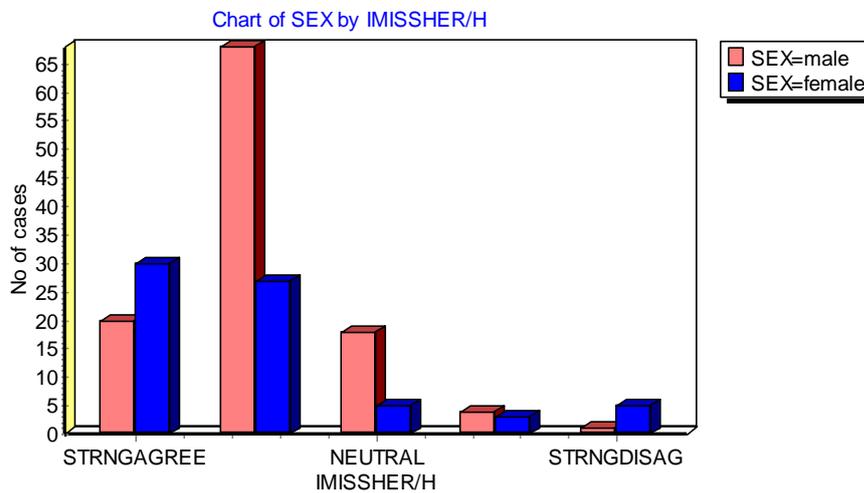
Frequency table 35 and figure 35 indicate that 28% participants strongly agree that when their friends are not around they miss them, 53% participants agree, while 12% participants were neutral and 4% disagree with the statement and 3% strongly disagree. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 21.68; df=4 p=0.000 which suggests that more females are more likely miss their friends when they are not around than males.

Frequency table 36: <u>I enjoy drinking (alcohol) with my friend</u>

I enjoy drinking (alcohol) with my friend	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	41	23
Agree	35	19
Neutral	26	14
Disagree	22	12
Strongly disagree	57	31
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 36: <u>I enjoy drinking (alcohol) with my friend</u>
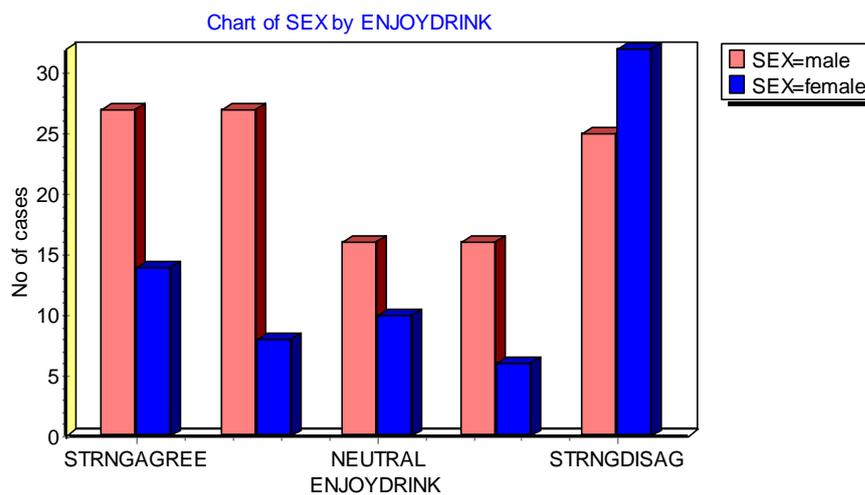
Frequency table number 36 and figure 36 indicates that 23% participants strongly agree that they enjoy drinking alcohol with their friends, 19% participants agree, while 14% participants were neutral and 12% disagree with the statement and 32% strongly disagreed. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 12.58; df=4 p=0.013 which suggests that more males enjoy drinking alcohol with their friends than females do with their friends.

Frequency table 37: <u>My friend's views on alcohol are very similar to mine</u>

My friend's views on alcohol are very similar to mine	Frequency	Percent%
Strongly agree	51	28
Agree	44	24
Neutral	30	17
Disagree	19	11
Strongly disagree	37	20
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Frequency table 37: <u>My friend's views on alcohol are very similar to mine</u>
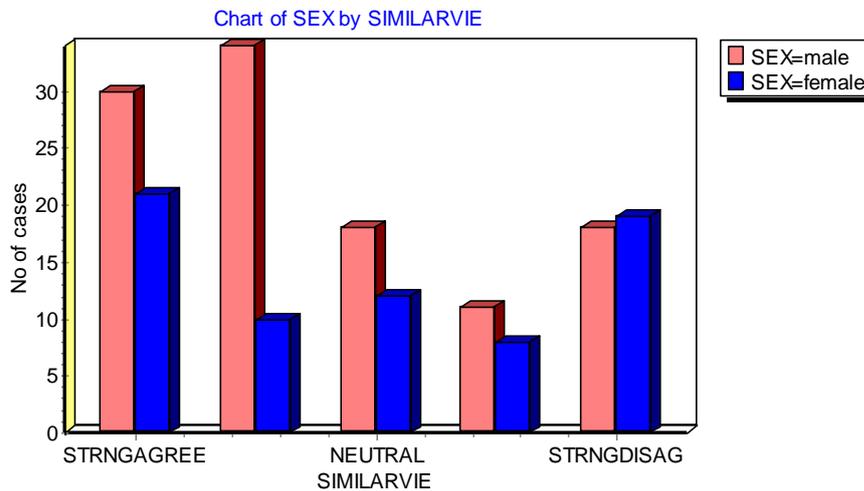
Frequency table 37 and figure 37 indicates that 28% participants strongly agree that they have similar views on alcohol with their friends, 24% participants agree, while 17% participants were neutral and 11% participants disagree with the statement and 20% strongly disagreed. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is not a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 7.48 df=4; p=0.113 suggests that friends of both the male and female participants' friends hold similar views on alcohol to their own.

Frequency table 38: Play sport

Please list the major activities you and your friend engage in together (for example, going to the movies, going out to bars, playing sport, studying in the library).

Play sport	Frequency	Percent%
Yes	93	61
No	88	9
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 38: Play sport

Chart of SEX by PLAYSPRT
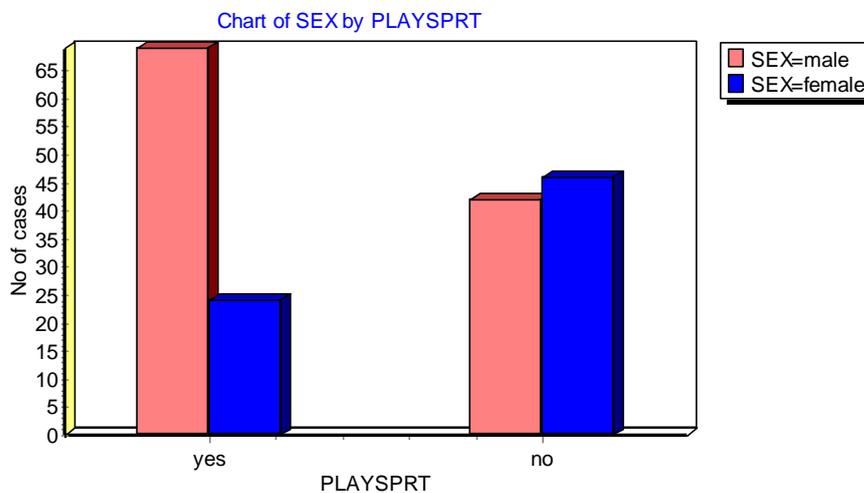
Frequency table 38 and figure 38 indicate 61% participants answered yes they play sports and 9% participants replied that no they do not play sports. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 13.35; df=4 p=0.000 which suggests that more males play sport than females.

Frequency table 39: Go to bars

Go to bars	Frequency	Percent%
Yes	41	22.65
No	140	77.35
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 39: <u>Go to bars</u>

Chart of SEX by GOTOBAR
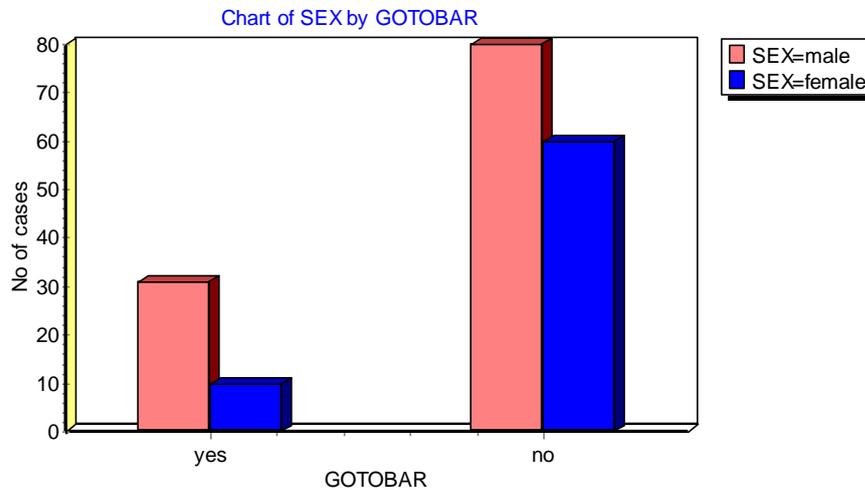
Frequency table 39 and figure 39 indicate that 23% participants agreed that they go to bars with their friend and 78% participants indicated that they do not. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 4.56; df=1 p=0.033 which suggests that more males go to bars than females.

Frequency table 40: <u>Involved in study groups or study in the library</u>

Involved in study groups or study in the library	Frequency	Percent%
Yes	126	70
No	55	30
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 40: <u>Involved in study groups or study in the library</u>

Chart of SEX by STUDYGROUP
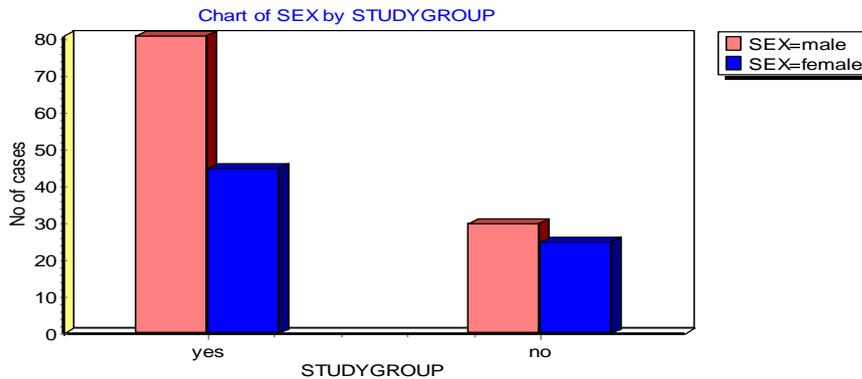
Frequency table 40 and figure 40 indicate that 70% participants agreed to be involved in study groups with their friends or they study with their friends in the library and 30% participants indicated that they do not. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there not a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 1.53; df=1; p=0.216 suggests that both the male and female participants' are involved in study groups or go to the library.

Frequency table 41: <u>Go to church together</u>

Go to church together	Frequency	Percent%
Yes	45	25
No	136	75
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 41: <u>Go to church together</u>

Chart of SEX by GOCHURCH
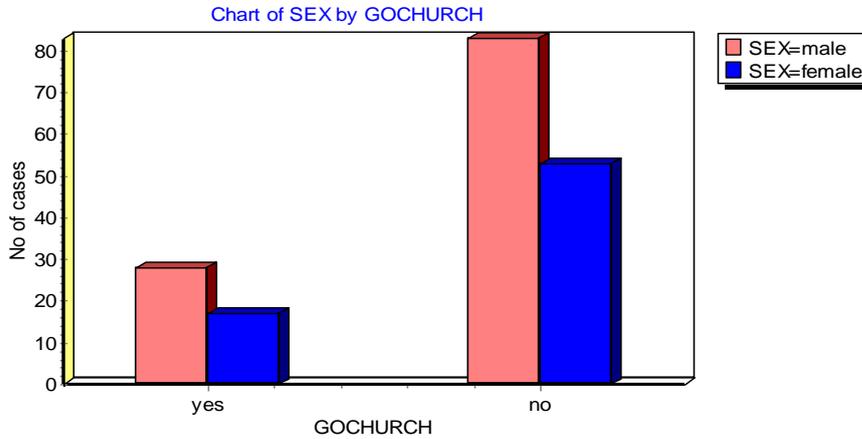
Frequency table 41 and figure 41 indicate that 25% participants go to church with their friends while 75% do not. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤00.05). This means that there is not a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 0.02; df=1; p=0.02 suggests that there is no difference between male and female participants in terms of going to church with their friends.

Frequency table 42: <u>Shopping</u>

Shopping	Frequency	Percent%
Yes	71	39
No	110	61
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 42: <u>Shopping</u>

Chart of SEX by SHOPPING

Frequency table 42 and figure 42 indicate that 39% participants go shopping with their friends while 61% participants do not. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 4.18; df=1; p=0.041 suggesting that more females than males are likely to go shopping with their friends.

Frequency table 43: <u>Socialising (parties and movies)</u>

Socializing (parties and movies)	Frequency	Percent%
Yes	119	66
No	62	35
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 43: <u>Socializing (parties and movies)</u>

Chart of SEX by SOCIALISIN
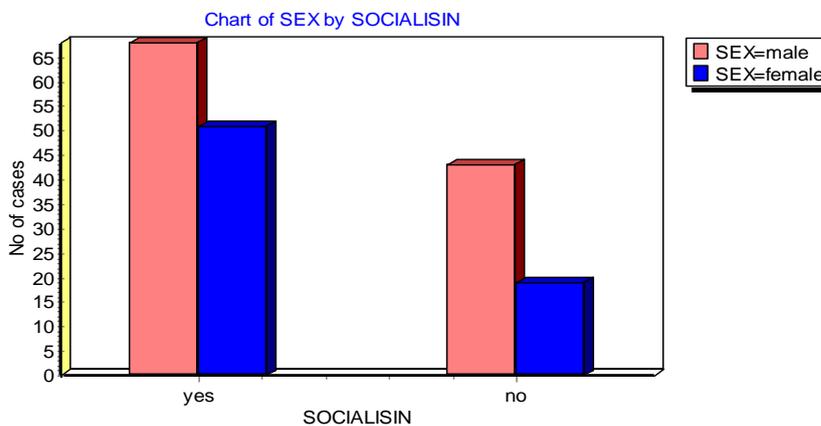
Frequency table 43 and figure 43 indicate that 66% participants go to parties and movies with their friends while 34% participants do not. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is not a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square = 2.56; df=1; p=0.109 suggests that there is no difference between male and female participants in terms of their socializing with their friends and going to movies.

5.5 Questionnaire – Section C: Drinking Patterns Questionnaire Abbreviated (AllGood, 2008)

The Drinking Patterns Questionnaire (DPQA) is a self-report instrument designed to identify high-risk (HR) drinking situations. Drinking patterns amongst friends was specifically measured with two questions on the scale. The first, "During the past three months, how often have you been in contact with your friend?" This was used so that the researcher could examine if contact with a friend associated with alcohol use during the quarterly contact. The second question, "During the past month, on how many occasions did you and your friend consume alcohol (for instance, beer, wine or hard liquor) together." This was used to specifically address the question of contact between friends which involved alcohol use.

Frequency table 44: How long have you known your best friend? (no. of years) - if less than 1 year, no. of months

How long have you known your best friend? (no. of years) - if less than 1 year, no. of months	Frequency	Percent%
1 year	23	12
2 years	44	29
3 years	31	17
4 years	12	7
3-6 months	1	0.6
6-9 months	3	6
Other	58	32
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 44: <u>How long have you known your best friend? (no. of years) - if less than 1 year,</u>
<u>no. of months</u>
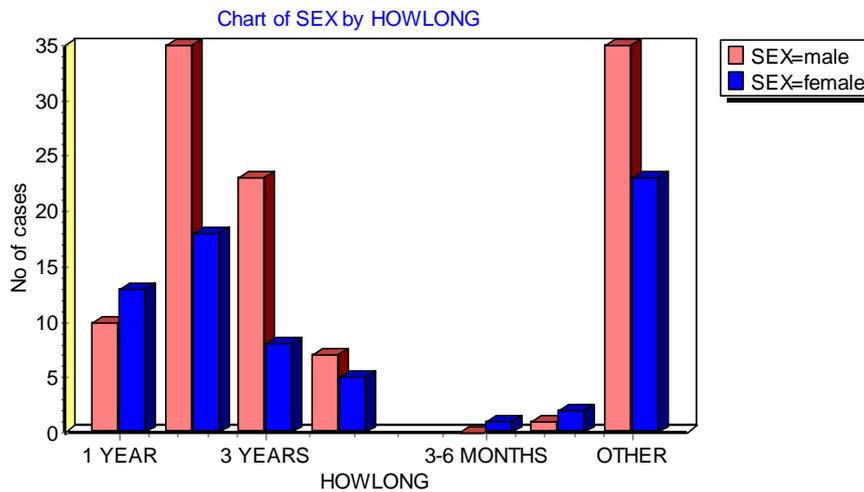
Frequency table number 44 and figure 44 indicates that 13% participants have known their best friends for 1 year, 29% participants 2 years, 17% participants 3 years and 7% participants 4 years while 0.6% participants reported to knowing their best friends for 3 to 6 months, 1.66% participants reported 6 to 9 months and 32% participants reported to other. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is not a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=8.40; df=6; p=0.211 suggests that there is no difference between male and female participants in terms of the number of years (or months) they have known their friends.

Frequency table 45: <u>During the past three months, how often have you been in contact with your friend?</u>

During the past three months, how often have you been in contact with your friend?	Frequency	Percent%
Daily	85	47
Almost everyday	40	22
Every other day	19	11
Weekly	13	7
Once every week	4	2
Monthly	12	7
Less than a month	8	4
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 45: <u>During the past three months, how often have you been in contact with your friend?</u>
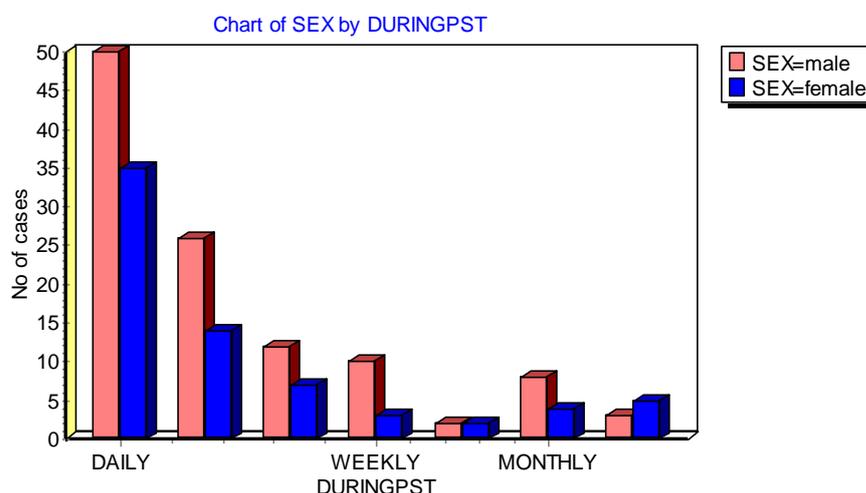
Frequency table number 45 and figure 45 indicates that 46% participants have been in contact with their friends daily during the past three months, 22% participants have been in contact with their friends almost every day, 11% participants have been in contact with their friends during the past three months every other day, 8% participants have been in contact with their

friends weekly in this period, 2% participants have been in contact with their friends on a weekly basis in this period, 7% participants reported that they saw their friends monthly during this period and 4% participants reported that they had seen their friends for less than month during the last 3 months. Here the probability value (p) is larger than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is not a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=4.09; df=6; p=0.665 suggests that there is no difference between male and female participants in terms of the number of times they have been in contact with their friends in the last three months.

Frequency table 46: Number of occasions you consumed alcohol with friends in 30 days?

During the past month (i.e., the past 30 days), on how many occasions did you and your friend consume alcohol (e.g. beer, wine, or hard liquor) together? Please provide your best estimate. Remember to think about recent parties, social gatherings, and any school based activities that involved drinking. Number of occasions spent drinking together	Frequency	Percent%
1	9	5
2	17	9
3	22	12
4	8	4
5	4	2
6	3	2
More than 7	18	10
None	100	55
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 46: <u>Number of occasions you consumed alcohol with friends in 30 days?   `</u>
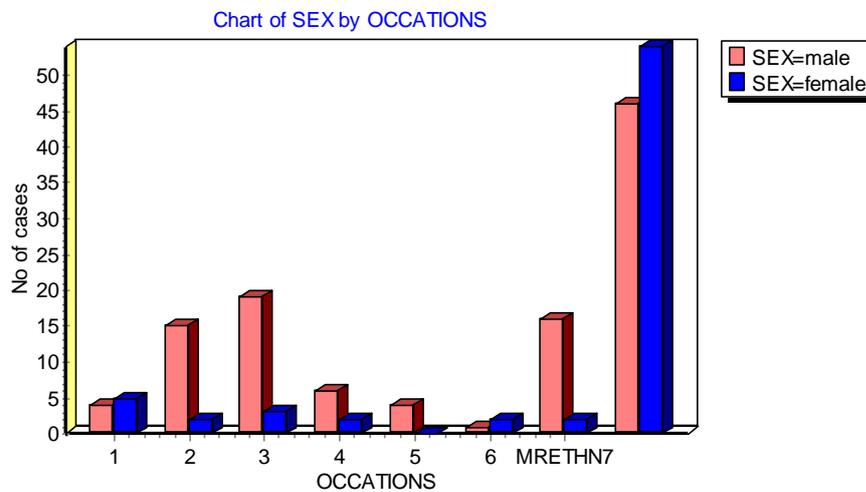
Frequency table number 46 and figure 46 indicated that participants reported the number of occasions they have consumed alcohol during the past month with their friends. Four percent (4%) of participants reported once, 9% participants reported twice, 12% participants reported 3 times, 4% participants reported 4 times, 2% participants reported 5 times, 2% participants reported 6 times and 10% participants reported more than 7 times while 55% of the sample reported they had not got together with their friends to drink alcohol during the last 30 days. Here the probability value (p) is *less* than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=31.90; df=7; p=0.000 which suggests that more females are likely to have more occasions where they drink with their friends than males in the 30 days when the research took place. This is an interesting statistic as it has been noted that men are more likely to go to bars (see figure 37). The inference is that females are more likely to drink in their rooms with their friends and, it seems in this sample, are drinking with their friends (in a 30 day period) more than males.

5.6 Questionnaire – Section D: Drinking Motives Questionnaire (Cooper, 1994)

This questionnaire was developed in an effort to better understand motivations for alcohol use. It was included in the current study to help determine the underlying motivations of alcohol drinking in peer friendships.

Frequency table 47: How often do you drink because it's exciting?

How often do you drink because it's exciting?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	91	50
Almost never	17	10
Some of the time	32	18
Half the time	16	9
Most of the time	19	11
Almost always	5	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 47: How often do you drink because it's exciting?
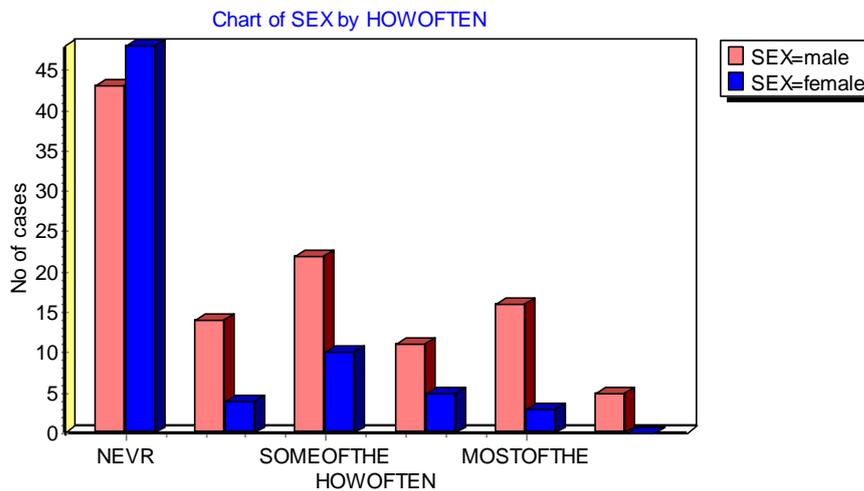
Frequency table number 47 and figure 47 indicate that participants responded to how often they drink because it is exciting in the following way. Just over half (50%) of the participants responded *never*, 10% responded *almost never*, 18% participants responded *some of the time* , 9% participants responded *half the time*, 10.50% participants responded *most of the time* and 3% of the participants responded *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=18.12; df=5; p=0.003 suggests that more females are not likely to go and drink because it is exciting as compared to males.

Frequency table 48: How often do you drink to celebrate a special occasion with friends?

How often do you drink to celebrate a special occasion with friends?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	82	45
Almost never	10	6
Some of the time	27	15
Half the time	22	13
Most of the time	21	12
Almost always	19	11
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 48: How often do you drink to celebrate a special occasion with friends?
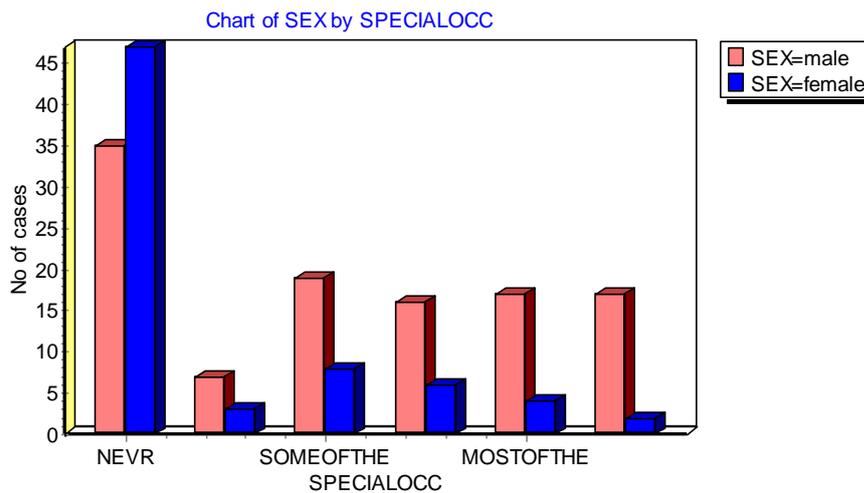
Frequency table number 48 and figure 48 indicate that participants responded to the question relating to the number of times they drink to celebrate a special occasion with their friends in the following way. Forty five percent (45%) indicated *never,* 6% indicated *almost never*, 15% indicated some of the time, 12% indicated *half of the time* while 12% indicated *most of the time* and 11% participants indicated *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=24.23; df=5; p=0.000 suggests that more males are more likely to drink to celebrate a special occasion with their friends than females.

Frequency table 49: <u>How often do you drink because it helps you enjoy a party?</u>

How often do you drink because it helps you enjoy a party?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	89	49
Almost never	10	6
Some of the time	23	13
Half the time	20	11
Most of the time	20	11
Almost always	19	10
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 49: <u>How often do you drink because it helps you enjoy a party?</u>
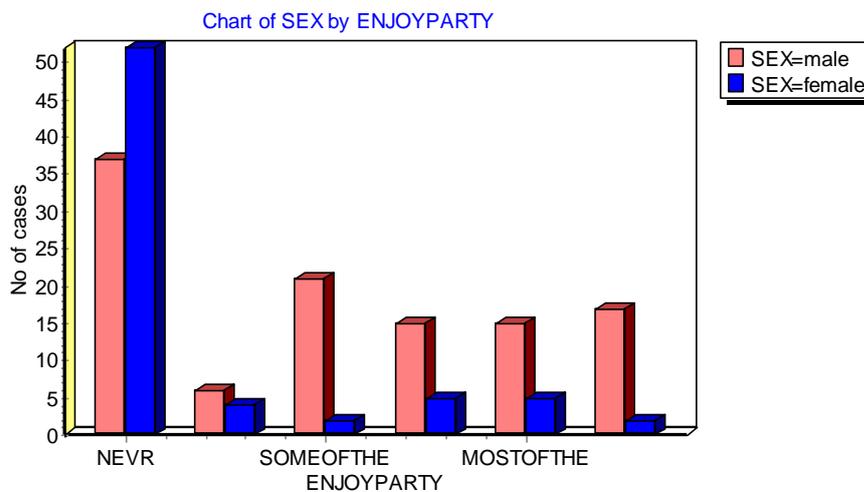
Frequency table number 49 and figure 49 indicate that 49% participants responded that they *never* had occasion were they would drink because it helps them to enjoy a party, 6% responded *almost never*, 13% responded that they do drink *some of the time*, 11% responded that they drink *half the time*, 11% responded that they drink *most of the time* and 11% responded that they drank *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=32.86; df=5; p=0.000 suggest that more males are likely to drink because it helps them enjoy parties than females.

Frequency table 50: How often do you drink to get high?

How often do you drink to get high?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	96	53
Almost never	11	6
Some of the time	33	18
Half the time	21	11
Most of the time	12	6
Almost always	8	4
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 50: How often do you drink to get high?
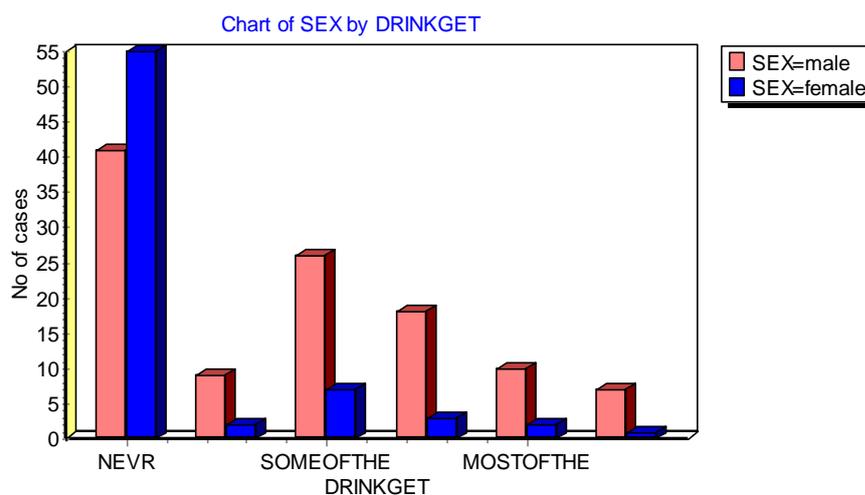
Frequency table number 50 and figure 50 indicate that 53% participants responded that they *never* drink to get high, 6% responded that they *almost never* drank to get high, 18% responded that they do drink to get high *some of the time*, 12% responded that they do drink to get high *half the time,* 7% responded that they do drink to get high *most of the time* while 4% of the participants responded that they *almost always* drink to get high. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=30.25; df=5; p=0.000 suggests that more males drink to get high as compared to females.

Frequency table 51: How often do you drink so that others won't kid you about not drinking?

How often do you drink so that others won't kid you about not drinking?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	110	61
Almost never	16	9
Some of the time	17	9
Half the time	25	14
Most of the time	8	4
Almost always	5	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 51: How often do you drink so that others won't kid you about not drinking?

Chart of SEX by DRINKASOTH
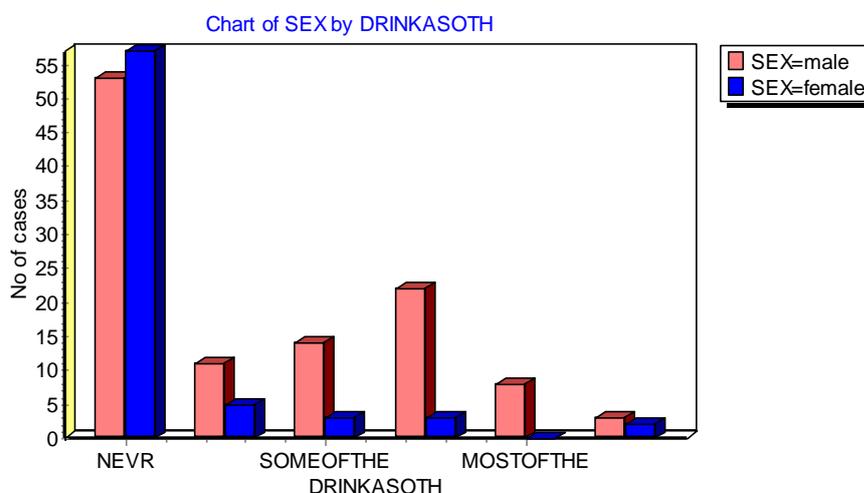
Frequency table number 51 and figure 51 indicate that 61% of the participants responded *never* to the question, "How often do you drink so that others won't kid you about not drinking?" Nine percent (9%) responded *almost never*, 9% responded *some of the time*, 14% responded *half the time*, 4% responded *most of the time* and 2% participants responded *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=24.10; df=5; p=0.000 suggests that less females drink because their friends kid (or tease) them about not drinking as compared to males.

Frequency table 52: How often do you drink because it's fun?

How often do you drink because it's fun?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	62	51
Almost never	7	4
Some of the time	17	9
Half the time	33	18
Most of the time	23	13
Almost always	9	5
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 52: How often do you drink because it's fun?
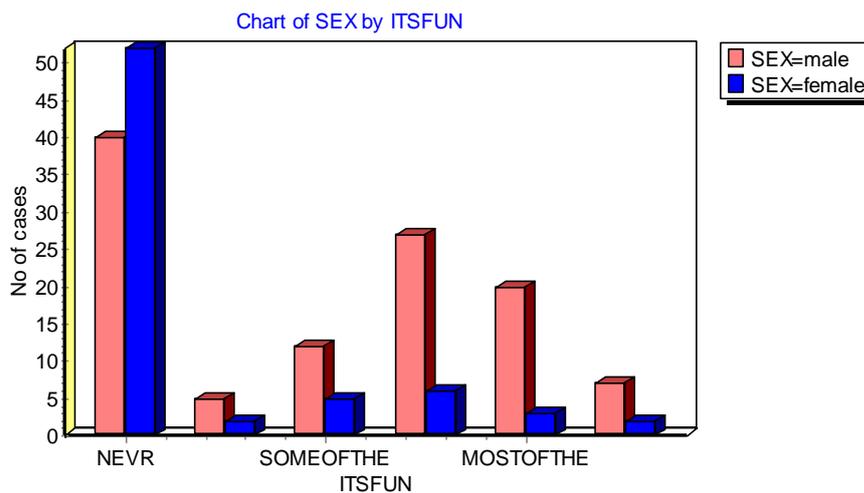
Frequency table number 52 and figure 52 indicate that **6%** participants responded *never* to the question, "How often do you drink because it is fun?" Thirty one percent **(31%)** responded *almost never*, while **9%** responded *some of the time*, **18%** responded *half the time*, **13%** responded *most of the time* and **5%** responded *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if **p≤.05**). This means that there a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=26.51; df=5; p=0.000 suggests that more males are likely to drink because it is fun than females.

Frequency table 53: How often do you drink because it helps you when you feel depressed or nervous?

How often do you drink because it helps you when you feel depressed or nervous?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	97	54
Almost never	13	7
Some of the time	35	19
Half the time	16	9
Most of the time	13	7
Almost always	7	4
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 53: How often do you drink because it helps you when you feel depressed or nervous?
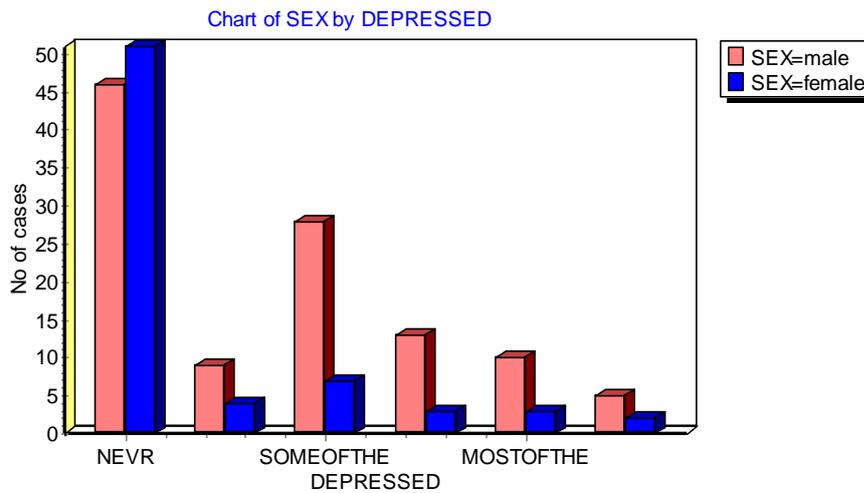
Frequency table number 53 and figure 53 indicate that 54% participants responded *never* to the question, "How often do you drink because it helps you when you feel depressed or nervous?" Seven percent (7%) responded *almost never*, 19% responded *some of the time*, 9% responded *half the time*, 7% responded *most of the time* and 4% responded *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=17.71; df=5; p=0.003 suggests that more males are likely to go and drink when they are nervous or depressed as compared to the females in the sample.

Frequency table 54: How often do you drink because it improves parties and celebrations?

How often do you drink because it improves parties and celebrations?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	93	51
Almost never	7	4
Some of the time	18	10
Half the time	19	11
Most of the time	30	17
Almost always	14	8
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 54: How often do you drink because it improves parties and celebrations?
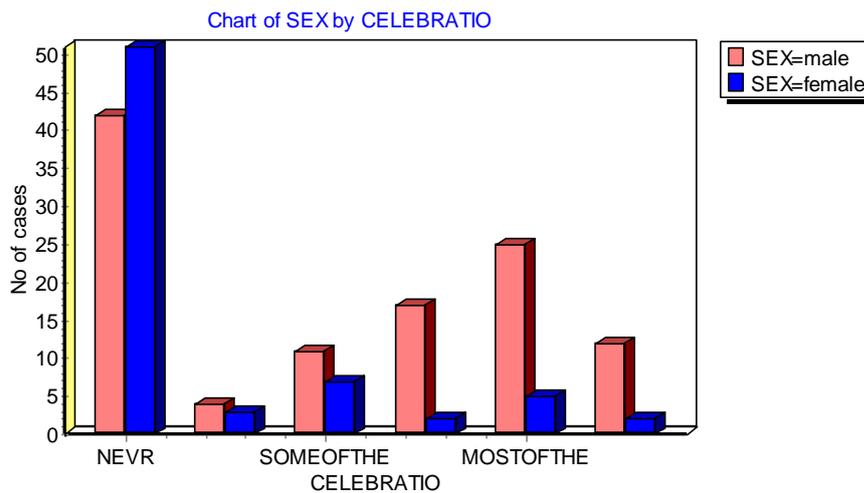
Frequency table number 54 and figure 54 indicate that 51% of participants responded *never* to the question, "How often do you drink because it improves parties and celebrations?" Four percent (4%) responded *almost never*, 10% responded *some of the time*, 11% responded *half the time*, 17% responded *most of the time* and 8% responded *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=26.28; df=5; p=0.000 suggests that males are likely to drink because it improves parties and celebrations than females.

Frequency table 55: How often do you drink because it makes social gatherings more fun?

How often do you drink because it makes social gatherings more fun?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	89	50
Almost never	14	8
Some of the time	27	15
Half the time	19	11
Most of the time	19	11
Almost always	13	8
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 55: How often do you drink because it makes social gatherings more fun?
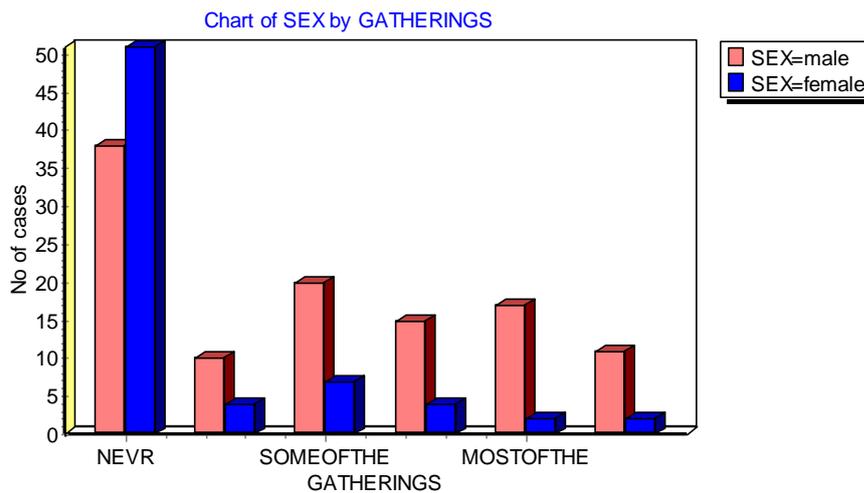
Frequency table number 55 and figure 55 indicate that 50% participants responded *never* to the question, "How often do you drink because it makes social gatherings more fun?" Eight percent (8%) responded *almost never*, 15% responded *some of the time*, 11% responded *half the time*, 11% responded *most of the time* while 7% responded *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=27.28; df=5; p=0.000 suggests that males are more likely to drink because it makes social gatherings more fun than females.

Frequency table 56: How often do you drink to cheer up when you're in a bad mood?

How often do you drink to cheer up when you're in a bad mood?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	97	54
Almost never	16	9
Some of the time	30	17
Half the time	20	11
Most of the time	13	7
Almost always	5	3
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 56: How often do you drink to cheer up when you're in a bad mood?
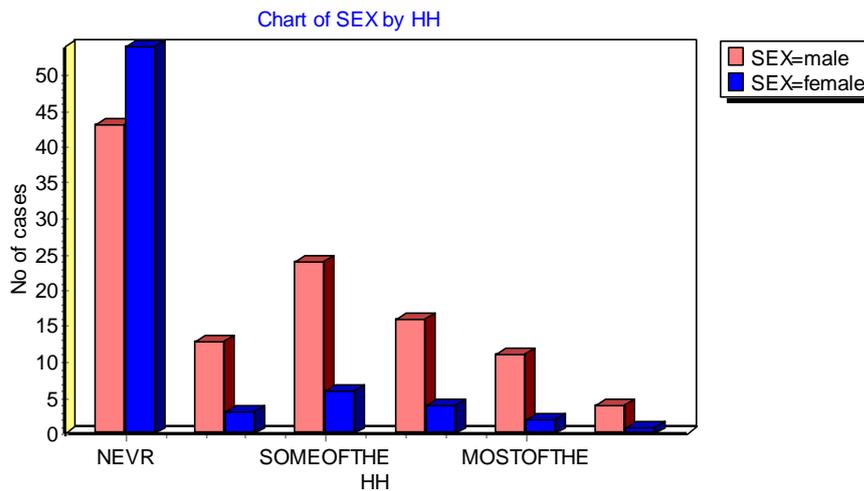
Frequency table number 56 and figure 56 indicate that 54% participants responded *never* to the question "how often do you drink to cheer up when you are in a bad mood?" Nine percent (9%) responded *almost never*, 17% responded *some of the time*, 11% responded *half the time*, 7% responded *most of the time* and 3% responded *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there a

Frequency table 57: <u>How often do you drink because it gives you a pleasant feeling?</u>

How often do you drink because it gives you a pleasant feeling?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	106	59
Almost never	9	5
Some of the time	23	13
Half the time	26	14
Most of the time	10	6
Almost always	7	4
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 57: <u>How often do you drink because it gives you a pleasant feeling?</u>
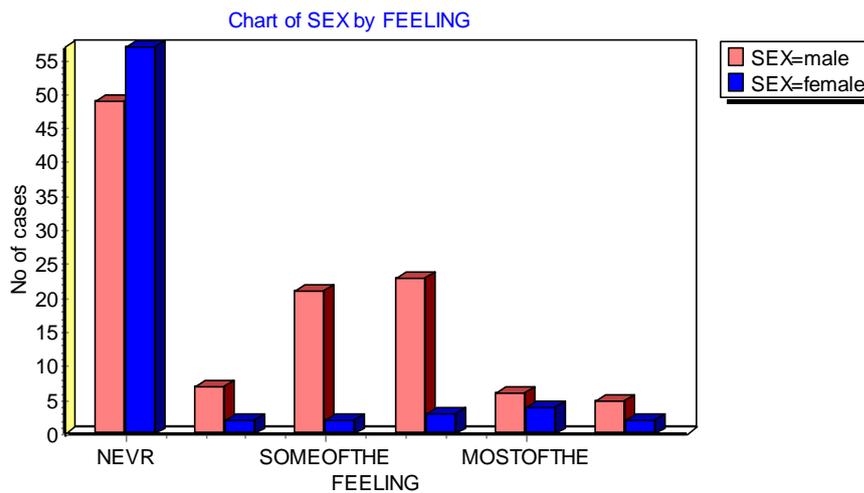
Frequency table number 57 and figure 57 indicate that 59% participants responded *never* to the question "How often do you drink because it gives you a pleasant feeling?" Five percent (5%) responded *almost never,* 13% responded *some of the time,* 15% responded *half the time*, 6% responded *most of the time* and 4% responded *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=28.31; df=5; p=0.000 suggests that more males are likely to drink as it gives them a pleasant feeling as compared to females.

Frequency table 58: How often do you drink to forget about your problems?

How often do you drink to forget about your problems?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	116	64
Almost never	19	11
Some of the time	23	13
Half the time	13	7
Most of the time	7	4
Almost always	3	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 58: How often do you drink to forget about your problems?
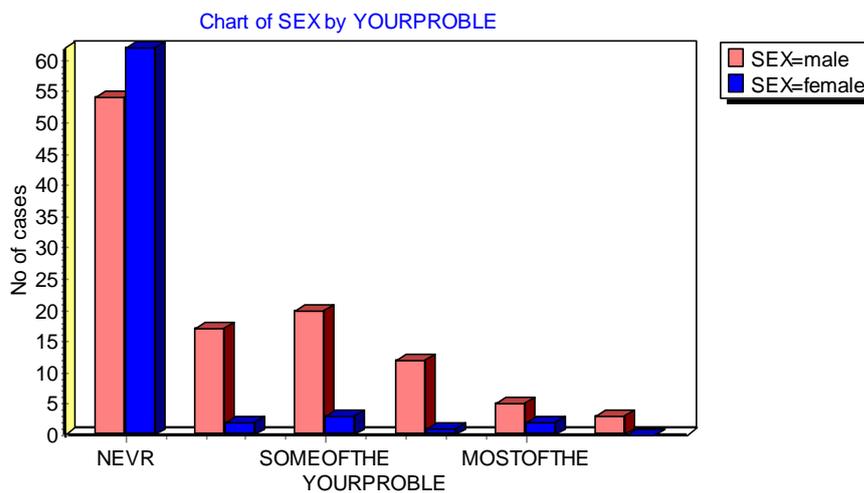
Frequency table number 58 and figure 58 indicate that 64% of participants responded *never* to the question "How often do you drink to forget your problems?" Eleven percent (11%) responded *almost never,* 13% responded *some of the time,* 7% responded *half the time,* 4% responded *most of the time* and 2% responded *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=30.85; df=5; p=0.000 suggests that males are more likely to drink to forget their problems than females.

Frequency table 59: How often do you drink because your friends pressure you to drink?

How often do you drink because your friends pressure you to drink?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	114	63
Almost never	12	7
Some of the time	27	15
Half the time	21	12
Most of the time	5	3
Almost always	2	1
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 59: How often do you drink because your friends pressure you to drink?
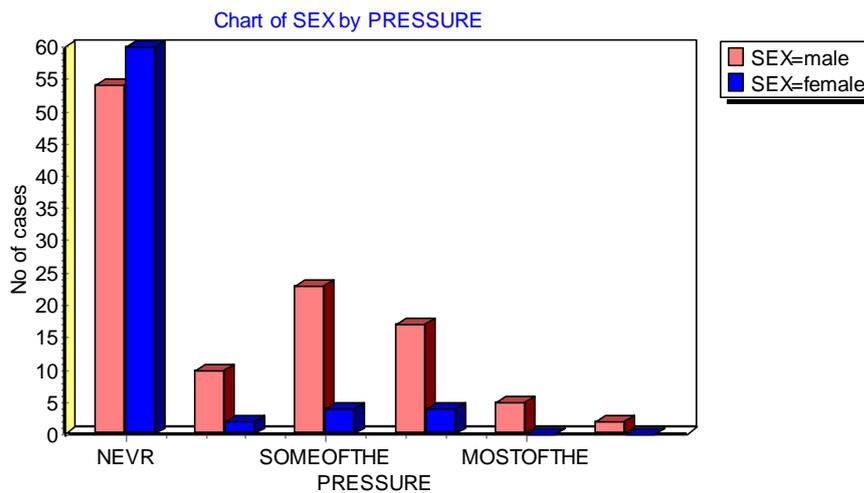
Frequency table number 59 and figure 59 indicate that 63% participants responded *never* to the question "How often to you drink because your friends pressure you to drink?" Seven percent (7%) responded *almost never,* 15% responded *some of the time,* 12% responded *half the time,* 3% responded *most of the time* and 1% responded *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=26.12; df=5; p=0.000 suggests that more males are likely to be pressured into drinking with their friends as compared to females.

Frequency table 60: How often would you say you drink to fit in with a group you like?

How often would you say you drink to fit in with a group you like?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	98	54
Almost never	8	4
Some of the time	31	17
Half the time	26	14
Most of the time	12	7
Almost always	6	3
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 60: How often would you say you drink to fit in with a group you like?
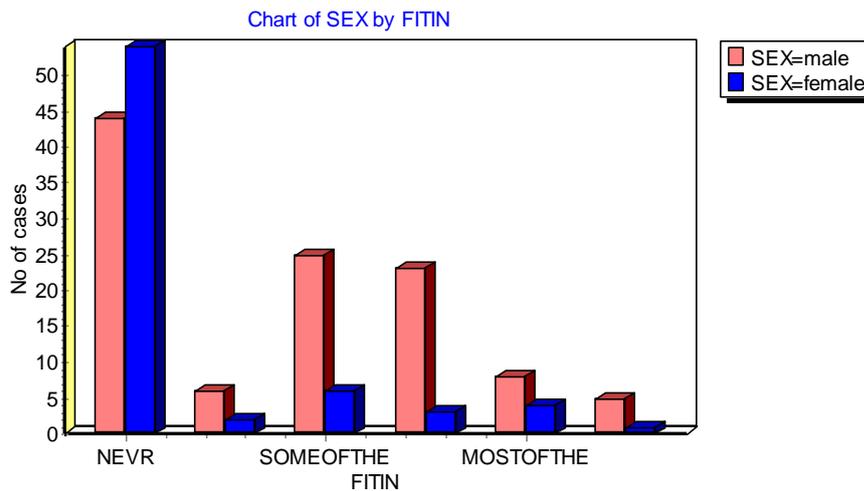
Frequency table number 60 and figure 60 indicate that 54% of participants responded *never* to the question "how often would you say you drink to fit in with a group you like?" Four percent (4%) responded *almost never,* 17% responded *some of the time*, 14% responded *half the time,* 7% responded *most of the time* while 3% responded *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=26.10; df=5; p=0.000 suggests that more males are likely to drink in order to fit in to a group they like than females.

Frequency table 61: How often do you drink because you like the feeling?

How often do you drink because you like the feeling?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	115	64
Almost never	15	8
Some of the time	15	8
Half the time	25	14
Most of the time	8	4
Almost always	3	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 61: How often do you drink because you like the feeling?
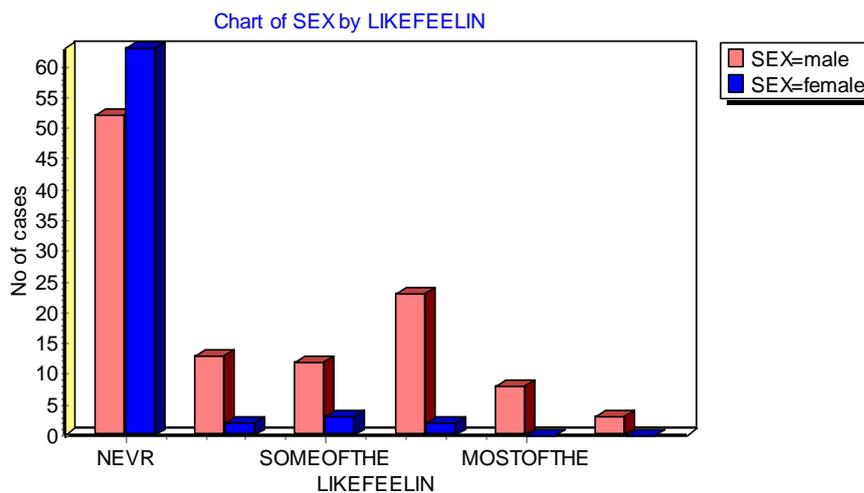
Frequency table number 61 and figure 61 indicate that 64% of participants responded *never* to the question, "How often do you drink because you like the feeling?" Eight percent (8%) responded *almost never,* 8% responded *some of the time,* 14.81% responded *half the time,* 4% responded *most of the time* and 1% responded *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=35.70; df=5; p=0.000 suggests that more males are likely to drink because they like the feeling as compared to females.

Frequency table 62: <u>How often do you drink to be liked?</u>

How often do you drink to be liked?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	107	59
Almost never	8	4
Some of the time	29	16
Half the time	20	11
Most of the time	13	7
Almost always	4	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 62: <u>How often do you drink to be liked?</u>
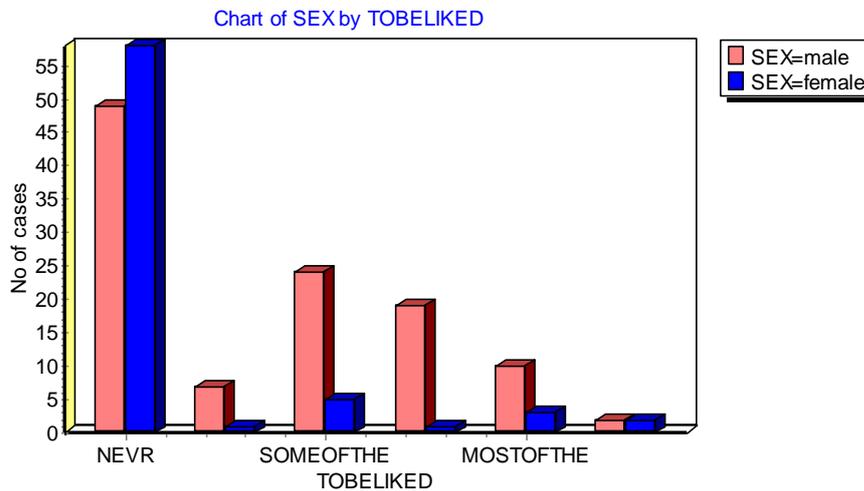
Frequency table number 62 and a figure 62 indicate that 59% of participants responded *never* to the question, "How often do you drink to be liked?" Four percent (4%) responded *almost never,* 16% responded *some of the time,* 11% responded *half the time,* 7% responded *most of the time* and 2% responded *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=29.92; df=5; p=0.000 which suggests that more females are less likely to drink in order to be liked than males.

Frequency table 63: <u>How often do you drink to forget your worries?</u>

How often do you drink to forget your worries?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	102	56
Almost never	23	13
Some of the time	27	15
Half the time	18	10
Most of the time	8	4
Almost always	3	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 63: <u>How often do you drink to forget your worries?</u>
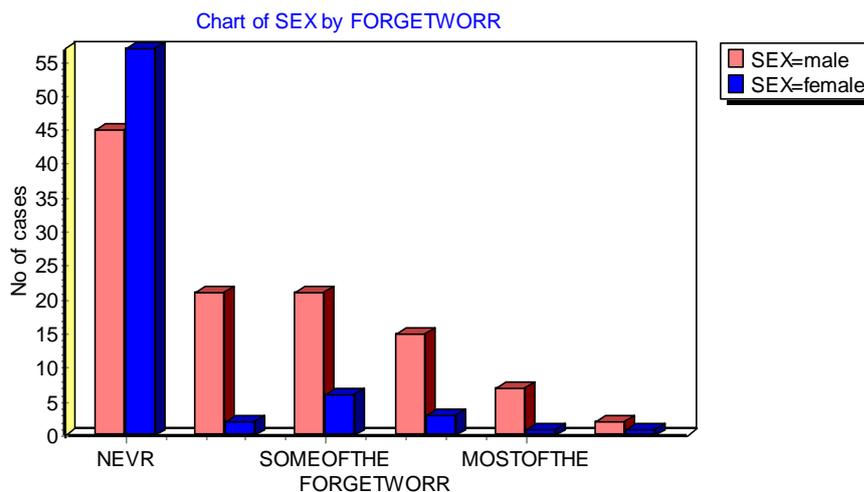
Frequency table number 63 and figure 63 indicate that 56% of participants responded *never* to the question, "How often do you drink to forget your worries?" Thirteen percent (13%) responded *almost never*, 15% responded *some of the time,* 9.94% responded *half the time,* 4% responded *most of the time* and 2% responded *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there is a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=30.55; df=5; p=0.000 which suggests that males are more likely to drink to forget their worries than females.

Frequency table 64: <u>How often do you drink because you feel more self- confident or sure of yourself?</u>

How often do you drink because you feel more self-confident or sure of yourself?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	105	58
Almost never	21	12
Some of the time	23	13%
Half the time	19	11
Most of the time	10	6
Almost always	3	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 64: <u>How often do you drink because you feel more self- confident or sure of yourself?</u>
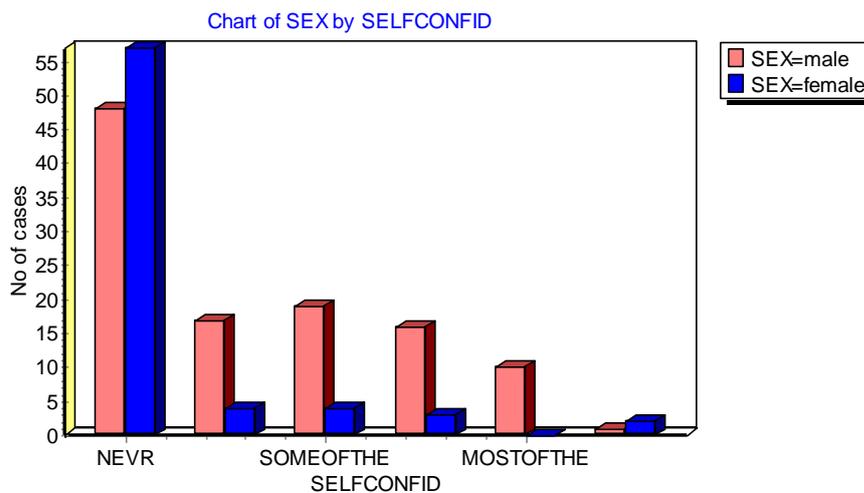
Frequency table number 64 and figure 64 indicate that 58% of participants responded *never* to the question, "How often do you drink because you feel more self-confident or sure of yourself?" Twelve percent (12%) responded *almost never,* 13% responded *some of the time,* 11% responded *half the time,* 6% responded *most of the time* and 2% responded *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=30.09; df=5; p=0.000 which suggests that more males are likely to drink because it makes them feel confident of sure of themselves than females.

Frequency table 65: How often would you say you drink to be sociable?

How often would you say you drink to be sociable?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	107	59
Almost never	16	9
Some of the time	24	13
Half the time	20	11
Most of the time	10	6
Almost always	4	2
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 65: How often would you say you drink to be sociable?
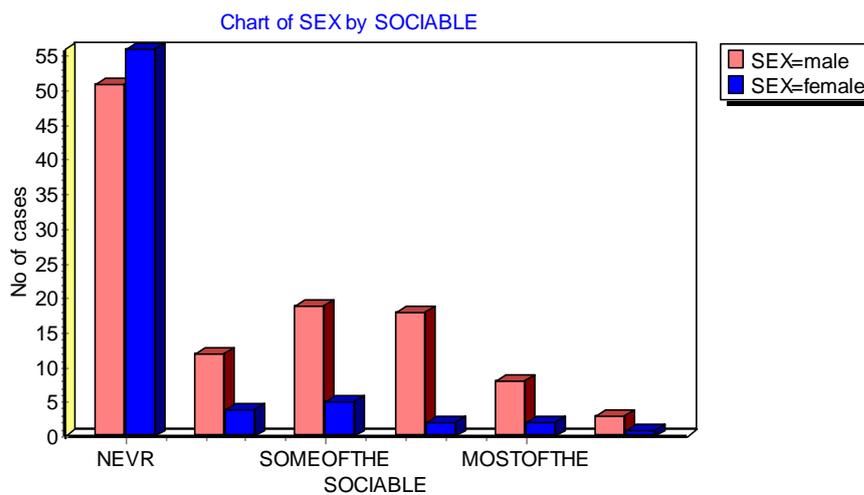
Frequency table number 65 and figure 65 indicate that 59% participants responded *never* to the question, "How often would you say you drink to be sociable?" Nine percent (9%) responded *almost never,* 13% responded *some of the time,* 11% responded *half the time,* 6% responded *most of the time* and 2% responded *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than .05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=21.62; df=5; p=0.001 which suggests that females are less likely to drink to be sociable than males.

Frequency table 66: <u>How often do you drink so you won't feel left out?</u>

How often do you drink so you won't feel left out?	Frequency	Percent%
Never	111	61
Almost never	16	9
Some of the time	23	13
Half the time	17	9
Most of the time	12	7
Almost always	2	1
Total	**181**	**100.00**

Figure 66: <u>How often do you drink so you won't feel left out?</u>
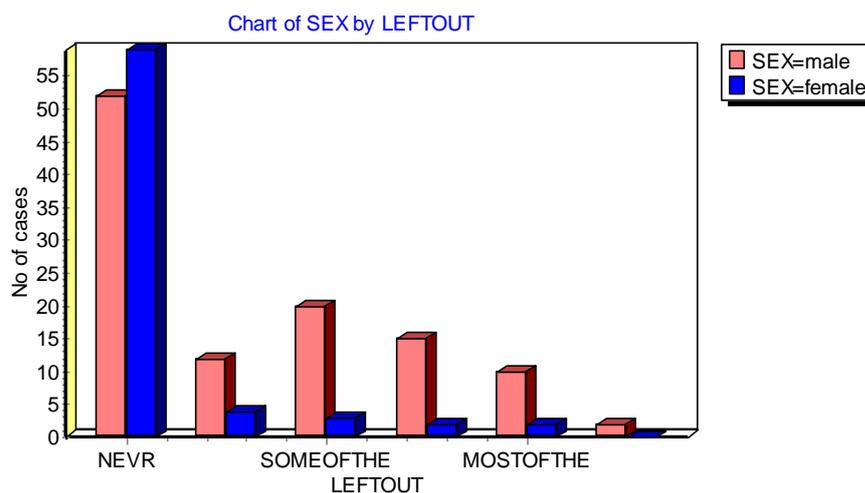
Frequency table number 66 and figure 66 indicate that 61% of participants responded *never* to the question, "How often do you drink so you won't feel left out?" Eight point eight four percent (9%) responded *almost never,* 13% responded *some of the time,* 9% responded *half the time,* 7% responded *most of the time* and 1.10% responded *almost always*. Here the probability value (p) is less than 0.05 (marked effects significant if p≤.05). This means that there a statistically significant relationship. The chi-square=26.35; df=5; p=0.000 suggests that males are more likely to drink so they don't feel left out as compared to females.

5.6 Summary

Chapter 5 presented the demographic results for the study and presented results from the different tools used in the research. Results were presented in the form of frequency tables and figures and the chi-square statistic. The following chapter discusses the results of the study.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 6 presents a discussion of all the results in the study.

6.2 Discussion of results

The study results are discussed firstly in terms of the study propositions and secondly in terms of significant results underpinned by the study framework namely Rogers (1977) Protection Motivation Theory (PMT).

6.2.1 Discussion in terms of the study propositions.

The results of each study proposition are discussed as follows.

6.2.1.1 Proposition 1: Second year male psychology students who drink alcohol at the University Of Limpopo (Turfloop campus) are more likely to have a best friend who shares common activities and similar drinking patterns than females.

Chi square table 1: Second year male psychology students who drink alcohol at the University Of Limpopo (Turfloop campus) are more likely to have a best friend who shares common activities and similar drinking patterns than females

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13.91	4	0.072
Likelihood Ratio	9.247	4	.235
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.443	1	.064
N of Valid Cases	181		

A chi-square test was carried out to determine whether second year male psychology students who drink alcohol at the University Of Limpopo (Turfloop campus) are more likely to have a best friend who shares common activities and similar drinking patterns than females. The findings indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship, p = 0.072, df 1 (marked effects significant if p≤00.05). This means that males are more likely to have a best friend who shares common activities and has similar drinking patterns than females. The proposition is thus upheld.

6.2.1.2 Proposition 2: There is an association between peer relationships and alcohol consumption at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop campus) amongst second year psychology students.

Chi square table 2: <u>There is an association between peer relationships and alcohol consumption at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop campus) amongst second year psychology students.</u>

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13.91	4	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	9.300	4	.240
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.550	1	.065
N of Valid Cases	181		

A chi-square test was carried out to determine if there is an association between peer relationships and alcohol consumption at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop campus) amongst second year psychology students. The findings indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship, p = 0.00, df 4 (marked effects significant if p≤00.05). This means that there is a statistically different relationship between peer relationships and alcohol consumption at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop campus).

6.2.1.3 Proposition 3: Males are more likely to drink alcohol with their friends than females

Chi square table 3: <u>Males are more likely to drink alcohol with their friends than females</u>

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12.58	4	0.0135
Likelihood Ratio	0.557	4	.046
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.547	1	.046
N of Valid Cases	181		

A chi-square test was carried out to determine if males are more likely to drink alcohol with their friends than females. The findings indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship, p = 0.0135, df 4 (marked effects significant if p≤00.05) in this case males are more likely to drink alcohol with their friends than females. The proposition is thus supported.

6.3 Discussion of other results in terms of Rogers (1975) Protection Motivation Theory (PMT) adapted by Monat and Lazarus (1991).

The overall results of the research are then discussed in terms of the Protection Motivation Theory (PMT) which includes intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (Rogers, 1977) and four of the following components: 1) pre – contemplation – people enter a stage when change is not really considered in a serious manner; 2) contemplation – people become aware of the benefits of change; 3) preparation – individuals begin to make changes towards a better lifestyle and 4) action – direct action is taken in terms of what is perceived as positive change (Monat & Lazarus, 1991).

6.3.1 Results from the Intimate Friendship Scale (Sharabany, 1974)

On the intimate friendship scale most of the results indicated that males and females had similar attitudes and views towards their friends (responses to 24 questions). For instance, both males and females are likely to stay with their friends when they want to do something that other people do not want to do (frequency table 4) and both males and females feel free

to talk to their friends about almost anything, find that exciting things happen when they are with their friends and no one else is around. Males and females also know that they can tell their friends secrets and the secrets will be kept between them (frequency tables 5, 6 and 8). Both genders also report that whenever they are seen it is pretty certain their friend is around as well, are able to tell their friends if they do something they do not like and know how their friends feel about their boyfriends or girlfriends (frequency tables 10, 11 and 12). It was also reported that both males and females are equally able to tell their friends when they are worried, have done things other people would not approve of and will let their friends have something they want, even if they want it themselves (frequency tables 13, 14 and 15). Furthermore, both genders work together equally well on school or university projects, do things with their friends that are different from what other people might do, plan how they will spend time with their friends without having to check with their friends first and speak up to defend their friends when other people say bad things about them (frequency tables 16, 17, 18 and 19). It was also found that males and females had the same ability to use their friends' things without asking, speak to their friends about the future, do things with their friends, work on hobbies with their friends and are likely to know how their friends feel without being told (frequency tables 20, 21, 22, 25 and 26). Additionally, both genders know what kind of hobbies and books their friends like, will not go along with others to do anything against their friend, have the same level of being bothered when other people join them, like their friends to the same extent and report that their friends will help them whenever they ask (frequency tables 27, 28, 30, 33 and 34). Finally, both males and females report that their friends hold similar views on alcohol to their own, are equally as likely to involved in study groups or going to the library, have no difference in reported levels of socialising in terms of going to church with friends and going to the movies or other types of socialising (frequency tables 37, 40, 41 and 43).

In terms of the Protection Motivation Theory (PMT) these results indicate that there are perceived rewards, both intrinsic and extrinsic resulting from peer friendships. These results suggest that intrinsic rewards that is, positive psychosocial and psychological benefits are likely to occur from having ongoing and positive peer friendships. It is likely that the participants who noted the above type of friendship behaviours may engage in more positive than maladaptive negative behaviours (Rogers, 1977) in terms of drinking alcohol.

Responses to 12 questions however, indicated there were significant differences in male and female friendships in the following areas. More females than males are likely to go shopping with their friends (frequency table 42, p = 0.041) and females also feel closer to their friends than males (frequency table 7, p = 0.008). More males report to playing sport with their friends than females (frequency table 38, p = 0.000) and males are more likely to go to bars with their friends than females (frequency table 36, p = 0.0333). Furthermore, more females are more likely to miss their friends when they are not around than males (frequency table 35, p = 0.000), they also only have to ask their friend to do something (and they will do it) significantly more so than males (frequency table 31, p = 0.000) and females are significantly more likely to listen to the problems that their friends have than males (frequency table 29, p = 0.009). Lastly, more females are significantly more likely to wonder what their friends are doing when they are not around than males (frequency table 24, p = 0.027) and are more significantly more likely to share their experience with a friend if something nice happens to them (p = 0.004).

From the aforementioned responses it seems likely that females are more likely to display positive behaviours with their friends and thus be rewarded in terms of positive intrinsic and extrinsic behaviours, that is, they are less likely to indulge in maladaptive behaviours. However, males as they are more likely to go to bars with their friends, are less likely to share their feelings and experiences thus may be more likely to engage in maladaptive behaviours (for instance, drinking too much alcohol), as they are less likely to perceive the inherent risks (Rogers, 1977).

6.3.2 Results from the Drinking Patterns Questionnaire Abbreviated (AllGood, 2008)

On the drinking patterns questionnaire results revealed that there is no significant difference between male and female participants in terms of the number of years (months) they have known their friends (frequency table 44). It was also noted that there is no significant difference between genders in terms of the number of times they have been in contact with their friends in the last three months (frequency table 45). This means that patterns of friendship, in terms of how long they have known and have contact with their friends, is similar in both genders.

A statistically significant relationship exists however, with females reporting that they are likely to have more occasions where they drink with their friends than males (p = 0.000).

This is interesting as males were significantly more likely to go to bars than females (see figure 39, p = 0.0333). The implication is that females are more likely to drink with their friends in their rooms or homes.

In this section results suggest that participants are in the pre-contemplation stage when the thought of changing any behaviour pattern is not considered seriously (Monat & Lazarus, 1991). This may be problematic as for instance, females drinking in their rooms and not going out may precipitate a pattern of behaviour where they are with their peer group and be inclined to drink more alcohol (or be influenced to drink more alcohol) than they would if they went out.

6.3.3 Results from the Drinking Motives Questionnaire (Cooper, 1994)

On the drinking motives questionnaire all the questions were shown to be statistically significant. Frequency table 47 indicates that more females are likely not to go and drink because it is exciting as compared to males (p = 0.003) whereas more males are likely to drink to celebrate a special occasion with their friends (frequency table 48) than females (p = 0.000). Furthermore, males are more likely to drink (p = 0.000) to celebrate a special occasion with their friends than females (frequency table 49). Frequency table 50 indicates a statistically significant result indicating that more males drink to get high (p = 0.000) as compared to females while females report to drinking less because their friends kid (or tease) them about not drinking (frequency table 51) than males (p = 0.000). More males are significantly likely to drink because it is fun than females (frequency table 52, p = 0.000), are more likely to go and drink when they are depressed as compared to females (frequency table, 53, p = 0.003) and are significantly more likely to drink because it improves parties and celebrations than females (frequency table 54, p = 0.000). Additionally, males are significantly more likely to drink because it makes social gatherings more fun than females (frequency table 55, p = 0.000), are more likely to drink to cheer themselves up than females when they are in a bad mood (frequency table 56, p = 0.000) and more males are likely to drink as it gives them a pleasant feeling as compared to females (frequency table 57, p = 0.000). Moreover, males are significantly more likely to drink to forget their problems than females (frequency table, 58, p = 0.000), are more likely to be pressured into drinking with their friends as compared to females (frequency table 59, p = 0.000), are more likely than females to drink in order to fit into a group they like (frequency table 60, p = 0.000) and are more likely to drink because they like the feeling as compared to females (frequency table 61,

p = 0.000). Females are significantly less likely to drink in order to be liked than males (frequency table 62, p = 0.000) while males are significantly more likely to drink to forget their worries than females (frequency table 63, p = 0.000). Lastly, males are more likely to drink because it makes them feel confident and sure of themselves than females (frequency table 64, p = 0.000), are more likely to drink so they don't feel left out as compared to females (frequency table 66, p = 0.000) while females are less likely to drink to be sociable than males (frequency table 65, p = 0.001).

The results indicate that males are more likely to drink to enhance their social standing amongst their peers than females. This suggests that males in the study are more likely to be influenced by peer pressure than females. In terms of PMT it is probable that males are at the pre-contemplation stage and are more likely not to consider change in terms of drinking behaviours than females as it appears they are more influenced by their peers. These results also suggest that an extrinsic reward, such as peer approval, is more important than a health threat to males as compared to females. They would thus be likely to participate in friendships which encourage negative, maladaptive behaviours. The intrinsic reward would thus be retaining friendship of their peer group (Rogers, 1977).

6.4 Research conclusion

Overall, significant results both from the research propositions and individual questions suggest that females are more likely to engage in positive peer friendships and behaviours than males. Responses from males who participated in the study suggests that they are more likely to engage in maladaptive behaviours and are more likely to be negatively influenced by their friends, in terms of alcohol consumption, than females. However, females may tend to underestimate how much they drink with their friends as they are less likely to go out to a bar and are more likely to drink in their rooms or homes than males.

CHAPTER 7: RESEARCH STRENGTHS, WEAKNESSES AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

The chapter gives the research strengths, weaknesses and recommendations arising out of the study.

7.2 Research evaluation

7.2.1 Methodological weaknesses

- A random sample would have been better in terms of reliability and validity.
- A random sample would have allowed the use of parametric statistics.

7.2.2 Methodological strengths

- Descriptive statistics and the chi-square were used which is appropriate for studies using convenience samples.
- The scales were standardised and thus reliable and valid.

7.3 Recommendations for future research

1. A larger study should be conducted across 1st, 2nd and 3rd year levels.
2. A qualitative study should be undertaken to find out why students find it difficult to say no to peer groups who display negative behaviours.

7.4 Summary

Chapter 7 finalised the research by evaluating its methodological strengths and weaknesses and giving ideas for further research.

References

Allgood, S.F. (2008). The Intimate Friendship Scale: Factors and association with drinking patterns among college aged friends. Wilmington: University of North Carolina.

Babbie, E. (2001). *Social Research: 9th Edition*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Thomson

Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2001).*The Practice of Social Research.* Cape Town: Oxford.

Bandura, A. (1991). Human agency: The rhetoric and the reality. *American Psychologist, (4)6*, 157-162.

Bandura, A. (1977).*Social Learning Theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall**.**

Bergh, D., Hagquist, C., & Starrin, B. (2011). Parental Monitoring, Peer Activities and Alcohol Use: A Study Based on Data on Swedish Adolescents. Retrieved from http://www.eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ916606

Berndt, T.J. (2004). Children's friendships: shifts over a half century in perspectives on their development and their effects. *Merrill Palmer Quarterly*, 50, 206-223.

Borsari, B. (2004). Drinking games in the college environment: A review.*Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education,* 48, 29-51.

Borsari, B., Bergen-Cico, D., & Carey, K.B. (2003).Self-reported drinking-games participation of in-coming college students. *Journal of American College Health,* 51(4): 149-154.

Botvin, G. J., Schinke, S. P., Epstein, J. A., & Diaz, T. (1994) Effectiveness of culturally focused and generic skills training approaches to alcohol and drug abuse prevention among minority youths Journal*: Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, 8(2), 116-127

Bremmer SC, Hall H, Martinez JS, Eissler CL, Hinrichsen TH, Rossie S, Parker LL, Hall MC, Charbonneau H

Caldwell, M. A., & Peplau, I. A. (1982). Sex differences in same-sex friendship, *Journal of sex roles*, 8, 7.

Cameron, J.M., Heidelberg, N., Simmons, L., Lyle, S.B., Mitra-Varma, K., &Correia, C. (2010).Drinking Game Participation among Undergraduate Students Attending National Alcohol Screening Day. *Journal of American College Health,* 58, 5.

Cohen. D. (2007). A global measure of perceived stress. *Journal of Health and Social behaviour,* 24, 385-396.

Cooper, M.L. (1994). Motivations for alcohol use among adolescents: Development and validation of a four-factor model. *Psychological Assessment*, 6, 117-128.

Crawford, L.A., & Novak, K.B. (2010). Beliefs about Alcohol and the College Experience as Moderators of the Effects of Perceived Drinking Norms on -Student Alcohol use. *Journal of Drug Education,* 3.7-1.

De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouche, C.B., & Delport, C.S.L. (2005). *Research at grassroots for the social sciences and human services professions*, 3rd Ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Dick, D. M., Viken, R., Purcell, S., Kaprio, J., Pulkkinen, L., & Rose, R. J. (2007). Parental monitoring moderates the importance of genetic and environmental influences on adolescent smoking. *J AbnormPsychol*, 116(1), 213-218.

Dishon, T.J., & Owen, L.D. (2002). A longitudinal analysis of friendships and substance use: Bidirectional influence from adolescence to adult-hood. *Developmental Psychology*, (38), 480—491

Dlamini, J.B., Rugbeer, H., Naidoo, R.M., Metso, R.M., & Moodley, P.M. (2012).The effects of alcohol consumption on student life at a rural campus.*Jnl Hum &SocSci*, 4(1).

Douglas, P. (1987). Bizz-buzz, turtles, quarters, and one horse club: the role of drinking games among high school and college students. *Alcohol Health Res World*, 11, 54–57.

Dusek, J.B. (1987). *Adolescent development and behaviour*. New Jersey: Englewood Cliffs.

Elliot, A.J.,& Dweck, C.S. (2005). *Handbook of Competence and Motivation*. USA: Gulf Press.

Engs, R.C., Diebold, B. A., & Hanson, D.J. (1994).The drinking patterns and problems of a national sample of college students. *Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education,* 41(3):13–33.

Feld, S.L. (1981).Why your friends have more friends than you do. *American Journal of Sociology,* 96, 1464–1477.

Festinger, L., Schachter, S., & Back, K.W. (1950).*Social Pressures in Informal Groups: A Study of Human Factors in Housing*. New York: Harper.

Fletcher, J.M, & Ross L.S. (2012). Estimating the Effects of Friendship Networks on Health Behaviours of Adolescents. New York: Prentice-Hall.

Ghuman, S., Meyer-Weitz, A., Knight, S. (2012), Prevalence patterns and predictors of alcohol use and abuse among secondary school students. *S AfrPract,* 54 (2), 132-138.

Hartup, G. (1996). *Peer influence, friends, alcohol, cigarettes, marijuana use*. Retrieved from http://www.wikipedia.org.

Hays, R.B. (1985).A longitudinal study of friendship development. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 48, 909-924.

Higgins, K., McCann, M., McLaughlin, A., McCartan, C.,& Perra, O. (2013). Investigating parental monitoring, school and family influences on adolescent alcohol use. *End of project report for Alcohol Research UK*. Institute of Child Care Research. Belfast, Ireland: Queen's University Belfast.

Jaccard, J., Dodge, T. & Blanton, H. (2005). Peer influences on risk behaviour. An analysis of the effects of a close friend: *Developmental Psychology*, 1412 (1), 135-147.

Jacob, T., & Leonard, K. (1994). Family and peer influences on the development of adolescent alcohol abuse. In Zucker, R., Boyd, G., & Howard, J. (Eds.), *The development of alcohol problems: Exploring the bio-psychosocial matrix of risk*, pp. 123– 155. Washington, DC: National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism.

Johnson, O. (2008). Ecology in educational theory: Thoughts on ecology, stratification and proximal capital. *Urban Review*, 40(3).

Johnson, T.J., & Sheets, V.L. (2004).Measuring college students' motives for playing drinking games. *Psychol Addict Behaviour*, 18, 91–99.

Kenny, G., & Donaldson, M. (1991).Contributions of parental attachment and family
structure to the social and psychological functioning of first-year college students.
Journal of Counseling Psychology, 38(4), 479-486.

Klein, H. (1992). College students' attitudes towards the use of alcoholic beverages. *Journal
of alcohol and drug education*, (3), 35-52.

Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities.
Educational and Psychological Measurement, 30, 607-610.

LaBrie JW, Huchting K, Tawalbeh S, Pedersen ER, Thompson AD, Shelesky K, Larimer M,
Neighbors C. (2007) A randomized motivational enhancement prevention group
reduces drinking and alcohol consequences in first-year college women. *Psychol.
Addict. Behav.* (22),149–15

Larimer, M.E., Irvine, D.L., Kilmer, J.R., &Marlatt, G.A. (1997). College drinking and the
Greek system: Examining the role of perceived norms for high-risk behaviour.
Journal of College Student Development, 38(6), 587–598.

Larose, S. & Boivin, M. (1998).Attachment to parents, social support expectations, and
socioemotional adjustment during the high-school transition. *Journal of Research on
Adolescence,* 8, 1-27.

MacDonell, K., Chen, X., Yan, Y., Li, F., & Gong, J. (2013). A Protection Motivation
Theory-Based Scale for Tobacco Research among Chinese Youth *Addict Res
Therapy,* 4, 154.

Marshal, M.P., & Chassin, L. (2000). Peer influence on adolescent alcohol use: The
moderating role of parental support and discipline. *Applied Developmental
Science.(* 4), 80–88.

Marsiglia, F.F., Hoffman, S., & Ayers, S.L. (2012). Religiosity and Adolescent Substance
Use in Central Mexico: Exploring the Influence of Internal and External Religiosity
on Cigarette and Alcohol Use. *American Journal of community psychology,* 49, 87–
97.

Martin, C.M., & Hoffman, M.A. (1993).Alcohol expectancies, living environment,   peer influence, and gender: A model of college-student drinking. *Journal of College Student Developmen*t, 34, 206–211.

McAlaney, J., & McMahon, J. (2007). Diagnosing and dealing with the new British disease. Retrieved from http://www.thepsychologist.org.uk/archive/archive

McPherson, M., Smith-Lovin, L., & Cook, J.M. (2001). Birds of a feather: Homophily in social networks. *Ann. Rev. Social*, 27, 415-44.

Milne, G., Sheeran, P. &Orbell, S. (2000). Prediction and intervention in health-related behaviour: A meta-analytic review of protection motivation theory. *Journal of Applied Social Psycholog*y, 30 (1), 106-43.

Mogotsi, M. (2011).An investigation into the alcohol use of 1st year psychology studentsat the University of Limpopo (Medunsa Campus).MSc (Unpublished) University of Limpopo (Medunsa Campus), Ga-Rankuwa, Pretoria.

Monat, A., & Lazarus, R. (1991). *Stress and coping: an anthology*. New York: Columbia.

Monti, P.M.; Rohsenow, D.J.; Rubonis, A.; Niaura, R.; Sirota, A.; Colby, S.; Goddard, P.; & Abrams, D.B. (1993). Cue exposure with coping skills treatment for male alcoholics: A preliminary investigation. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology* (61), 1011–1019

Morojele, N.K., Ziervogel, C.F., Parry, C.D.H., & Robertson, B.A. Predicting binge drinking intentions of South African adolescents. *Presented at the 41st International Congress (May 1997)on Alcohol & Addictions on the Prevention and Treatment of Drug Dependencies, Cairo.*

Nagle, B. M., McHale, J. M., Alexander, G. A., & French, B. M. (2009).Incorporating scenario-based simulation into a hospital nursing education program. *The Journal of Continuing Education in Nursing,* 40(1), 18-25.

Newman, I. M., Crawford, J.K., & Nellis, M.J. (1991).The role and function of drinking games in a university community. *Journal of American College Health*, 39(4), 171–175.

NIAAA (2004). Council approved definition of binge drinking. Retrieved from
http://www.rethinkingdrinking.niaaa.nih.gov

Parry, C.D.H. & Bennett, A.L. (1998). *Alcohol policy and public health in South Africa*. Cape
Town: Oxford Press.

Pascall, M., Grube, J.W., Black, C. & Ringwalt, C. (2007). Is commercial alcohol availability
related to adolescent alcohol use? *Journal of adolescent health*, 168-174.

Reis, H.T. (1990).The role of intimacy in interpersonal relations. *Journal of Social and
Clinical Psychology,* 9, 15-30.

Reis, J., & Riley,W.L. (2000). Predictors of college students' alcohol consumption:
Implications for student education. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 16, 282–291.

Rose, S. M. (1985). Same and cross-sex friendships and the psychology of homosociality. *Sex
Roles*, 12, 63-74.

Rogers, R.W. *(1983).* Cognitive and physiological processes in fear appeals and attitude
change: A revised theory of protection motivation. New York: Guilford Press.

Rogers, R. W. (1975). A protection motivation theory of fear appeals and attitude change.
Journal of Psychology, 91, 93-114.

Rogers, R. W. (1975). Cognitive and physiological processes in fear appeals and attitude
change: A revised theory of protection motivation. *Social Psychophysiology*. New
York: Guilford Press.

Rocha-Silva, L. (1989). Drinking practices, drinking-related attitudes and public impressions
of services for alcohol and other drug problems in South Africa. Pretoria: Human
Sciences Research Council. Pretoria: HSRC.

Rubin, D. C. (2006). The Basic-Systems Model of Episodic Memory. *Perspectives on
Psychological Science,* (1), 277-311

Ryan, A.M & Ladd, G.W. (2012). Peer relationships and adjustment to school. New York:
Information age publishing..

Sharabany, R. (1974). Intimate Friendship among Kibbutz and City Children and its Measurement. PhD (Unpublished), Cornell University, USA.

Sharabany, R. (1994). Intimate friendship scale: Conceptual Underpinnings, psychometric properties and construct validity. *Journal of Social Personal Relationships,* 11, 449-469.

Simons-Morton, B., Chen, R., Abroms, L., & Haynie, D. L. (2004). Adolescent smoking: recent findings on peer group influence. Retrieved from http:// www.medscape.com/viewarticle/731441_7

Smit, T., Pretorious, S. & Joubert, T. (2009). Assessing the potential for alcohol related issues among college students. Retrieved from http:// www.onlinejournals.co.za

Sullivan, H.S. (1953). *The Interpersonal Theory of Psychiatry.* New York: Norton.

Taylor, M., Jinabhai, C., Naidoo, K., Kleinschmidt, S.B., & Dlamini, K. (2003). An Epidemiological perspective of substance use among high school pupils in Rural KwaZuluNatal.*South African Medical Journal,* (93), 136-140.

Turrisi, R. (2012). A parent handbook for talking with college students about alcohol prevention Research Center, PSU: The Pennsylvania State University

Verbrugge, L.M. (1977). The structure of adult friendship choices, *Social Forces*, 56, 576-597.

Wall, A., Thrussell, C., & Lalonde, R.N. (2003). Do alcohol expectancies become intoxicated outcomes? A test of social learning theory in a naturalistic setting. *Addictive Behaviours,* 28, 1271 – 1284.

Wechsler, H., Dowdall, G., Davenport, A., & Castillo, S. (1995). Correlates of college student binge drinking. *American Journal of Public Health*, 85, 921–926.

Wells, G.M. (2010). The Effect of Religiosity and campus alcohol culture on collegiate alcohol consumption. *Journal of American College Health,* 58, 4.

Windle, M., & Davies, P. T. (1999). Developmental theory and research. In K.E. Leonard & H.T. Blane (Eds.), *Psychological theories of drinking and alcoholism* (2nd ed., pp. 164-202). New York: Guilford Press

Wood, M.D., Read, J.P., Mitchell, R.E., & Brand, N.H. (2004). Do parents still matter? Parent and peer influences on alcohol involvement among recent high school graduates. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviours,* 18 (1), 19–30.

Wood, M.D., Vinson, D.C., & Sher, K.J. (2001). Alcohol use and misuse, *Handbook of Health Psychology*. Hillsdale: Erlbaum

Yanovitzky, I., Stewart. L.P. & Lederman, L.C. (2006). Social distance perceived drinking by peers. Health communication, (1), 1-10.

Zamboanga, B.L., Schwartz, S.J., Van Tyne, K., Ham, S.L., Olthuis, J.V., Huang, S., Kim, S.Y., Hudson, M., Forthun, L.F., Bersamin, M., &Weisskirch, R. (2010). Drinking game behaviors among college students: How often and how much? *The American Journal of Drug and Alcohol Abuse*, 36, 175–179.

Ziervogel, C.F., Morojele, N.K., Van der Riet, J., Parry, C.D.H., & Robertson, B.A.A. (2004). Qualitative investigation of adolescent drinking among male high school students from three communities in the Cape Peninsula, South Africa. Retrieved from http:www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0140197103001039

Appendix 1 (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970) sampling frame

APPENDIX 2 - COVERING LETTER FOR QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO (Turfloop campus)

Department of psychology

Mpho DaphneyNeluvhalani

E-mail: gundomd@gmail.com

Dear student,

Invitation to participate in a research study titled: The Influence of peer friendships on drinking patterns amongst second year students at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop Campus)

My name is Neluvhalani Mpho Daphney. I am a Masters student in Clinical Psychology. I would like to invite you to participate in the abovementioned study. The aim of the study is to investigate the influence of peer friendships on drinking patterns amongst second year students at the University of Limpopo students (Turfloop campus). The research is important for determining whether the observed high rates of drinking on campus are partially a result of peer influence, I would really like you to participate. It is important that you fill in all the questions in the questionnaire as honestly as possible and hand it to me. Your answers to this questionnaire will be treated confidently. If you do participate and feel that you may need help please contact me or my supervisor at the e-mail addresses provided. Your co-operation will be highly appreciated. For further inquiries you can e-mail me at: gundomd@gmail.com or e-mail my supervisor Prof K A Nel at: knel@ul.ac.za

Thank you

Neluvhalani Mpho Daphney

Masters Student (Clinical Psychology)

Supervisor Prof Kathryn Nel (Dept. Psychology)

APPNDIX 3: Questionnaire–Part A–Demographics

Instructions: Please mark the correct block with an X and fill in your age.

Male		Female	
Age		Age	

What religion do you follow, if any?

_____

Part B - Intimate Friendship Scale (Sharabany, 1974)

The following part of the questionnaire asks about the relationship between you and your best friend. Next to each statement, please put the number (1-5) that corresponds with your opinion of how well it describes your relationship with your friend. Remember, this is specifically about your best friend, not your friends in general.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

1. I stick with my friend when my friend wants to do something that other people don't want to do.	
2. I feel free to talk to my friend about almost anything.	
3. The most exciting things happen when I am with my friend and nobody else is around.	
4. I feel close to my friend.	
5. I know that whatever I tell my friend will be kept secret between us.	
6. I tell people nice things about my friend.	
7. Whenever you see me, you can be pretty sure that my friend is around, too.	
8. If my friend does something I don't like, I can always talk to him/ her about it.	
9. If know how my friend feels about his/her girlfriend/boyfriend.	
10. I can tell when my friend is worried about something.	
11. I can tell my friend when I have done things that other people do not approve of.	
12. If my friend wants something, I let him/her have it, even if I want it too (as well).	
13. I work with my friend on some university or work projects.	

14. I do things with my friends that are quite different than what other people might do.	
15. I can plan how we'll spend our time without first having to check with my friend.	
16. I speak up to defend my friend when other people say bad things about him/her.	
17. I can use my friend's things without asking permission.	
18. I talk to my friend about my hopes and plans for the future.	
19. I like to do things with my friend.	
20. When something nice happens to me, I share the experience with my friend.	
21. When my friend is not around, I keep wondering where he/she is and what he/she are doing.	
22. I work with my friend on some hobbies.	
23. I know how my friend feels about things without having to be told.	
24. I know what kind of books, hobbies and other activities my friend likes.	
25. I will not go along with others to do anything against my friend.	
26. I offer my friend the use of my things (like clothes, possessions, food, etc)	
27. It bothers me to have other people come around and join in when the two of us are doing something together.	
28. If I want my friend to do something for me, all I have to do is ask.	
29. Whenever my friend wants to tell me about a problem, I stop what I am doing and listen for as long as my friend wants.	
30. I like my friend.	
31. I can be sure that my friend will help me whenever I ask for it.	
32. When my friend is not around, I miss him/her.	
33. I enjoy drinking (alcohol) with my friend.	
34. My friend's views on alcohol are very similar to mine.	

35. Please list the major activities you and your friend engage in together (for example, going to the movies, going out to bars, playing sport, studying in the library.)

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Part C - Drinking Patterns Questionnaire Abbreviated- (Allgood, 2008)

Instruction: Mark the appropriate answer with an X or fill in as required

1. How long have you known your best friend? ___ (no. of years); if less than 1 year, ___ (no. of months)

2. During the past three months, how often have you been in contact with your friend?

1. Daily	
2. almost every day (about 5-6 days per week)	
3. about every other day (about 3-4 days per week)	
4. weekly (about 1-2 days per week)	
5. weekly (about once every other week)	
6. monthly (about once or twice a month)	
7. less than monthly (once or twice in past three months)	

2. During the past month (i.e., the past 30 days), on how many occasions did you and your friend consume alcohol (e.g. beer, wine, or hard liquor) together? Please provide your best estimate. Remember to think about recent parties, social gatherings, and any school based activities that involved drinking. Number of occasions spent drinking together _____.

Part D - Drinking Motives Questionnaire (Cooper, 1994) - Here is a list of reasons people give for drinking alcoholic beverages. Using the response categories below, please indicate how often YOU drink for each of the following reasons. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions. We just want to know about the reasons why you usually drink when you do. If you do not drink please write that you do not drink and move to the "Social Networks and higher education setting questions."

Never	Almost never	Some of the time	about half of the time	Most of the time	Almost always
1	2	3	4	5	6

1. How often do you drink because it's exciting?	
2. How often do you drink to celebrate a special occasion with friends?	
3. How often do you drink because it helps you enjoy a party?	
4. How often do you drink to get high?	
5. How often do you drink so that others won't kid you about not drinking?	
6. How often do you drink because it's fun?	
7.How often do you drink because it helps you when you feel depressed or nervous?	
8. How often do you drink because it improves parties and celebrations?	
9. How often do you drink because it makes social gatherings more fun?	
10. How often do you drink to cheer up when you're in a bad mood?	
11. How often do you drink because it gives you a pleasant feeling?	
12. How often do you drink to forget about your problems?	
13. How often do you drink because your friends pressure you to drink?	
14. How often would you say you drink to fit in with a group you like?	
15. How often do you drink because you like the feeling?	
16. How often do you drink to be liked?	
17. How often do you drink to forget your worries?	
18. How often do you drink because you feel more self- confident or sure of yourself?	
19. How often would you say you drink to be sociable?	
20. How often do you drink so you won't feel left out?	

Appendix 4: Ethical approval forms

PROJECT TITLE: The Influence of peer friendships on drinking patterns amongst second year students at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop Campus)

PROJECT LEADER: Daphney Mpho Neluvhalani

DECLARATION

I, the signatory, hereby apply for approval to conduct research described in the attached research proposal and declare that:

1. I **am fully** aware of the guidelines and regulations for ethical research and that I will abide by these guidelines and regulations as set out in documents (available from the Secretary of the Ethics Committee); and

2. I undertake to provide every person who participates in this research project with the relevant information in Part III. Every participant will be requested to sign Part IV.

Name of Researcher: Daphney Mpho Neluvhalani

…………………………………………………………………………..

Signature:…………………………………

Date:………………………………………

For Official use by the Ethics Committee:

Approved/Not approved
Remarks:………………………………………………………………………………………………...
………
……..
……..

Signature of Chairperson:………………………………………..

Date:………………………

FORM B - PART II

PROJECT TITLE: The Influence of peer friendships on drinking patterns amongst second year students at the University of Limpopo(Turfloop Campus)

PROJECT LEADER: Daphney Mpho Neluvhalani

Protocol for conducting research using human participants

1. Department: Psychology

2. Title of project: The Influence of peer friendships on drinking patterns amongst second year students at the University of Limpopo(Turfloop Campus)

3. Full name, surname and qualifications of project leader:
   Daphney Mpho Neluvhalani   BPsych M1 Clinical Psychology

4. List the name(s) of all persons (Researchers and Technical Staff) involved with the project and identifies their role(s) in the conduct of the experiment:

   Name: Qualifications: Responsible for:
   Daphney Mpho Neluvhalani BPsych M1 Clin Psych   The research

5. Name and address of principal researcher: Daphney Mpho Neluvhalani c/o Mankweni Hospital, Polokwane.

6. Procedures to be followed: Handing out self-report questionnaires and collecting them.

7. Nature of discomfort: The material in the questionnaires may cause respondents feel uncomfortable because of the sensitive nature of the questions. They will be asked to e-mail either myself or my supervisor if this is the case and they will be referred to an appropriate person to discuss the issue.

8. Description of the advantages that may be expected from the results of the study: to identify the extent to which friends influence each other in terms of drinking patterns (alcohol) or not.

Signature of Project Leader:………………………………………………………………

Date:……………………

PART III - INFORMATION FOR PARTICIPANTS

PROJECT TITLE: The Influence of peer friendships on drinking patterns amongst second year students at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop Campus)

PROJECT LEADER: Daphney Mpho Neluvhalani

1. You are invited to participate in the following research project:
2. The Influence of peer friendships on drinking patterns amongst second year students at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop Campus)

3. Participation in the project is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the project (without providing any reasons) at any time.

4. It is possible that you might not personally experience any advantages during the project, although the knowledge that may be accumulated through the project might prove advantageous to others.

5. You are encouraged to ask any questions that you might have in connection with this project at any stage. The project leader and her/his staff will gladly answer your question. They will also discuss the project in detail with you.

6. You may feel uncomfortable on responding to questions on the self-report questionnaire. The material in the questionnaires may cause you to feel uncomfortable because of the sensitive nature of the questions. You may e-mail either myself at gundomd@gmail.com or my supervisor knel@ul.ac.za if this is the case and they will be referred to an appropriate person to discuss the issue.

7. Should you at any stage feel unhappy, uncomfortable or is concerned about the research, please contact **Ms Noko Shai-Ragoboyaat the University of Limpopo, Private Bag X1106, Sovenga, 0727, tel: 015 268 2401.**

PART IV - CONSENT FORM

PROJECT TITLE: The Influence of peer friendships on drinking patterns amongst second year students at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop Campus)

PROJECT LEADER: Daphney Mpho Neluvhalani

I, _____

Hereby voluntarily consent to participate in the following project: The Influence of peer friendships on drinking patterns amongst second year students at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop Campus)

I realise that:

1.   The study deals with the influence of peer friendship on drinking patterns

2.   The procedure or treatment envisaged may hold some risk for me that cannot be foreseen at this stage.

3.   The Ethics Committee has approved that individuals may be approached to participate in the study.

4.   The research project, i.e. the extent, aims and methods of the research, has been explained to me.

5.   The project sets out the risks that can be reasonably expected as well as possible discomfort for persons participating in the research, an explanation of the anticipated advantages for myself or others that are reasonably expected from the research and alternative procedures that may be to my advantage.

6.   I will be informed of any new information that may become available during the research that may influence my willingness to continue my participation.

7.   Access to the records that pertain to my participation in the study will be restricted to persons directly involved in the research.

8.   Any questions that I may have regarding the research, or related matters, will be answered by the researcher/s.

9.   If I have any questions about, or problems regarding the study, or experience any undesirable effects, I may contact a member of the research team or **Ms Noko Shai-Ragoboya.**

10.   Participation in this research is voluntary and I can withdraw my participation at any stage.

11.   If any medical problem is identified at any stage during the research, or when I am vetted for participation, such condition will be discussed with me in confidence by a qualified person and/or I will be referred to my doctor.

12.   I indemnify the University of Limpopo and all persons involved with the above project from any liability that may arise from my participation in the above project or that may be related to it, for whatever reasons, including negligence on the part of the mentioned persons.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCHED PERSON   SIGNATURE OF WITNESS

_____   _____

Signed at_____ this ____ day of _____ 20__