

Annual Research & Review in Biology 4(1): 174-187, 2014



SCIENCEDOMAIN international www.sciencedomain.org

## With Whom Did You Drink Last Time? An Analysis of Adolescents' Alcohol Use

## Kristjan Kask<sup>1,2\*</sup> and Anna Markina<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>University of Tartu, Institute of Public Law, Kaarli pst. 3, Tallinn, 10119, Estonia. <sup>2</sup>Estonian National Defence College, Riia 12, Tartu, 51013, Estonia.

## Authors' contributions

Author KK wrote the first draft of the manuscript and performed the statistical analysis. Author AM assisted with the statistical analysis and contributed in writing the results, discussion and conclusion. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

**Research Article** 

Received 26<sup>th</sup> June 2013 Accepted 7<sup>th</sup> September 2013 Published 4<sup>th</sup> October 2013

## ABSTRACT

**Aims:** Adolescents' use of alcohol in Europe is high. In this paper aspects of adolescents' alcohol use, namely differences in gender, age and country clusters concerning social context of drinking, are examined.

Study Design: A secondary analysis of the survey data.

**Place and Duration of Study:** Adolescents from 25 European countries (N = 57,771) filled in the Second International Self-Report Delinquency Study (ISRD-2) survey in 2006.

**Methodology:** A sub-sample from the larger ISRD-2 sample was drawn by selecting students from grades 7 to 9 in the age from 12 to 16. The dependent variables were social context of drinking light and strong alcohol, and last time use of alcohol. The independent variables were gender, age and country clusters (Northern, Western, Southern and Eastern Europe).

**Results:** Alcohol was used more with peers. Boys consumed alcohol more likely alone compared to girls. In Northern and Western Europe the proportion of drinking with peers was relatively high; in Southern Europe drinking with parents was high; in Southern and Eastern Europe drinking alone was high. The proportion of those adolescents who drank alcohol alone or with parents decreased by age; those who drank it with peers increased by age. Drinking alone in younger age is more prevalent in boys. A larger amount of alcohol was drunk with peers compared to alone or with parents.

Conclusion: Many prevention programs aim at family and/or school as important actors;

<sup>\*</sup>Corresponding author: Email: kristjan.kask@ut.ee;

however, for at least some group of adolescents an individual approach is needed.

Keywords: Alcohol use; social context of drinking; adolescents.

## **1. INTRODUCTION**

Adolescent alcohol use is related to a variety of problem behaviours, including drinking and driving, risky sex, violence [1] and also suicidal behaviour [2]. Alcohol use among adolescents in Europe is high and largely influenced by social and environmental factors [3]. Among 12 to 16-year-old students in grades seven to nine 60.6% had drunk alcohol in their lifetime and 27.7% in last month [4]. Adolescents often consumed light alcohol (beer and/or wine, 59.6% in lifetime and 26.5% in last month), however, the number of students who consumed strong alcohol (spirits) frequently was also high - one out of every three students (34%) has drunk strong alcohol at least once and 13% has done so in the last month [4]. Similar results have been found in other surveys [5].

In the current paper social context of drinking alcohol is examined. It is known that adolescents mostly consume alcohol with peers [4]. However, we are interested in more-indepth analysis of other social drinking contexts (i.e. drinking alone, with family members or other adults) in different regions of Europe. Thus, a brief literature overview of social context of alcohol use is given followed by information about clustering different European countries.

## 1.1 Social Context of Drinking

The social context of drinking refers to the immediate situational, temporal, and motivational factors that influence drinking behaviour [6-8]. In the literature several social contexts of drinking have been identified [6-7] such as: (i) socially facilitated drinking (e.g., drinking at a party with friends to have a good time); (ii) peer acceptance (e.g., to gain approval of the group, act older or to fit in); (iii) emotional pain (e.g., to forget about personal problems); (iv) drinking in family (e.g., in family celebrations or religious events); (v) sex seeking (e.g., to gain courage to talk to someone); and (vi) drunk driving.

The issue of social context of drinking has been widely studied among different groups, i.e. adults, young adults and also adolescents. Gronkjaer et al. [9] examined alcohol use in Denmark and found that alcohol use is perceived as legitimate in many social contexts with few being defined as inappropriate. For example, drinking alone was mostly associated with having alcohol-related problems (e.g. problems in controlling drinking behaviour); however, drinking socially played an important role in people's considerations of legitimate use and seems to overrule the actual alcohol amount consumed. They conclude that the social context of drinking is crucial in people's perception of the legitimacy of their alcohol use, leaving the alcohol amount less important. Beck et al. [10] found that among college students alcohol abusers were less likely to drink in a family context than were non-problem drinkers. Depressed students drank alcohol significantly less frequently in a context of social facilitation but more in a context of emotional pain. Wells et al. [11] examined 17 to 21-yearolds and found that drinking in public locations away from home was found to be significantly associated with a greater likelihood of fights after drinking among females. Concerning gender differences, Koposov et al. [12] found in Russia among 14 to 17-year-olds that high intensity drinking girls were likely to drink in most social contexts, whereas high intensity drinking boys were more likely to drink to control stress (i.e., drinking alone).

The concept of drinking alcohol with the family has two sides [13]. On one hand, harmminimization policies suggest that alcohol use is a part of normal adolescent development and that parents should supervise their children's use to encourage responsible drinking. For example, parental supervision is hypothesized to be related to more moderate drinking among adolescents in countries with harm-minimization policies which support learning responsible drinking patterns in supervised settings [14-15].

On the other hand, zero-tolerance policies suggest that all underage alcohol use should be discouraged (as consuming alcohol is illegal for minors in many countries, especially those younger than 16 years of age). It has been noted that supervised use of alcohol (e.g., parental provision of alcohol at parties or at home) is associated with risky use [16-17] and subsequent drinking over time [18-19]. Komro et al. [19] report that at the age of 12, parental provision of alcohol, the availability and accessibility of alcohol at home, and parental report of providing alcohol to their children were associated with significant increase in the young adolescents' alcohol use. These results indicate that it is risky for parents to allow children to drink during early adolescence and they conclude that when these findings are considered together with the risks associated with early onset of alcohol use, it is clear that parents play an important role in alcohol prevention.

McMorris et al. [13] found that supervised alcohol use results in higher levels of alcohol use which oppose to predictions derived from harm-minimization policy. Their findings challenge the harm-minimization hypothesis according to which supervised alcohol use or early-age alcohol use will reduce the development of adolescent alcohol problems. Van der Vorst et al. [20] note also that adolescents' alcohol use increases over time, regardless of settings or with whom they drink; thus, the prevention workers should focus on making parents more aware of their role in delaying the age at drinking onset.

## **1.2 Clustering Countries**

In classifying countries involved in the Second International Self Report-Delinquency Study (ISRD-2) the idea of different national welfare regimes was used [21-22]. This approach is formed using the principle that all individuals provide for their needs by producing essentially goods and services in three different ways: 1) they work on the market place and get paid; 2) they pay taxes to the state and they may expect in return important public services and income transfers; and 3) civil society (charities) and the family offer services and support [21-22]. Esping-Andersen [21,23] has categorised societies into three: the social democratic model (Scandinavian countries); the liberal model (Anglo-Saxon countries); and the corporatist model (continental Europe) for a closer description of the categories see [24]. More lately, Latin or Southern model [25-27] along with Post-Socialist model [28-29] were added to the typology.

Using the Esping-Anderson typology elaborated by Saint-Arnaud and Bernard [22] the countries were grouped into four country clusters: Western Europe (Germany, France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Austria, Ireland and Switzerland); Northern Europe (Finland, Sweden, Norway, Denmark and Iceland); Southern Europe (Spain, Italy, Portugal and Cyprus); and finally Eastern Europe (Czech Republic, Poland, Hungary, Estonia, Lithuania, Slovenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Armenia, and Russia).

However, the way we classified countries differ from the classification of Saint-Arnaud and Bernard in several aspects. First, Iceland which originally belongs to the cluster of liberal model, is placed into the Northern European cluster. Second, Ireland (also liberal welfare

regime) is placed into the Western-Europe cluster as it is the only Anglo-Saxon country in our sample. Third, two countries which were not part Saint-Arnaud's and Bernard's analyses are placed respectively to the Western European cluster (Switzerland) and Southern Europe (Cyprus).

## 1.3 Current Study

It has been found previously in analyzing ISRD-2 data that adolescents tend to consume alcohol more often with their peers and in Southern Europe adolescents tend to consume alcohol more often with their parents than in other regions [3]. In this paper in the secondary analysis of ISRD-2 data the differences in gender, age and country clusters concerning social context of drinking are examined. We are interested in two aspects, (i) prevalence, i.e. with whom the light and strong alcohol was consumed and (ii) incidence, i.e. the quantity of alcohol consumed last time in terms of social context.

## 2. METHODS

## 2.1 Participants

In this study adolescents from 25 European countries (N = 59,351, see Table 1 for the list of the countries) participated by filling in the ISRD-2 survey in 2006. The ISRD-2 is a comparative study on youth crime and victimization which includes questions concerning alcohol use or other substance abuse [30]. For the purposes of the current analysis a subsample (N = 57,771) from the larger ISRD-2 sample was drawn by selecting 7<sup>th</sup>, 8<sup>th</sup>, and 9<sup>th</sup> grade students in the age from 12 to 16. In the current paper we conducted a secondary analysis of the data focusing solely on the use of alcohol. The access to the data was gained by the second author of the study from the ISRD-2 consortium as she was involved in the data collection in one of the participating countries.

## 2.2 Variables

There were two dependent variables in our study. First, the social context of drinking alcohol last time (see Table 1 for the proportions regarding different countries). This variable regarding light alcohol had four choices in the survey – drinking alone, with parents, with other adults, or with peers. Concerning strong alcohol there were three choices: alone, with other adults, or with peers. Second, last time incidence, i.e. how much light alcohol (beer, wine) was consumed. This variable consisted of answers to three questions: glasses of wine consumed; small bottles (330ml) of long drink, cider or beer consumed; and cans or large bottles (500ml) of beer consumed. For stronger alcohol (spirits) the number of shots was asked (one shot is 40 ml of alcohol). Independent variables in the current analysis were gender, age and country clusters (Northern, Western, Southern, and Eastern Europe).

	Light Alcohol				Strong Alcohol		
	Alone	With	With	With	Alone	With	With
	Alone	parents	adults	peers	Aione	adults	peers
Armenia	12.3	33.2	27.6	26.9	15.9	59.3	24.8
Austria	3.9	15.0	14.2	66.9	4.5	25.4	70.1
Belgium	5.2	26.9	13.5	54.3	6.8	37.0	56.1
Bosnia-	10.4	23.1	17.1	49.4	16.0	39.2	44.8
Herzegovina							
Czech	9.4	29.9	14.4	46.3	12.1	27.6	60.3
Republic							
Cyprus	11.2	40.8	15.4	32.6	12.2	45.8	42.0
Denmark	2.2	22.2	5.0	70.6	2.6	24.9	72.5
Estonia	5.7	14.6	15.4	64.3	5.1	20.7	74.2
Finland	6.2	25.1	5.6	63.1	7.1	16.7	76.1
France	5.3	32.0	18.8	43.9	9.1	26.1	64.8
Germany	3.3	18.9	15.3	62.5	3.2	22.7	74.1
Hungary	9.4	27.1	10.8	52.7	7.3	25.0	67.7
Iceland	7.6	13.5	5.9	73.0	2.2	13.5	84.3
Ireland	4.3	16.9	9.2	69.6	5.8	13.8	80.4
Italy	5.3	38.8	7.7	48.1	6.2	23.0	70.8
Lithuania	5.2	18.9	8.7	67.3	5.4	18.1	76.5
Netherlands	4.6	27.3	13.2	54.8	6.3	40.3	53.4
Norway	5.8	10.5	5.8	77.9	4.2	11.3	84.6
Poland	10.2	16.3	17.7	55.9	11.5	22.4	66.1
Portugal	10.9	24.2	15.1	49.8	10.0	28.2	61.8
Russia	6.1	20.6	6.5	66.8	6.2	15.9	77.8
Slovenia	7.8	34.7	11.9	45.6	10.2	33.7	56.1
Spain	4.9	17.9	6.1	71.0	4.0	10.3	85.7
Sweden	5.3	21.9	9.5	63.4	7.4	19.5	73.2
Switzerland	4.0	17.9	14.9	63.2	5.4	22.8	71.8

# Table 1. Social context of drinking for light and strong alcohol in different countries in percentages

## 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The prevalence of social context of drinking was analysed using chi-square analysis. The incidence was analysed using 2 (gender) by 5 (age) by 4 (country cluster) by 4 (social drinking context) analysis of variance.

## 3.1 Prevalence of Social Context of Drinking

Chi-square analysis demonstrated that both light and strong alcohol were mostly consumed with peers (respectively,  $\chi^2(3) = 22386.73$ , P < .001 and  $\chi^2(2) = 11976.24$ , P < .001, see Table 2). For light alcohol, there were significant gender differences,  $\chi^2(3) = 160.68$ , P < .001, indicating that boys consumed alcohol more likely alone compared to girls. Similar findings were found for strong alcohol,  $\chi^2(2) = 113.05$ , P < .001, i.e. the proportion of boys who were drinking strong alcohol alone was higher than for girls whereas the proportion of girls drinking strong alcohol with peers was higher than for boys.

	LIGHT AICOHOI	Girls / Boys	Strong Alcohol	Girls / Boys
Alone	6.5 (n=2,182)	4.9 / 8.1	7.0 (n=1,293)	5.1 / 8.8
with parents	23.5 (n=7,865)	24.8 / 22.3	N/A	N/A
with adults	12.4 (n=4,131)	12.0 / 12.7	24.8 (n=4,589)	24.0 / 25.6
with peers	57.6 (n=19,229)	58.2 / 56.8	68.2 (n=12,588)	70.9 / 65.6
with adults with peers	12.4 (n=4,131) 57.6 (n=19,229)	12.0 / 12.7 58.2 / 56.8	24.8 (n=4,589) 68.2 (n=12,588)	

Table 2. Social context of drinking with gender differences for light and strong alcohol
in percentages

Note. N/A – data not applicable

Next, drinking light alcohol in different country clusters was analysed. Significant differences emerged (see Table 3),  $\chi^2(9) = 847.75$ , P < .001. In Northern and Western Europe the proportion of drinking with peers was relatively high. In Southern Europe the proportion of drinking alone was higher than in other regions. In Southern and Eastern Europe the proportion of drinking with other adults was lower than in other regions. Concerning strong alcohol, significant findings in similar direction were present,  $\chi^2(9) = 208.76$ , P < .001.

## Table 3. Social context of drinking between country clusters for light and strong alcohol in percentages

		Alone	With Parents	With Adults	With Peers
Light Alcohol	NE (n=6,120)	5.0	20.1	6.3	68.6
	WE (n=9,789)	4.3	21.4	3.8	60.5
	SE (n=3,267)	8.6	32.9	11.8	46.7
	EE (n=14,229)	8.3	24.4	14.1	53.3
Strong Alcohol	NE (n=3,862)	5.0	N/A	18.9	76.1
	WE (n=5,562)	5.5	N/A	25.7	68.7
	SE (n=1,729)	8.6	N/A	28.7	62.7
	EE (n=7,318)	8.8	N/A	26.4	64.8

Note. NE – Northern Europe; WE – Western Europe; SE – Southern Europe; EE – Eastern Europe; N/A – data not applicable

In Table 4 the gender differences in country clusters are presented. We can see that the proportion of boys drinking alone is larger than girls in all clusters. In Eastern Europe the proportion of girls drinking with parents is larger whereas in other clusters the differences are smaller. The proportion of girls drinking both light and strong alcohol with peers is larger than of boys. There are no large gender differences in the proportion of drinking light alcohol with other adults but the proportion of boys drinking strong alcohol with adults is larger in Northern and Southern Europe.

		Alone Girls / Boys	With parents Girls / Boys	With adults Girls / Boys	With peers Girls / Boys
Light alcohol	NE	3.7 / 6.4	18.7 / 22	5.9 / 6.7	72 / 64.9
	WE	3.1 / 5.4	21.9 / 20.8	13.7 / 14	61.2 / 59.8
	SE	6.6 / 10.4	32.8 / 33	11.7 / 11.9	48.9 / 44.7
	EE	6.3 / 10.3	27.7 / 20.9	13.6 / 14.6	52.4 / 54.2
Strong alcohol	NE	3.6 / 6.2	N/A	15.6 / 22.6	80.7 / 71.3
	WE	4 / 6.9	N/A	25 / 26.5	71.1 / 66.6
	SE	6.2 / 11	N/A	26.4 / 30.8	67.4 / 58.2
	EE	6.5 / 10.9	N/A	27.4 / 25.3	66.1 / 63.7
Nata NIC	N la utila a una		1 E OE	Couthorn Furnance FF	Eastana Europa

Table 4. Gender differences in social conte	ext of drinking between country clusters for
light and strong alo	ohol in percentages

Note. NE – Northern Europe; WE – Western Europe; SE – Southern Europe; EE – Eastern Europe; N/A – data not applicable

Concerning the adolescents' age (see Table 5), there was a difference for last time light alcohol use,  $\chi^2(12) = 1722.98$ , P < .001, namely the proportion of those who drank light alcohol alone or with parents decreased, however, those who drank it with peers increased. The proportion of drinking light alcohol with adults was stable ranging from 11.6% to 13.7%. Significant results emerged in similar direction also for the use of strong alcohol,  $\chi^2(8) = 464.79$ , P < .001.

	Age	Alone	With Parents	With Adults	With Peers
Light Alcohol	12 (n=1,689)	9.9	45.9	13.6	30.6
	13 (n=7,341)	8.6	33.2	11.6	46.6
	14 (n=11,842)	6.4	23.0	12.1	58.4
	15 (n=10,117)	5.0	16.3	12.7	66.0
	16 (n=2,314)	4.8	11.1	13.7	70.4
	Total (n=33,303)	6.5	23.6	12.4	57.5
Strong Alcohol	12 (n=562)	14.4	N/A	41.6	44.0
	13 (n=3,101)	9.1	N/A	32.9	58.0
	14 (n=6,415)	7.6	N/A	25.3	67.1
	15 (n=6,558)	5.4	N/A	20.7	74.0
	16 (n=1,764)	4.9	N/A	19.0	76.1
	Total (n=18,400)	7.0	N/A	24.8	68.2

 Table 5. Age differences in social context of drinking for light and strong alcohol in percentages

Note. N/A – data not applicable

In Table 6 gender differences regarding age and social context of drinking are also presented. It can be seen that the proportion of drinking alone in younger age is more prevalent in boys. The proportion of drinking with parents decreases by age for both boys and girls. The proportion of drinking with adults, interestingly, remains constant over the years for light alcohol; for strong alcohol it is also decreasing by age. Finally, the proportion of drinking with page.

	Age	Alone Girls / Boys	With Parents Girls / Boys	With Adults Girls / Boys	With Peers Girls / Boys
Light Alcohol	12	7.6 / 12.1	47.4 / 44.7	12.5 / 14.6	32.5 / 28.6
	13	6.8 / 10.3	33.7 / 32.7	11 /12.2	48.5 / 44.7
	14	4.8 / 8.1	24.4 / 21.7	12 /12.3	58.9 / 57.9
	15	3.5 / 6.5	17.8 / 14.8	12.5 /12.8	66.2 / 65.9
	16	3.6 / 5.7	12.7 / 9.8	12.8 / 14.5	70.8 / 70
	total	4.9 / 8.1	24.8 / 22.3	12 / 12.7	58.3 / 56.8
Strong Alcohol	12	11.2 / 16.9	N/A	40.8 / 42.5	48.1 / 40.5
	13	6.5 / 11.7	N/A	31.1 / 34.5	62.4 / 53.8
	14	5.6 / 9.5	N/A	24.2 / 26.5	70.2 / 64.1
	15	2.6 / 7	N/A	20.2 / 21.1	76.2/ 71.9
	16	4.3 / 5.2	N/A	18.8 / 19.3	76.9 / 75.5
	total	5.1 / 8.8	N/A	24 / 25.6	70.9 / 65.6

Table 6. Gender and age differences in social context of drinking for light
and strong alcohol in percentages

Note. N/A – data not applicable

## 3.2 Incidence of Drinking

First the results of drinking light alcohol are analysed (see Table 7). The overall model was significant, F(35,32281) = 60.78, P < .001,  $\eta^2 = .062$ . There was significant effect of social drinking context, F(3,32281) = 93.31, P < .001,  $\eta^2 = .009$ . Post-hoc analyses (LSD) indicated that more units of alcohol were drank: (i) with peers compared to alone, adults and parents; (ii) with adults than alone or with parents; and (iii) more alone than with parents (P = .001). There was significant effect present also for country cluster, F(3, 32281) = 44.52, p = .001,  $\eta^2 = .004$ . Post-hoc analyses revealed that in Western Europe more units were drank than in Northern, Southern and Eastern Europe (P = .001). Significant effect emerged also for gender, F(1, 32281) = 36.02, p = .001,  $\eta^2 = .001$ , namely boys drank more units than girls. Finally, age effects were also present F(4, 32281) = 66.58, P < .001,  $\eta^2 = .008$ . Post-hoc analyses indicated that (i) 12-year-olds drank less than 13 to 16-year-olds (P = .03); (ii) 13-year-olds less than 14 to 16-year-olds (P = .001); (iii) 14-year-olds less than 15 to 16-year-olds (P = .001).

		Units of Light Alcohol	Shots of Spirit
		M (SE)	M (SE)
Social Context	alone	1.16 (.09)	2.24 (.18)
	with parents	.66 (.09)	N/A
	with adults	1.19 (.07)	2.42 (.09)
	with peers	1.63 (.05)	3.75 (.11)
Gender	girls	1.06 (.06)	2.50 (.11)
	boys	1.27 (.05)	3.14 (.11)
Age	12	.80 (.12)	2.61 (.29)
	13	.78 (.05)	2.20 (.11)
	14	1.01 (.04)	2.53 (.09)
	15	1.33 (.05)	3.14 (.14)
	16	1.85 (.13)	3.58 (.20)
Country cluster	NE	.99 (.09)	2.70 (.21)
	WE	1.45 (.05)	2.84 (.11)
	SE	1.20 (.11)	2.76 (.18)
	EE	1.01 (.04)	2.96 (.10)

Table 7. The amount of light and strong alcohol consumed regarding so	cial
context of drinking alcohol, age, gender and country clusters	

Note. NE – Northern Europe; WE – Western Europe; SE – Southern Europe; EE – Eastern Europe; N/A – data not applicable.

Next, the interaction effects are examined (see Table 8). Gender and social context of drinking interaction was significant, F(3,32281) = 3.97, P = .008,  $\eta^2 = .001$ . Post-hoc analyses indicated that (i) both girls and boys drank more units of alcohol with peers than with adults, parents or alone; and (ii) more with adults and alone than with parents (P =.001). In addition, boys drank more with adults than alone (P = .01). Country cluster and social context of drinking interaction was also significant, F(12,32281) = 4.62, P = .001,  $\eta^2 =$ .002. Post-hoc analyses indicated that (i) in all clusters more alcohol was drank with peers than with parents (P = .001); (ii) in Western, Southern and Eastern Europe more alcohol was used with adults (P = .001) and alone (P = .02) than with parents; (iii) in Northern, Western and Eastern Europe more alcohol was used with peers than with adults (P = .01); and (iv) in Western and Eastern Europe more alcohol was used with adults than alone (P = .05). Finally, significant social context of drinking and age interaction also emerged, F(9, 32281) =6.86, P < .001,  $\eta^2 = .002$ . Post-hoc analyses indicated that (i) all age groups drank more alcohol with peers than with parents (P = .001) or alone (P = .04); (ii) 12 to 15-year-olds drank more alcohol with peers than with adults (P = .01); (iii) 14 to 16-year-olds drank more with adults than with parents (P = .01); (iv) 14 to 16-year-olds drank more alone than with parents (P = .02); and (v) 16-year-olds drank more alone than with adults (P = .03).

	Units of light Alcohol	Shots of Spirit
	M (SE)	M (SE)
Social context * gender interaction		. ,
Girls drinking alone	1.22 (.14)	1.92 (.28)
Boys drinking alone	1.11 (.11)	2.58 (.22)
Girls drinking with parents	.53 (.15)	N/A Č
Boys drinking with parents	.79 (.12)	N/A
Girls drinking with adults	.93 (.10)	2.12 (.14)
Boys drinking with adults	1.45 (.09)	2.73 (.12)
Girls drinking with peers	1.54 (.06)	3.44 (.11)
Boys drinking with peers	1.72 (.08)	4.06 (.20)
Social context * age interaction		
12yo drinking alone	.70 (.24)	2.18 (.58)
13yo drinking alone	.72 (.13)	1.86 (.28)
14yo drinking alone	.95 (.12)	1.75 (.23)
15yo drinking alone	1.27 (.16)	2.55 (.37)
16yo drinking alone	2.07 (.30)	2.88 (.51)
12yo drinking with parents	.35 (.27)	N/A
13yo drinking with parents	.54 (.06)	N/A
14yo drinking with parents	.69 (.06)	N/A
15yo drinking with parents	.78 (.11)	N/A
16yo drinking with parents	.92 (.36)	N/A
12yo drinking with adults	.70 (.19)	1.74 (.28)
13yo drinking with adults	.73 (.11)	1.77 (.14)
14yo drinking with adults	.95 (.09)	2.28 (.11)
15yo drinking with adults	1.45 (.12)	2.90 (.15)
16yo drinking with adults	1.89 (.22)	3.26 (.30)
12yo drinking with peers	1.34 (.23)	3.65 (.52)
13yo drinking with peers	1.12 (.05)	2.98 (.10)
14yo drinking with peers	1.46 (.04)	3.55 (.07)
15yo drinking with peers	1.81 (.05)	3.97 (.08)
16yo drinking with peers	2.42 (.08)	4.59 (.13)
Social context * cluster interaction		
NE alone	1.10 (.20)	1.67 (.41)
WE alone	1.17 (.15)	2.05 (.28)
SE alone	1.51 (.23)	2.47 (.47)
EE alone	.86 (.05)	2.73 (.26)
NE with parents	.45 (.22)	N/A
WE with parents	.92 (.07)	N/A
SE with parents	.63 (.29)	N/A
EE with parents	.63 (.07)	N/A
	./U(.15)	2.08 (.19)
	1.03 (.08)	2.55 (.14)
	1.19 (.19)	2.44 (.25)
EE with adults	1.14 (.U9) 1.61 (.17)	2.55 (.12)
NE with peers		4.12 (.39)
VE with poors	2.00 (.00)	3.32 (.U9) 3.37 (.16)
FF with peers	1 40 ( 05)	3.58 (10)

Table 8. The interaction effect on the amount of light and strong alcohol consu	med
---------------------------------------------------------------------------------	-----

Note. NE – Northern Europe; WE – Western Europe; SE – Southern Europe; EE – Eastern Europe; N/A – data not applicable. Now the differences in drinking strong alcohol are analysed (see Table 7). The overall model was significant, F(26,18290) = 17.03, P < .001,  $\eta^2 = .024$ . There were differences in social context of drinking, F(2,18290) = 32.64, P < .001,  $\eta^2 = .00$ . Post-hoc analyses (LSD) indicated that more alcohol was drank with peers than alone or with adults (P = .001). Country clusters had a significant effect, F(3, 18290) = 13.70, p = .001,  $\eta^2 = .002$ . Post-hoc analyses revealed that (i) in Western and Southern Europe more strong alcohol was used than in Northern Europe; and (ii) in Eastern Europe more than in Western and Southern Europe (P = .001). Gender differences were also significant, F(1,18290) = 22.59, P = .001,  $\eta^2 = .001$ , namely boys drank more strong alcohol than girls. Finally, age differences were also present, F(4,18290) = 14.16, P < .001,  $\eta^2 = .003$ . Post-hoc analyses revealed that (i) 12-year-olds drank less than 14 to 16-year-olds (P = .01); (ii) 13-year-olds less than 14 to 16-year-olds (all P = .001).

Last, the interaction effects are examined (see Table 8). For strong alcohol there was no gender and social context of drinking interaction or age and social context of drinking interaction present. Interaction effects emerged for country cluster and social context, F(6,18290) = 2.63, P = .015,  $\eta^2 = .001$ . Post-hoc analyses indicated that (i) more alcohol was used with peers than with adults in all country clusters (P = .001); (ii) in Eastern Europe more alcohol was used alone than with other adults (P = .02)

#### 4. DISCUSSION

In this paper we examined the adolescents' social context of drinking in different country clusters of Europe by age and gender. We were interested in two aspects, with whom the alcohol was drunk and the quantity of alcohol used last time.

First of all, our research has demonstrated that drinking is a social activity – most often adolescents drink together with their peers which confirms previous results [4]. Differences between country clusters were also present confirming that in Southern Europe adolescents drink light alcohol more often with parents than in other regions [4]. For the youngest age group alcohol is most often consumed with parents and other adults. While age increases the proportion of adolescent who drink with peers increases and becomes dominant social situation of alcohol use. Also a larger quantity of alcohol is drunk with peers.

A key issue to target is the finding that boys drank more alcohol alone (and in younger age) than girls. In further research this issue should be examined more closely to find out what is behind it – is it just experimenting? There were some differences present between country clusters. In Western-Europe the quantity of light alcohol consumed was higher than in other regions; however, for strong alcohol the quantity of strong alcohol used was higher in Eastern Europe. This finding indicates that in different regions of Europe the alcohol prevention programs should be targeting different key issues in reducing consumption.

As a limitation of the study it can be pointed out that we examined only last time alcohol use regarding social context of drinking. Further analyses concerning especially drinking alone in adolescent are needed as in adults it has been shown that this behaviour is strongly related to personal problems [31]. In our study the proportion of adolescents drinking alone started to decrease by age. It is not clear whether this is due to just experimenting in the taste of different alcoholic beverages at home or drinking it with a reason (getting drunk, trying to forget the problems). Also, as the self-report data was used, although the data was cleaned

for the extremes (for example, an adolescent stating that he/she drank twenty units of alcohol first time when he/she was six-years-old), the adolescents may have been differently motivated to fill in the questionnaire. Finally, it has to be noted that the effect sizes concerning the analyses are small.

An important issue to examine further is the adults with whom adolescents use alcohol with. If they are not parents, it would be interesting to study further who are they - random people who bought the adolescents alcohol or those who just reached the legal age of buying alcohol and now sharing it with their younger peers? As the quantities of alcohol consumed with adults other than parents is high then the results of McMorris et al. [13] are supported who found that adult-supervised settings for alcohol use resulted in higher levels of harmful alcohol consequences.

## 5. CONCLUSION

The results indicate that alcohol is mostly drunk (in higher amounts) with peers. However, we found that in the youngest age groups the proportion of adolescents drinking alone is relatively high. First of all, the habit to deal with stress by consuming alcohol could lead to alcohol dependency in already young age. Second, this finding should be taken into account while developing special programs for alcohol prevention. At the moment many programs aim at family and/or school as important actors; however, for at least some group of adolescents an individual approach is needed.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study was carried out on behalf of the AAA-Prevent Research Group: Majone Steketee, Harrie Jonkman, Claire Aussems and Jessica van den Toorn, Verwey-Jonker Institute, The Netherlands; Herbert Scheithauer and Kristin Göbel, Freie Universität Berlin, Germany; Renate Soellner and Astrid Bräker, University of Hildesheim, Germany; Anna Markina and Kristjan Kask, University of Tartu, Estonia; Uberto Gatti, Alfredo Verde and Gabriele Rocca, University of Genoa, Italy; Jiri Burianek and Zuzana Podana, Charles University, Czech Republic; Nicole Vettenburg and Hans Berten, Ghent University, Belgium. We are grateful for the helping comments of the anonymous reviewers.

## **COMPETING INTERESTS**

The study was funded by the European Commission, 7th Framework Programme, project name "Effective Environmental Strategies for the Prevention of Alcohol Abuse among Adolescents in Europe" (Grant Agreement No: 242204). The funder had no role in the study design, data collection, analysis, interpretation of data, the content of the study, or deciding to submit the article for publication.

## REFERENCES

- 1 World Health Organization. Strategies to reduce the harmful use of alcohol. Retrieved from: <u>http://apps.who.int/gb/ebwha/pdf\_files/A61/A61\_13-en.pdf. 2008.</u>
- 2 Pompili M, Serafini G, Innamorati M. Suicidal behavior and alcohol abuse. International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health. 2010;7:1392-1431.

- 3 Kendler KS, Schmitt E, Aggen SH, Prescott CA. Genetic and environmental influences on alcohol, caffeine, cannabis, and nicotine use from early adolescence to middle adulthood. Archives of General Psychiatry. 2008;65:674-82.
- 4 Steketee, Substance M use of young people in thirty countries. In: J. Junger-Tas, I. Marshall H, Enzmann D, Killias M, Steketee M, Gruszczynska B, editors. The Many Faces of Youth Crime. Springer, New York, NY, USA; 2011.
- 5 The ESPAD Report. Retrieved: <u>http://www.espad.org/en/Reports--Documents/ESPAD-Reports/. 2011.</u>
- 6 Beck KH, Thombs DL, Mahoney CA, et al. Social context and sensation seeking: gender differences in college student drinking motivations. International Journal of the Addictions. 1995; 30: 1101–1115.
- 7 Thombs DL, Beck KH, Mahoney CA. Effects of social context and gender on drinking patterns of young adults. Journal of Counseling Psychology. 1993;40:115–119.
- 8 Thombs DL, Wolcott BJ, Farkash LG. Social context, perceived norms and drinking behavior in young people. Journal of Substance Abuse. 1997;9:257–267.
- 9 Gronkjaer M, Curtis T, de Crespigny C, Delmar C. Drinking contexts and the legitimacy of alcohol use: Findings from a focus group study on alcohol use in Denmark. Scandinavian Journal of Public Health. 2013;41:221-229.
- 10 Beck KH, Arria AM, Caldeira KM, Vincent KB, O'Grady KE, Wish ED. Social context of drinking and alcohol problems among college students. American Journal of Health Behavior. 2008;32:420–430.
- 11 Wells S, Graham K, Speechley M, Koval JJ. Drinking patterns, drinking contexts and alcohol-related aggression among late adolescent and young adult drinkers. Addiction. 2005;100:933-44.
- 12 Koposov RA, Ruchkin VV, Eisemann M, Sidorov PI. Alcohol use in adolescents from Northern Russia: The role of the social context. Alcohol and Alcoholism. 2002;37:297-303.
- 13 McMorris BJ, Catalano, RF, Kim MJ, Toumbourou JW, Hemphill, SA. Influence of family factors and supervised alcohol use on adolescent alcohol use and harms: similarities between youth in different alcohol policy contexts. Journal of Studies on Alcohol and Drugs. 2011;72:418-28.
- 14 Bellis MA, Hughes K, Morleo M, Tocque K, Hughes S, Allen T, Fe-Rodriguez E. Predictors of risky alcohol consumption in schoolchildren and their implications for preventing alcohol-related harm. Substance Abuse Treatment, Prevention, and Policy. 2007;2:15.
- 15 Pavis S, Cunningham-Burley S, Amos A. Alcohol consumption and young people: exploring meaning and social context. Health Education Research. 1997;12:311–322.
- 16 Dielman TE, Shope JT, Leech SL, Butchart AT. Differential effectiveness of an elementary school-based alcohol misuse prevention program. Journal of School Health. 1989;59:255–263.
- 17 Foley KL, Altman D, Durant RH, Wolfson M. Adults' approval and adolescents' alcohol use. Journal of Adolescent Health. 2004;35:345.e17–345.e26.
- 18 Jackson C, Henriksen L, Dickinson D. Alcohol-specific socialization, parenting behaviors and alcohol use by children. Journal of Studies on Alcohol. 1999;60:362– 367.
- 19 Komro KA, Maldonado-Molina MM, Tobler AL, Bonds JR, Muller KE. Effects of home access and availability of alcohol on young adolescents' alcohol use. Addiction. 2007;102:1597–1608.
- 20 van der Vorst H, Engels RCME, Burk WJ. Do parents and best friends influence the normative increase in adolescents' alcohol use at home and outside the home? Journal of Studies on Alcohol and Drugs. 2010;71:105–114.

- 21 Esping-Andersen G. The Three Worlds of Welfare Capitalism, Princeton University Press, Princeton, NJ, USA, 1990.
- 22 Saint-Arnaid, S, Bernard, P. Convergence or resilience? A hierarchical cluster analysis of the welfare regimes in advanced countries. Current Sociology. 2003;51:499–527.
- 23 Esping-Andersen G. Social Foundations of Postindustrial Economies, Oxford University Press, New York, NY, USA; 1999.
- 24 Kask K, Markina A, Podana Z. The effect of family factors on intense alcohol use among European adolescents: A multilevel analysis. Psychiatry Journal. 2013;12pages.
- 25 Leibfried S. Towards a European Welfare State? On Integrating Poverty Regimes Into the European Community. In Z. Ferge, J. E. Kolberg, editors. Social Policy in a Changing Europe. 245–80. Frankfurt am Main: Campus Verlag; 1992
- 26 Ferrera M. The Southern Model of Welfare in Europe. Journal of European Social Policy. 1996; 6:17–37.
- 27 Bonoli G. Classifying Welfare States: A Two Dimensional Approach. Journal of Social Policy. 1997;26: 351–72.
- 28 Lappi-Seppala T. Penal policy and prisoner rates in Scandinavia. In K. Nuotio, editor. Festschrift in Honor of Raimo Lahti. Helsinki, Finland: University of Helsinki; 2007
- 29 Smit P, Marshall IH, van Gammeren M. An empirical approach to country clustering. In K. Aromaa, M. Heiskanen, editors. Crime and Criminal Justice Systems in Europe and North America 1995-2004. Helsinki, Finland: HEUNI; 2008
- 30 Enzmann D, Marshall IH, Killias M, Junger-Tas J, Steketee M, Gruszczynska B. Selfreported youth delinquency in Europe and beyond: First results of the second international self-report delinquency study in the context of police and victimization data. European Journal on Criminology. 2010;7:159-183.
- 31 Christiansen M, Vik PW, Jarchow A. College student heavy drinking in social contexts versus alone. Addictive Behaviors. 2002;27:393-404.

© 2014 Kask and Markina; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

#### Peer-review history:

The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here: http://www.sciencedomain.org/review-history.php?iid=287&id=32&aid=2139