

# NIH Public Access

**Author Manuscript** 

Am J Health Behav. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2015 September 01.

# Published in final edited form as:

Am J Health Behav. 2014 September ; 38(5): 641-649. doi:10.5993/AJHB.38.5.1.

# Relationship between Perceived Discrimination and Sedentary Behavior in Adults

# Veronica Y. Womack, PhD,

Post Doctoral Research Fellow, Department of Preventive Medicine, Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine, Chicago, IL

# Hongyan Ning, MD,

Biostatistician, Department of Preventive Medicine, Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine, Chicago, IL

Cora E. Lewis, MD, MSPH, FACP, FAHA,

Professor, Department of Medicine, University of Alabama School of Medicine, Birmingham, AL

# Eric B. Loucks, PhD,

Assistant Professor, Department of Epidemiology, Brown University, Providence, RI

# Eli Puterman, PhD,

Assistant Adjunct Professor, Psychiatry Department, University of California-San Francisco, San Francisco, CA

# Jared Reis, PhD, FAHA,

Research Scientist, Division of Prevention and Population Sciences, National Heart Lung and Blood Institute, Bethesda, MD

# Juned Siddique, PhD,

Assistant Professor, Department of Preventive Medicine, Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine, Chicago, IL

# Barbara Sternfeld, PhD,

Senior Research Scientist, Division of Research, Kaiser Permanente, Oakland, CA

# Linda Van Horn, PhD, and

Professor, Department of Preventive Medicine, Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine, Chicago, IL

# Mercedes R. Carnethon, PhD

Associate Professor, Department of Preventive Medicine, Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine, Chicago, IL

#### **Conflict of Interest Statement**

The authors of this paper have no interest to disclose.

Correspondence: Dr Womack; veronica.womack@northwestern.edu.

Human Subjects Statement

The Coronary Artery Risk Development on Young Adults (CARDIA) study was approved by the institutional review boards at all study sites including: Northwestern University, University of Alabama at Birmingham, University of Minnesota, and Kaiser Permanente.

# Abstract

**Objective**—To identify psychosocial factors associated with sedentary behavior, we tested whether perceived discrimination is associated with sedentary behavior.

**Methods**—Black and white men and women (N = 3270) from the Coronary Artery Risk Development in Young Adults (CARDIA) Study reported experiences of discrimination and time engaged in total and screen time sedentary behaviors in 2010–11.

**Results**—There were no associations of discriminatory experiences with total sedentary behavior time. However, discriminatory experiences were positively associated with screen time for black men (OR 1.81, 95% CI: 1.14, 2.86) and white women (OR 1.51, 95% CI: 1.14, 2.00) after adjusting for demographic and traditional cardiovascular disease risk factors.

**Conclusion**—Among black men and white women, discriminatory experiences were correlated with more screen time sedentary behavior.

#### Keywords

sedentary behaviors; discrimination; stress

Sedentary behavior has emerged as an important target of health promotion and obesity prevention efforts<sup>1</sup> due to its direct association with obesity<sup>2–7</sup> and other risk factors that diminish cardiovascular health.<sup>8–14</sup> Sedentary behaviors such as watching television, using a computer, reading, and "sitting and socializing" are associated with higher body mass index independent of physical activity.<sup>1,8,10</sup>

Psychological factors such as depression have been associated with sedentary behaviors.<sup>4,15,16</sup> However, to our knowledge, the relationship between discrimination and sedentary behaviors has not been explored. Routine discriminatory experiences can become a chronic stressor that erodes an individual's protective resources and increases vulnerability to physical illness.<sup>17,18</sup> Discriminatory experiences can produce significantly heightened psychological and physiological stress responses<sup>18</sup> and are related to unhealthy behaviors including cigarette smoking,<sup>19</sup> alcohol dependence,<sup>20</sup> and both prescription and illicit drug use.<sup>21,22</sup> Discrimination also has been associated with health outcomes including self-rated health, hypertension, and atherosclerotic disease.<sup>23</sup> According to the social cognitive theory and the tenets of self-efficacy, if individuals do not believe that they can control aversive events, like discriminatory experiences, they may distress themselves and subsequently impair their level of functioning.<sup>24</sup> Pascoe and Smart<sup>25</sup> suggest that discriminatory experiences may lead to increased participation in unhealthy behaviors as a way of escaping the negative affect and cognition that perceptions of discrimination may arouse.

Whereas prior studies have investigated the association of psychosocial factors and physical activity,<sup>26,27</sup> few have investigated these factors in relation to sedentary behaviors. Such an association is plausible because perceived discrimination has been associated with the previously mentioned health behaviors,<sup>19–22</sup> as well as depressive symptoms,<sup>4,15,16,28–32</sup> an established predictor of sedentary behavior. It is particularly important to assess the association between discriminatory experiences and sedentary behavior in a sample of black

and white men and women because the rates of sedentary behavior and reporting of discriminatory experiences varies according to these characteristics and the association between the 2 may vary by race and sex.

The objective of this study was to examine associations of self-reported discriminatory experiences with sedentary behaviors in a bi-racial sample of men and women. We hypothesized that discriminatory experiences are positively associated with sedentary behavior. Screen time was explored separately to improve understanding of these increasingly common modifiable sedentary behaviors so that potential interventions can be targeted towards at-risk populations. Answering this question is important because identifying a psychosocial determinant of sedentary behavior may help researchers explore various methods to decrease this modifiable cardiovascular risk factor. Findings from our study can be used to assess the psychosocial mechanisms of sedentary behavior and the development of behavioral interventions targeting sedentary behavior.

## **METHODS**

#### Participants

The Coronary Artery Risk Development in Young Adults (CARDIA) study is a multicenter, longitudinal investigation of cardiovascular disease risk starting in young adulthood. The study began in 1985–86 with 5115 black and white adults between the ages of 18 and 30. Participants were recruited from 4 metropolitan areas (Birmingham, AL; Chicago, IL; Minneapolis, MN; and Oakland, CA). Blacks and whites were included in the study because they were the 2 largest racial groups in the United States when the cohort was formed in 1985 and because a substantial disparity in health behaviors and health outcomes exist between the groups. Participants eligible for the current study (N = 3308) were examined at the year 25 follow-up examination (2010–11). After excluding participants missing sedentary behavior or discriminatory experiences data (N = 21), women who were pregnant (N = 3), persons reporting sedentary behavior in excess of 24 hours/day (N = 13), persons with a sex change (N = 1), or persons missing covariates of interest (N = 168), there were 3270 participants for analyses.

#### Measures

**Discriminatory experiences**—Discriminatory experiences were assessed with the Experiences of Discrimination Questionnaire.<sup>20</sup> The questionnaire includes 4 subscales: sex, race or color, socioeconomic position, and weight. Participants were asked if they had experienced discrimination in 7 different situations (Y/N) for each subscale. If they responded yes to any of the 7 questions on any of the 4 discrimination subscales, they were classified as having experienced discrimination. This dichotomous total score was used to assess the main effect of discriminatory experiences on sedentary behavior. The Cronbach reliability coefficients for the 4 subscales ranged from 0.78 to 0.82 in the current sample.

**Sedentary behavior**—The sedentary behavior questionnaire was adapted from questionnaires used in children and adolescents<sup>33,34</sup> and was designed to collect information about daily time spent engaged in sedentary activities. The survey was selected because it

Womack et al.

provided the most comprehensive assessment of sedentary behavior that were hypothesized to be relevant to our sample and to the health outcomes under study. The questionnaire was adapted to be relevant to adults. The sedentary activities included: "sitting while watching television," "sitting while using the computer for non-work activities or playing video games," "sitting listening to music, or reading a book, or magazine, or doing arts and crafts," "sitting and talking on the phone or texting," and "sitting or riding in a car, train, bus, or other mode of transportation." Participants reported usual weekday and weekend behavior separately. The questions required a response on a 9-point scale: None, 15 minutes or less, 30 minutes, 1 hour, 2 hours, 3 hours, 4 hours, 5 hours, 6 hours or more. Responses were assessed by converting categorical responses to number of minutes that an individual reported engaging in the activity. The "6 hours or more response" was converted to 360 minutes. For the current analysis, total sedentary time was calculated as the daily average of all 6 sedentary activities weighted by whether they occurred on a weekend or weekday. The total sedentary behavior score was categorized as "low" if it was below the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile (< 8.5 hours/day) and "high" if it was above the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile of total sedentary behavior scores (> 8.5 hours/day). Sedentary screen time was calculated as a weighted daily average of reported weekday and weekend time spent watching television or using a computer for non-work related activities. The screen time behavior score was categorized as "low" if it was lower than 2 hours a day (30.5% of participants) and "high" if it was 2 hours a day or higher (69.5% of participants).<sup>35</sup> The total and screen time sedentary behavior cut-off points were not race-specific.

**Covariates**—The covariates were selected because they were considered conceptuallyrelated to either discriminatory experiences or sedentary behavior. Questionnaires were used to assess achieved education (years), work status ("employed full-time" vs "other"), substance use ("yes" to ever using non-medical drugs), smoking status ("never" vs "former" vs "current") and alcohol intake ("none" vs "<2 drinks for men/<1 drink for women" vs ">=2 drinks for men/>=1 drink for women"). Body mass index was calculated as measured weight (kg) divided by height (m<sup>2</sup>). Physical activity was assessed by an intervieweradministered questionnaire, which assessed the amount of time spent in 13 different activities of either heavy (> 5 metabolic equivalents (METS)) or moderate (3 to 4 METS) intensity during the last year.<sup>36</sup> A medical history questionnaire was used to quantify selfreported heart disease or antidepressant medication use. This questionnaire also was used to assess whether the participant had medical problems that interfered with their ability to exercise. Depressive symptoms were assessed by the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D); scores higher than 16 indicated high depressive symptoms.<sup>37</sup>

#### **Data Analysis**

Analyses revealed no interaction between sex and race for the association of discriminatory experiences on sedentary activity. However, discriminatory experience and sedentary activity scores varied significantly between black and white men and women, thereby prompting stratification of all analyses by race and sex. Sample characteristics are presented using means for continuous variables and proportions for categorical variables. Multivariable-adjusted logistic regression analysis was used to examine associations of discriminatory experiences with sedentary behaviors; odds ratios and 95% confidence

intervals are used to describe the likelihood of being sedentary comparing participants who had experienced discrimination vs those who did not. We first examined unadjusted bivariate associations, then multivariable models including adjustment for demographic characteristics (age, education, employment, study site). Next, we added adjustment for coronary heart disease, depressive symptoms, antidepressants, body mass index, smoking status, alcohol intake, physical activity, and substance use. Statistical significance was determined at p < .05. Version 9.3 of the SAS software package (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA) was used for all analyses.

# RESULTS

#### **Sample Characteristics**

The sample included black men (18.5%), white men (25.3%), black women (27.5%), and white women (28.7%). The mean age of all participants was 50 years, average education attained was 15 years, and 66% of participants worked full time. Characteristics of the study participants by race/sex category are shown in Table 1 by means (SD) and percentages (IQR). Compared with the rest of the sample, black women had higher body mass index (33.3 kg/m2), and lower physical activity scores (228). A higher proportion of black women reported high depressive symptoms (24.0%) and discriminatory experiences (70.4%) than other race-sex groups. White men were the least likely (29.6%) to report discriminatory experiences. This pattern also was found among the discrimination score types, with the exception of racial discrimination where black men reported the highest score (3.4) and socioeconomic position where black men and black women are both at 1.7. Black men and black women spent a similar amount of time engaging in total (36.8%; 40.7%) and screen time (81.7%; 79.4%) sedentary behaviors respectively (Table 2). The total and screen time sedentary behavior percentages were significantly different across 4 race/sex groups.

#### **Discriminatory Experiences and Sedentary Behavior**

Table 3 presents the association between discriminatory experiences and time spent engaging in sedentary behaviors. Discriminatory experiences were not associated with total sedentary behavior in the crude analyses or after adjusting for demographic, physiological, and behavioral variables. However, black men (OR 1.81, 95% CI: 1.14, 2.86) and white women (OR 1.51, 95% CI: 1.14, 2.00) who reported discriminatory experiences were more likely to spend time engaging in screen time than individuals who did not report discriminatory experiences. A subsequent sensitivity analysis revealed that these associations did not change when the discriminatory experiences score excluded weight discrimination (See Appendix). It appears that "sitting while using the computer for nonwork activities" is driving the discriminatory experiences and screen time sedentary behavior association in white women while "sitting while watching television" is driving the association in black men (Table 4).

# DISCUSSION

To our knowledge, this is the first study to examine associations between perceived discriminatory experiences and sedentary behavior. Discriminatory experiences were

#### Womack et al.

positively associated with screen time in black men and white women, but not associated with total daily sedentary activity.

We found that just as discriminatory experiences are associated with cigarette smoking,<sup>19</sup> alcohol dependence,<sup>20</sup> and drug use,<sup>21,22</sup> they also may be associated with screen time sedentary behaviors in black men and white women. These results provide support for the model which posits that discrimination is a social stressor that may influence participation in unhealthy behaviors.<sup>18</sup> Additionally, these findings are consistent with results from previous studies in which black adults spent more time engaging in sedentary behavior than white adults,<sup>4,38,39</sup> but extend beyond those studies to highlight a potential explanation, particularly for black men. We did not find an association between discriminatory experiences and total sedentary behavior for any of the subgroups. This finding may suggest that the activities that were not screen time sedentary behaviors (ie, sitting while in a car, talking on the phone, or reading a book) were not selected as coping behaviors for discriminatory experiences.

Discrimination may be adversely associated with sedentary behaviors, like television watching and non-work related computer use, due to the mutual relationship that each of these factors has with depression.<sup>4,15,16,28,29</sup> Negative interpersonal events like discrimination, stigmatization, and ostracism also can threaten an individual's goal to be valued and accepted by other people. <sup>25</sup> One behavioral response to perceived rejection is impaired self-regulation. Experimental studies show that rejection may lower an individual's motivation to comply with behavioral recommendations, particularly when doing so requires them to resist their immediate impulses (eg, choosing healthy snacks and beverages).<sup>40,41</sup> Decreased motivation may explain the association of discrimination on sedentary behavior. The association of discrimination on sedentary behavior also may exist because the individuals who perceive discrimination may want to avoid rejection or ostracism by staying at home and participating in leisure activities in a non-threatening environment.

There were also sex- and race-specific differences in discrimination's association with sedentary behavior. Discriminatory experiences were positively associated with screen time sedentary behavior for black men and white women, but not white men and black women, despite the finding that black women had relatively high discriminatory experience scores. It is possible that overall sedentary behavior was so high in black women, that there was minimal variability by discriminatory experiences. These findings also may suggest that black women did not choose to cope with discrimination by engaging in sedentary behaviors. Previous research suggests that black women are engaging in these sedentary activities by themselves or with other people may show that an association between discrimination and sedentary behaviors exists in this group.

A decomposition of discriminatory experiences' association with screen time sedentary behavior revealed that discriminatory experiences were related to "sitting while watching television" for black men and "sitting while using the computer" for white women. These behaviors may reflect use of the television or the Internet as coping mechanisms. Interestingly, these 2 subgroups preferred different types of sedentary behaviors when they

experienced discrimination. Future studies should investigate whether screen time sedentary behavior is motivated by the need for social support or the need for a distraction and mental disengagement. Screen time sedentary behavior is modifiable, unlike time spent driving, and so could serve as a target for future interventions.

One limitation of this research is that the discriminatory experiences scale did not assess all possible sources of discrimination. For example, discrimination based on sexual orientation or physical/mental disabilities was not assessed. Additionally, the measure did not consider engagement in work-related sedentary activities as one of the sedentary behaviors. Another limitation of this research is that we cannot determine the causal association between discriminatory experiences' and sedentary behaviors due to the cross-sectional design of the study and because of incomplete assessment of all possible covariates that could fall in the causal pathway between discriminatory experiences and sedentary behavior. Reverse causality is a plausible explanation for any observed association between weight discrimination and sedentary activities. We also were unable to quantify the total amount of time spent in sedentary behaviors directly because the sedentary behavior responses were categorical. Further, we were unable to identify the specific psychological processes that may relate discriminatory experiences with sedentary behavior because our secondary analysis study was not designed to address this question. We have captured one potential process, depressive symptoms, and find adjustment for depressive symptoms, our findings persist. Future research should include factors, such as motivation and self-efficacy, which could explain the pathway by which discriminatory experiences and screen time sedentary behaviors are associated. Forthcoming research also should assess sedentary behavior as a continuous variable in an effort to increase the power of the association between discriminatory experiences and sedentary behavior.

Findings from the current research study suggest that an individual's perception of discriminatory experiences may be a correlate of sedentary behavior, particularly among white women and black men. Replication of these analyses in other study samples would provide important information about whether the sex- and race-specific findings in this study extend to other settings. Future research should investigate the potential mediators (depression, neighborhood socioeconomic factors, etc.) of the discrimination-sedentary behavior relationship. Due to the high amount of time that the black participants spent sedentary compared to the white participants, as well as the lack of an association of discriminatory experiences on total sedentary behavior among black women, additional research on other potential correlates of sedentary behavior among black adults is needed in an effort to decrease this adverse health behavior in the population.

# Acknowledgments

This research was supported by grant T32-HL-069771-07 from the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute. The Coronary Artery Risk Development in Young Adults Study (CARDIA) is supported by contracts HHSN268201300025C, HH-SN268201300026C, HHSN268201300027C, HH-SN268201300028C, HHSN268201300029C, and HHSN268200900041C from the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute (NHLBI), the Intramural Research Program of the National Institute on Aging (NIA), and an intra-agency agreement between NIA and NHLBI (AG0005). A portion of this manuscript was presented at the American Heart Association Epidemiology and Prevention/Nutrition, Physical Activity and Metabolism 2013 Scientific Sessions.

# References

- 1. Owen N, Leslie E, Salmon J. Environmental determinants of physical activity and sedentary behavior. Exerc Sport Sci Rev. 2000; 28(4):153–158. [PubMed: 11064848]
- 2. Tucker LA, Bagwell M. Television viewing and obesity in adult females. Am J Public Health. 1991; 81(7):908–911. [PubMed: 2053671]
- Tucker L, Friedman G. Television viewing and obesity in adult males. Am J Public Health. 1989; 79(4):516–518. [PubMed: 2929820]
- Sidney S, Sternfeld B, Haskell WL, et al. Television viewing and cardiovascular risk factors in young adults: the CARDIA study. Ann Epidemiol. 1996; 6(2):154–159. [PubMed: 8775596]
- Salmon J, Bauman A, Crawford D, et al. The association between television viewing and overweight among Australian adults participating in varying levels of leisure-time physical activity. Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord. 2000; 24(5):600–606. [PubMed: 10849582]
- 6. Blass EM, Anderson DR, Kirkorian HL, et al. On the road to obesity: television viewing increases intake of high-density foods. Physiol Behav. 2006; 88(4–5):597–604. [PubMed: 16822530]
- Cleland VJ, Schmidt MD, Dwyer T, et al. Television viewing and abdominal obesity in young adults: is the association mediated by food and beverage consumption during viewing time or reduced leisure-time physical activity? Am J Clin Nutr. 2008; 87(5):1148–1155. [PubMed: 18469233]
- Kronenberg F, Pereira MA, Schmitz M, et al. Influence of leisure time physical activity and television watching on atherosclerosis risk factors in the NHLBI Family Heart Study. Atherosclerosis. 2000; 153(2):433–443. [PubMed: 11164433]
- Hu FB, Leitzmann MF, Stampfer MJ, et al. Physical activity and television watching in relation to risk for type 2 diabetes mellitus in men. Arch Intern Med. 2001; 161(12):1542–1548. [PubMed: 11427103]
- Jakes RW, Day NE, Khaw KT, et al. Television viewing and low participation in vigorous recreation are independently associated with obesity and markers of cardiovascular disease risk: EPIC-Norfolk population-based study. Eur J Clin Nutr. 2003; 57(9):1089–1096. [PubMed: 12947427]
- Dunton GF, Berrigan D, Ballard-Barbash R, et al. Joint associations of physical activity and sedentary behaviors with body mass index: results from a time use survey of US adults. Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord. 2009; 33(12):1427–1436.
- Hu FB, Li TY, Colditz GA, et al. Television watching and other sedentary behaviors in relation to risk of obesity and type 2 diabetes mellitus in women. JAMA. 2003; 289(14):1785–1791. [PubMed: 12684356]
- Dunstan DW, Salmon J, Owen N, et al. Associations of TV viewing and physical activity with the metabolic syndrome in Australian adults. Diabetologia. 2005; 48(11):2254–2261. [PubMed: 16211373]
- Gardiner PA, Healy GN, Eakin EG, et al. Associations between television viewing time and overall sitting itme with the metabolic syndrome in older men and women: the Australian Diabetes Obesity and Lifestyle Study. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2011; 59(5):788–796. [PubMed: 21568949]
- Salmon J, Owen N, Crawford D, et al. Physical activity and sedentary behavior: a population-based study of barriers, enjoyment, and preference. Health Psychol. 2003; 22(2):178–188. [PubMed: 12683738]
- Morgan C, Cotten SR. The relationship between Internet activities and depressive symptoms in a sample of college freshmen. Cyberpsychol Behav. 2003; 6(2):133–142. [PubMed: 12804025]
- Gee GC, Spencer MS, Chen J, et al. A nationwide study of discrimination and chronic health conditions among Asian Americans. Am J Public Health. 2007; 97(7):1275–1282. [PubMed: 17538055]
- Clark R, Anderson NB, Clark VR, Williams DR. Racism as a stressor for African Americans: a biopsychosocial model. Am Psychol. 1999; 54(10):805–816. [PubMed: 10540593]
- Gutherie BJ, Young AM, Williams DR, et al. African American girls' smoking habits and day-today experiences with racial discrimination. Nurs Res. 2002; 51(3):183–190. [PubMed: 12063417]

Womack et al.

- Krieger N, Smith K, Naishadham D, et al. Experiences of discrimination: validity and reliability of a self-report measure for population health research on racism and health. Soc Sci Med. 2005; 61(7):1576–1596. [PubMed: 16005789]
- 21. Landrine H, Klonoff E, Corral I, et al. Conceptualizing and measuring ethnic discrimination in health research. J Behav Med. 2006; 29(1):79–94. [PubMed: 16470345]
- 22. Gee GC, Delva J, Takeuchi DT. Relationships between self-reported unfair treatment and prescription medication use, illicit drug use, and alchol dependence among Filipino Americans. Am J Public Health. 2007; 97(5):933–940. [PubMed: 16809581]
- 23. Williams DR, Neighbors HW, Jackson JS. Racial/ethnic discrimination and health: findings from community studies. Am J Public Health. 2003; 93(2):200–208. [PubMed: 12554570]
- 24. Bandura A. Health promotion from the perspective of social cogntive theory. Psychol Health. 1998; 13:623–649.
- 25. Pascoe EA, Smart Richman L. Perceived discrimination and health: a meta-analytic review. Psychol Bull. 2009; 135(4):531–554. [PubMed: 19586161]
- McNeill LH, Kreuter MW, Subramanian SV. Social environment and physical activity: a review of concepts and evidence. Soc Sci Med. 2006; 63(4):1011–1022. [PubMed: 16650513]
- 27. Voorhees CC, Murray D, Welk G, et al. The role of peer social network factors and physical activity in adolescent girls. Am J Health Behav. 2005; 29(2):183–190. [PubMed: 15698985]
- Banks K, Kohn-Wood LP, Spencer M. An examination of the African American experience of everyday discrimination and symptoms of psychological distress. Community Ment Health J. 2006; 42(6):555–570. [PubMed: 16897412]
- Kessler RC, Mickelson KD, Williams DR. The prevalence, distribution, and mental health correlates of perceived discrimination in the United States. J Health Soc Behav. 1999; 40(3):208– 230. [PubMed: 10513145]
- 30. Schulz AJ, Gravlee CC, Williams DR, et al. Discrimination, symptoms of depression, and selfrated health among African American women in Detroit: results from a longitudinal analysis. Am J Public Health. 2006; 96(7):1265–1270. [PubMed: 16735638]
- Borrell LN, Kiefe CI, Williams DR, et al. Self-reported health, perceived racial discrimination, and skin color in African Americans in the CARDIA study. Soc Sci Med. 2006; 63(6):1415–1427. [PubMed: 16750286]
- 32. Hammond WP. Taking it like a man: masculine role norms as moderators of the racial discrimination-depressive symptoms association among African American men. Am J Public Health. 2012; 102(Suppl 2):S232–S241. [PubMed: 22401515]
- Norman GJ, Schmid BA, Sallis JF, et al. Psychosocial and environmental correlates of adolescent sedentary behaviors. Pediatrics. 2005; 116(4):908–916. [PubMed: 16199700]
- Robinson TN. Reducing children's television viewing to prevent obesity: a randomized controlled trial. JAMA. 1999; 282(16):1561–1567. [PubMed: 10546696]
- 35. Katzmarzyk PT, Lee I-M. Sedentary behaviour and life expectancy in the USA: a cause-deleted life table analysis. BMJ Open. 2012; 2:e000828.10.1136/bmjo-pen-2012-000828
- 36. Jacobs DR, Hahn LP, Haskell WL, et al. Validity and reliability of short physical activity history: CARDIA and the Minnesota Heart Health Program. J Cardiopulm Rehabil. 1989; 9(11):448–459.
- 37. Radloff LS. The CES-D Scale: a self-report depression scale for research in the general population. Appl Psychol Meas. 1977; 1(3):385–401.
- Crespo CJ, Smit E, Andersen RE, et al. Race/ethnicity, social class and their relation to physical inactivity during leisure time: results from the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 1988–1994. Am J Prev Med. 2000; 18(1):46–53. [PubMed: 10808982]
- Gordon-Larsen P, Nelson MC, Popkin BM. Longitudinal physical activity and sedentary behavior trends: adolescence to adulthood. Am J Prev Med. 2004; 27(4):277–283. [PubMed: 15488356]
- Twenge JM, Catanese KR, Baumeister RF. Social exclusion causes self-defeating behavior. J Pers Soc Psychol. 2002; 83(3):606–615. [PubMed: 12219857]
- Baumeister RF, DeWall CN, Ciarocco NJ, et al. Social exclusion impairs self-regulation. J Pers Soc Psychol. 2005; 88(4):589–604. [PubMed: 15796662]

42. Mays VM. Black women, work, stress, and perceived discrimination: the focused Support Group Model as an intervention for stress reduction. Cult Divers Menl Health. 1995; 1(1):53–65.

# Appendix. Association of Sedentary Behaviors with Discriminatory Experience (without Weight), Stratified by Race and Sex (N = 3270)

	Black Men OR (CI)	White Men OR (CI)	Black Women OR (CI)	White Women OR (CI)
Sedentary behavior	r total			
M1: Unadjusted	1.33(0.93,1.92)	0.74(0.47,1.18)	0.81(0.61,1.07)	1.16(0.78,1.72)
M2	1.37(0.94,2.00)	0.68(0.42,1.10)	0.83(0.62,1.12)	1.29(0.86,1.93)
M3	1.47(1.00,2.16)	0.68(0.42,1.12)	0.78(0.58,1.06)	1.20(0.79,1.83)
Screen time sedent	ary behavior			
M1: Unadjusted	1.83(1.20,2.79)	1.16(0.83,1.61)	0.86(0.60,1.22)	1.27(0.98,1.65)
M2:	1.65(1.06,2.57)	1.10(0.78,1.55)	0.85(0.59,1.22)	1.42(1.09,1.86)
M3:	1.73(1.10,2.74)	1.19(0.83,1.70)	0.84(0.57,1.22)	1.40(1.06,1.85)

Note.

Data shown are odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals. Discrimination included experiencing any gender/race/SES/ weight discriminations.

M2 Adjusted for age, education, employment, and study center

M3 M2 + coronary heart disease, total physical activity, body mass index, alcohol use, smoking status, medical problems interfering with exercise, substance use, depression (CES-D >=16 vs. not depressed), and antidepressant use.

#### Table 1

#### Year 25 Characteristics of CARDIA Participants (N = 3270)

Characteristics	Black Men (N = 606)	White Men (N = 828)	Black Women (N = 899)	White Women (N = 937)
Age in years	49.4(3.8)	50.6(3.4)	49.6 (3.8)	50.8(3.4)
Education attained in years	13.9(2.4)	15.9(2.7)	14.3(2.4)	16.0(2.5)
Working Full Time, %	64.7	78.6	62.3	59.3
BMI, kg/m <sup>2</sup>	30.5(6.8)	28.8(5.0)	33.3(7.9)	28.0(7.2)
Physical activity, exercise unit $(\mathbf{y})^d$	373(159, 532)	359(224, 583)	253(63, 316)	334(146, 480)
Heart disease (%)	8.4	11.0	13.4	14.5
Substance use (%)	72.8	76.8	57.8	77.4
Smoking (%)				
Never	58.1	64.0	64.5	59.8
Former	15.7	23.3	16.8	28.8
Current	26.2	12.7	18.7	11.4
Alcohol use (%)				
None	28.7	14.8	31.7	12.7
Moderate	44.2	53.7	51.1	57.2
Heavy	27.1	31.6	17.2	30.1
Depression, CES-D score 16 (%)	15.4	12.4	24.0	13.7
Antidepressant use (%)	4.5	9.7	13.8	16.9
Medical Problem T=that interferes with ability to exercise (%)	11.1	19.8	14.7	24.7
Any discrimination experience $^{b}$ (%)	69.6	29.6	70.4	52.9
Discrimination summary score				
Gender discrimination	2.1(3.4)	0.3(1.1)	2.4(3.5)	1.5(2.6)
Racial discrimination	3.4(3.9)	0.3(0.9)	3.1(3.9)	0.4(1.4)
Socioeconomic position discrimination	1.7(3.2)	0.4(1.3)	1.7(3.3)	0.6(1.7)
Weight discrimination	0.6(2.0)	0.3(1.3)	1.0(2.6)	0.8(2.2)

Note.

Values are presented as percentages, means (SD), and medians (IQR). Substance use defined as non-medical drug use including: marijuana, cocaine, crack, amphetamines, methamphetamines, heroine, or prescription pain medicine for non-medical reasons. Alcohol use ("None" was defined as no alcoholic beverages in the past year; "Heavy" was defined as >14 drinks/week or >4 drinks on the day they drank the most in the past month for men; and > 7 drinks/week or > 3 drinks on the day they drank the most in the past month for women).

 $^{a}$ The median (SD) are presented for the physical activity intensity score because the data is skewed; all other continuous variables are presented as means (SD).

 $^b\mathrm{Discrimination}$  was defined as experiencing any gender/race/SES/weight discriminations.

#### Table 2

#### Year 25 Outcome Variables of CARDIA Participants (N = 3270)

Characteristics	Black Men (N = 606)	White Men (N = 828)	Black Women (N = 899)	White Women (N = 937)
Total sedentary behavior,	%			
Low (< 75 <sup>th</sup> percentile)	63.2	88.0	59.3	88.1
High(>= 75 <sup>th</sup> percentile)	36.8	15.0	40.7	12.0
Screen time sedentary beh	avior, %			
Low (< 2 hours)	18.3	35.6	20.6	43.2
High(>= 2 hours)	81.7	64.4	79.4	56.8

Note.

Values are presented as means (SD). Sedentary behaviors included TV viewing, computer/internet for leisure, sitting and doing non-work related paperwork, reading, sitting and talking/texting on phone, and driving/riding in a car. Sedentary behavior screen time includes TV viewing and computer/internet for leisure.

#### Table 3

Association of Sedentary Behaviors with Discriminatory Experience, Stratified by Race and Sex (N = 3270)

	Black Men OR (CI)	White Men OR (CI)	Black Women OR (CI)	White Women OR (CI)
Sedentary behavior total				
M1: Unadjusted	1.26(0.88,1.81)	0.84(0.55,1.29)	0.83(0.62,1.10)	1.43(0.96,2.15)
M2	1.29(0.88,1.88)	0.79(0.51,1.24)	0.85(0.63,1.15)	1.54(1.03,2.32)
M3	1.36(0.92,2.01)	0.74(0.47,1.17)	0.80(0.58,1.09)	1.25(0.81,1.93)
Screen time sedentary behavior				
M1: Unadjusted	1.92(1.26,2.94)	1.24(0.90,1.70)	0.94(0.66,1.35)	1.53(1.18,1.99)
M2:	1.74(1.12,2.71)	1.20(0.87,1.66)	0.94(0.65,1.36)	1.67(1.28,2.19)
M3:	1.81(1.14,2.86)	1.16(0.82,1.63)	0.91(0.62,1.33)	1.51(1.14,2.00)

Note.

Data shown are odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals. Discrimination included experiencing any gender/race/SES/weight discriminations.

M2: Adjusted for age, education, employment, and study center; M3: M2 + coronary heart disease, total physical activity, body mass index, alcohol use, smoking status, medical problems interfering with exercise, substance use, depression (CES-D >=16 vs. not depressed), and antidepressant use.

**NIH-PA Author Manuscript** 

÷	
A Auth	
or Mar	
nuscrip	
Ŧ	

4	
Ð	
ο	
<u>a</u>	

Association of Sedentary Behavior Types with Discriminatory Experience, Stratified by Race and Sex (N = 3270)

	Watching TV, videos	Using computer for non- work act.	Doing paperwork not related to office work	Listening to music, reading	Talking on the phone, texting	Driving, riding in car/ train/bus
	( <b>β</b> ) (SE)	(β) (SE)	(β) (SE)	(β) (SE)	(β) (SE)	(β) (SE)
Overall						
M1: Unadjusted	$0.30(0.05)^{**}$	$0.14(0.04)^{**}$	$0.07(0.03)^{**}$	$0.08(0.04)^{*}$	$0.14(0.03)^{**}$	$0.23(0.04)^{**}$
M2	$0.13(0.05)^{**}$	0.07(0.05)	-0.00(0.03)	-0.04(0.04)	0.01(0.03)	$0.19(0.04)^{**}$
M3	$0.09(0.05)^+$	0.04(0.05)	-0.01(0.03)	-0.06(0.04)	-0.01(0.03)	$0.19(0.04)^{**}$
Black men						
M1: Unadjusted	0.20(0.14)	0.04(0.11)	0.09(0.07)	-0.12(0.11)	0.17(0.09)	$0.24(0.13)^+$
M2:	$0.25(0.14)^+$	-0.07(0.11)	0.04(0.07)	-0.12(0.11)	$0.22(0.09)^{*}$	$0.32(0.13)^{**}$
M3:	$0.24(0.14)^+$	-0.05(0.12)	0.06(0.08)	-0.10(0.11)	$0.27(0.09)^{**}$	$0.34(0.14)^{**}$
White men						
M1: Unadjusted	0.01(0.09)	0.06(0.09)	0.07(0.05)	0.07(0.06)	-0.05(0.05)	0.06(0.07)
M2	-0.02(0.09)	0.02(0.09)	0.08(0.05)	0.05(0.06)	-0.04(0.05)	0.09(0.07)
M3	-0.05(0.09)	-0.02(0.09)	0.06(0.06)	0.03(0.06)	-0.05(0.05)	0.09(0.07)
Black women						
M1: Unadjusted	-0.13(0.11)	0.06(0.11)	-0.10(0.07)	-0.07(0.09)	-0.09(0.09)	$0.30(0.09)^{**}$
M2	-0.06(0.11)	-0.00(0.11)	$-0.12(0.07)^+$	-0.06(0.09)	-0.02(0.09)	$0.31(0.09)^{**}$
M3	-0.09(0.11)	-0.05(0.11)	$-0.13(0.07)^+$	-0.08(0.09)	-0.06(0.09)	$0.30(0.09)^{**}$
White women						
M1: Unadjusted	$0.18(0.08)^{*}$	$0.24(0.07)^{**}$	0.02(0.04)	-0.07(0.05)	0.02(0.04)	$0.09(0.05)^+$
M2	$0.26(0.08)^{**}$	$0.23(0.07)^{**}$	0.03(0.04)	-0.07(0.05)	0.04(0.04)	$0.10(0.05)^{*}$
M3	$0.14(0.08)^+$	$0.19(0.07)^{**}$	0.02(0.04)	-0.08(0.06)	0.00(0.04)	$0.09(0.05)^+$
$^{+}p < .10;$						
* p < .05;						
** p<.01						

Am J Health Behav. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2015 September 01.

Note.

Data shown are means (SD) or adjusted means (SE). Discrimination included experiencing any gender/race/SES/weight discriminations.

M2: Adjusted for age, education, and study center; M3: M2 + coronary heart disease, total physical activity, body mass index, alcohol use, smoking status, substance use, depression (CES-D >=16 vs. not depressed), and antidepressant use. Models for all participants were also adjusted for race and sex.