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Kathleen E. Noonan

May 2015

A TWO-CITE CASE STUDY OF PREDICTIVE FACTORS OF INDIVIDUAL HELP-
SEEKING AND HOW INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS INFLUENCE
UNDERGRADUATE HELP-SEEKING FROM THE CAMPUS COUNSELING
CENTER

A Dissertation Presented to the
Faculty of the College of Education
University of Houston

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Psychology and Individual Differences

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Abstract

The purpose of the study was to better understand predictive factors related to students' likelihood to seek help at the university counseling center. While demographic and psychological variables have been identified as predictive factors in many empirical studies, a review of the literature identifies a gap in research related to sense of belonging and campus environment factors associated with help-seeking.

There are two research questions that guide the study:

- 1) What individual influences affect undergraduate likelihood to seek help from the university counseling center for a personal or emotional problem? How does that influence vary across campuses?
- 2) How do institutional factors relate to undergraduates' likelihood to seek help from the university counseling center?

This study utilized survey data from two campuses; Large Public University (LPU) ($N = 226$) and Medium Private University (MPU) ($N = 145$). Interview data were also collected on both campuses, with a sample of 5 at each campus. Block-run regression analyses and interview data were utilized to answer research question one. Interview data, used to answer research question two, were examined through Carspecken's (1996) "critical qualitative research."

For LPU, ($N = 226$), findings suggested that gender ($b = -.192$, $p < .05$); hours enrolled ($b = .484$, $p < .001$); and current campus counseling ($b = .841$, $p < .05$) had significant relationships with likelihood to seek help. In terms of ethnicity, as compared

to White students, findings suggested that Asian Americans ($b = .301, p < .01$), African Americans ($b = -.550, p < .001$), and Hispanics ($b = .277, p < .01$) all had significant relationships with likelihood to seek help. Distress ($b = 2.586, p < .001$); Attitude Toward Psychological Help-Seeking ($b = 5.506, p < .001$); Social Provisions ($b = -1.643, p < .001$); and Self-concealment ($b = -2.207, p < .001$) all had significant relationships with likelihood to access professional counseling on campus.

For the MPU campus, ($N = 145$), findings suggested grade point average ($b = 4.762, p < .001$); hours enrolled ($b = -.144, p < .05$); current counseling ($b = .547, p < .001$) had significant relationships with likelihood to seek help. In terms of ethnicity, African Americans ($b = .265, p < .01$), Hispanics ($b = .166, p < .05$), and Non-residents ($b = .145, p < .05$), as compared to White students, were more statistically likely to seek help at the counseling center on campus. Distress ($b = .375, p < .01$); Attitude Toward Psychological Help-Seeking ($b = .724, p < .001$); Social Provisions ($b = -.186, p < .01$); and Self-concealment ($b = -.603, p < .01$) all had significant relationships with likelihood to access counseling on campus.

Qualitative findings across campuses suggested individual differences existed, but there is little difference between campuses as it relates to students' likelihood to seek help. Sense of belonging on both campuses, from a social and academic standpoint, is highly individualized on both campuses and students feel positively toward both facets of sense of belonging. Findings across campuses also suggested there are particular roles the university should serve to foster an increase in student help-seeking. Incorporating more opportunities for students to interact informally with counseling center professionals is one of the key recommendations for campuses. Findings also offer suggestions for future

contributions to research in terms of considering seeking help from a counselor as one of the steps in solving problems during the enrollment period. The study's findings also suggest implications for practice. Together, through the work of counselors and other student affairs professionals, institutions can better equip faculty, staff and students to more effectively make counseling center referrals for students in need.

Keywords: Help-seeking, psychological factors, individual difference factors, sense of belonging, mental health services in higher education, student affairs

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Chapter I

Introduction

Mental health is a state of being. It affects physical, mental and social aspects of life. According to the World Health Organization (2007), mental health is described as:

...not just the absence of mental disorder. It is defined as a state of well-being in which every individual realizes his or her own potential, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to her or his community (p. 1).

Mental health support is provided in a variety of models, modes and contexts.

Considering mental health in relation to the needs of college students is an important topic for administrators and clinicians working in higher education settings.

In the higher education environment, mental health services provided on campus and students' management of their psychological distress are issues of immense concern. According to Amanda (2001) and Gallagher (2008) mental health of college students and their management of emotional distress is a topic that garners a great deal of attention both inside and outside academia. The mental health concerns facing college students are incredibly expansive in scope and vary greatly in terms of degree of severity. Research continues to reaffirm that those who need psychological support are not likely to access resources (Vogel, Wester, Wei, & Boysen, 2005), therefore there is an ongoing obligation on the part of higher education administrators and mental health clinicians on college campuses to continue to examine this issue (Deane & Todd, 1996; Eisenberg, Golberstein, & Gollust, 2007). As policy and system decision makers on college campuses, it is also important for administrators to have an understanding of the current psychological needs

of students enrolled on their campuses and how students access resources. This study will enhance our understanding of the experiences of students who encounter these types of challenges.

In terms of expanding the body of knowledge about help-seeking behavior, it is important to consider the help-seeking process of college students. In fact, prominent higher education researchers and college development theorists have explored college as a key point in time for the enhancement of undergraduate development (Tinto, 1996). Institutional priorities are reflected in the manner in which institutions of higher education incorporate theoretical principles into the campus infrastructures, resource systems and the overall approach administrators take to the work they do with students. For this study, the mental wellbeing of college students and how institutions devise strategies to meet student needs were particularly relevant.

In the context of mental health concerns, it is important to discuss aspects of mental health help-seeking. This type of help-seeking is a process by which individuals actively engage with another person, resource center, or organization for assistance in addressing a particular psychological-related concern (Rickwood, Deane, Wilson, & Ciarrochi, 2005). Instead of managing the problem on his or her own, the person has decided to access another individual or entity in hopes of gaining assistance in resolving the mental health issue. Some of the most prominent themes in the literature are related to the willingness, intention and attitudes of an individual to seek psychological assistance. These attributes are associated with factors that contribute to the decision an individual makes to seek psychological assistance.

This study examined some of these help-seeking antecedents in the college

student population. One of the prominent help-seeking models in the literature is Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), which provided a foundation for help-seeking in this study. The TRA framework is built on a foundational model in which attitudes and beliefs toward help-seeking shape intention and, finally, how intention affects resulting behaviors (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Building on TRA and other help-seeking theories, Cramer (1999) developed a model that examines the distinct aspects of help-seeking of mental distress severity, attitude toward counseling, social support availability and self-concealment. Cramer's (1999) model can be used to gain a global perspective about help-seeking intention as a predictor of behavior.

Implementing Cramer's (1999) model can contribute to the examination of help-seeking predictors in the college student population. Some existing studies utilized Cramer's (1999) model, or features of it, while considering particular facets of help-seeking. For instance, Masuda and Boone (2011) utilized elements of Cramer's (1999) model by analyzing attitudes toward psychological help-seeking and self-concealment. In another study, Liao, Rounds and Klein (2005) utilized all four constructs in Cramer's (1999) help-seeking model and developed a framework for investigating help-seeking in Asian and Asian-American college students. The studies found that Cramer's (1999) model appropriately framed an understanding of help-seeking variables. This study employed Cramer's (1999) four-part framework to draw on critical factors of help-seeking at institutional counseling centers.

Another key component related to students' willingness to seek help from a mental health professional is associated to factors at the institutional level. One of the core components of the literature in this area is related to sense of belonging. According

to the literature, sense of belonging is often extensively connected to work associated with campus culture and mental health help-seeking (Hoffman, Richmond, Morrow, & Salomone, 2002-2003). Sense of belonging is grounded in many aspects of the student experience. In particular, academic and social integration on the campus are fundamental aspects in the work about sense of belonging (Ackermann & Morrow, 2007-2008). Student engagement and involvement on campus (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005) is another component in the sense of belonging literature, and it relates to students' attitudes and feelings of connectedness toward their institutions.

In terms of students' attitudes toward sense of belonging, there are also individual difference factors addressed in the sense of belonging literature. The extent to which students feel a sense of personal respect and value from the educational environment impacts sense of belonging (Goodenow, 1993). Furthermore, Hurtado and Carter (1997) assess demographic variables in relation to sense of belonging and students' perception of the campus culture.

Purpose of study

This study focused on two main aspects of students' willingness to seek help in the context of a case study analysis. First, the study sought to ascertain what factors may predict students' help-seeking decisions, and to examine how students' willingness to access help is associated with the campus counseling center at two site institutions. The study provided a better understanding of help-seeking intentions of college students, what factors may predict students help-seeking decisions, and how students' intention to access help is associated with the campus counseling center. The second component was related to the influence institutional factors have on students' likelihood to access help from a

mental health professional at the two site campuses.

There were two research questions and those questions are as follows:

- 1) What individual influences affect undergraduate likelihood to seek help from the university counseling center for a personal or emotional problem? How does that influence vary across campuses?
- 2) How do institutional factors relate to undergraduates' likelihood to seek help from the university counseling center?

In terms of research question one, understanding the likelihood of students to access psychological services at the campus counseling center and how to best facilitate appropriate help-seeking activity on a campus was a key component of this work. The study was centered around the help-seeking process in higher education and the counseling centers on the two site campuses.

The study also took place on two college campuses because institutions of higher education are uniquely positioned to impact many aspects of the student experience, including help-seeking behavior. Moreover, the fundamental mission of higher education is to teach students and facilitate student success. In other words, the higher education system is primed to contribute in significant ways to the positive mental health of students. As Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) state, the campus environment and the institution infrastructures in place are fundamental to student engagement on campus, which in turn positively relates to student persistence and success.

Furthermore, related to research question two, the study addressed undergraduate student help-seeking at the institutional level. At a fundamental level, campus culture is something used to describe the campus and its features (Toma, Dubrow, & Hartley, 2005).

Campus culture, and factors related to perceptions students have about the campus, may impact students' experiences on the campus. Additionally, student perception about campus environment and culture may also contribute to students' sense of belonging on the campus itself.

Institutions rely a great deal on the work of student affairs professionals and campus' counseling center staff (as cited by Winston in Komives, Woodward, & Associates et al., 2003) and this can create a place to effectively foster a positive environment for help-seeking. Fundamentally, Braxton (2003) noted that student affairs staff members make contributions to the campus support services and help to enhance systems that support student success (as cited in Komives, Woodward, & Associates et al., 2003). In the case of mental health services, a partnership between clinicians and other student affairs professionals can help facilitate this critical work at institutions.

Significance of Study

In the context of undergraduate mental health, student affairs and mental health professionals work collaboratively to envision and implement services to assist students' in resolving their wellbeing concerns. A joint effort enables campus officials and clinicians to effectively and appropriately address the needs of students in an ongoing and evolving fashion. According to Winston, counseling centers provide therapeutic treatment and other student affairs professionals can help facilitate an ongoing campus-wide dialogue about mental health (as cited in Komives, Woodward, & Associates et al., 2003). Understanding the impact of these contributions to the campus and individual students are important ways to further mental health services on college campuses.

In addition, gaining knowledge about the likelihood of students to engage with campus resources, in this case a counseling center was the crux of this study. The study was designed to further the work of counseling center clinicians and other administrators in assisting students with problem-solving and managing their own mental health. Knowledge was also gained about the influence campus factors have on student help-seeking intention. Fundamentally, the effort around understanding undergraduate help-seeking will further the academic mission of campuses, and that is to develop scholars and produce graduates capable of making positive contributions to the global community.

Definition of Key Terms

Throughout the study, generally, the term “counseling” referred to a broad representation of mental health counseling services. “Counseling” referred to a wide-range of services, including treatment, assessment, consultation and other types of services. For purposes of the work, mental health help-seeking (MHHS) was generally referred to as “counseling” or one-on-one contact with a mental health provider. The study focused more on whether mental health services were accessed, not necessarily the specific type of service provided by the treating professional. In addition, although there were distinctive treatment approaches that mental health professionals train to provide, for purposes of this study, counseling was defined to be short-term, solution-oriented counseling or psychotherapy. Finally, there are some studies that reference “wellbeing services” instead of “counseling services.” Again, the study did not focus on differentiating treatment types or modalities. Instead the study focused on whether an individual made some kind of one-on-one contact with a mental health provider.

In terms of clarifying information about the types of professionals working in the mental health field, according to the American Mental Health Counselors Association, “clinical mental health professionals” are governed by professional and legal requirements to provide appropriate care for those with whom they work in a clinical relationship (American Mental Health Counselors Association, n.d., para. 1). Ultimately, the association states that these professionals “combine traditional psychotherapy with a practical, problem-solving approach that creates a dynamic and efficient path for change and problem resolution” (American Mental Health Counselors Association, n.d., para. 1). This was the general meaning of clinical and/or mental health counseling services. Mental health help-seeking was also generally used throughout the work to indicate the utilization of such mental health providers.

For purposes of the study, willingness to seek psychological help was the primary attribute in the study. Willingness is the final component noted in Rickwood et al. (2005) work on psychological help-seeking frameworks. The literature also addresses “intention” toward seeking help. It is important to note the difference between intention and willingness. Fundamentally, the difference between willingness and intention is related to whether or not conscious planning is involved. Intention involves reasoned planning (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) and willingness is more about openness toward asking for help rather than deliberative planning (Hammer & Vogel, 2013). For purposes of this work, willingness was the primary attribute to be discussed, however intention was necessary to use in certain instances to accurately represent the most applicable construct.

Finally, student affairs was described by Nuss (2003) as work at an institution, in this case higher education, that enhances the academic mission of the institution (as cited

in Komives, Woodward, & Associates et al., 2003). Student affairs work is grounded in the priorities of the institution and involves practical functions focused on system creation, problem solving, and initiative management. In general, Winston states that counseling services are categorized as one of the many departments within the student affairs units at institutions (as cited by Komives, Woodward, & Associates et al., 2003).

Outline of the Study

The work is organized into five chapters. The first chapter provides background and context for the study and the need for additional analysis in the area of undergraduate student help-seeking. Chapter two includes a review of the relevant help-seeking and institutional factor literature for the study. The second chapter also includes a review of literature on the background about the mental health concerns of the population of undergraduate students and individual variables that studies have suggested are predictive of students' willingness to seek psychological help. The third chapter outlines the research design and methods, data collection procedures, and data analysis. Chapter four outlines quantitative and qualitative findings for both research questions across campuses. Finally, chapter five offers conclusions, limitations, recommendations for future research and implications for practice in the field.

Chapter II

Literature Review

Introduction

The purpose of the literature review is to create a framework for the study. First, the review focuses on the mental health of undergraduates enrolled in higher education, information about psychological help-seeking theory, and related theoretical elements in the help-seeking literature. Second, the review provides a description of help seeking on college campuses and an explanation of the variables to be examined in the study's theoretical framework. Third, the literature review includes information about campus environment factors relevant for the study as well as a review of existing studies addressing related institutional factors associated with mental health help-seeking (MHSS). Finally, the review concludes with the gaps in what we know about help-seeking and the influence of institutional environment and how this study plans to further related knowledge.

Mental Health of College Students

The population of interest for this study is traditional aged college students (18 – 22 years of age), and these individuals are considered emerging adults (Arnett, 2000). Emerging adulthood, which is sometimes marked by attending college, is most commonly referred to as a transition process and a time frame that is often riddled with stress (Burris, Brechting, Salsman, & Carlson, 2009). Stress is a key factor in the lives of college students. It is considered “a mechanism of any internal or external demand made upon the body [and] stressors are not exclusively physical, but may also involve emotions” (Dusselier, Dunn, Wang, Shelley, & Whalen, 2005, p. 15). Stress, of course, may be

detrimental if it feels overwhelming, but some stress can help facilitate student's academic progress. Learning how to manage stress is something emerging adults may face. Some of the common stressors with which students struggle are changes in sleeping and eating habits, vacations and breaks, increases in one's work load, as well as new responsibilities (Dusselier, et al., 2005). Ultimately, these are challenges that young adults encounter at various times, particularly during their college years.

To better understand the transition process of emerging adults, Arnett's (2000) theory describes these individuals as neither adults nor adolescents. Emerging adults, generally between 18 to 25 years of age, are in a time period characterized by a significant level of adjustment, primarily because individuals have not yet reached a stage of self-sufficiency (Arnett, 2000). Arnett (2000) states that emerging adults may identify with a variety of developmental levels. For instance, individuals may define themselves according to adolescent, emerging adult, or adult traits and abilities. Emerging adulthood as an identity construct can change based on a particular situation, setting or concept (Arnett, 2000). Emerging adulthood is a developmental process that is informed, in part, by the situational circumstances of the individual.

The emerging adult enrolled in higher education may experience developmental challenges unique to the population pursuing higher education, whereas those not enrolled may not encounter them (Burris et al., 2009). One of the factors associated with the adaptive ability of emerging adults is related to extent to which the individual's family is emotionally expressive (Johnson, Gans, Kerr, & LaValle, 2012). Johnson et al. (2012) suggested that those whose family members are more emotionally expressive are more likely to be ready to cope with the challenges they encounter as emerging adults.

Moreover, individuals enrolled in higher education are faced with many stressors that exist primarily for students. For instance, researchers indicate that the stress of facing personal issues while managing academic responsibilities may become distressing for students (Burris et al., 2009). Increasingly, many students today are faced with burdens of their academic load as well as personal, family, employment or other duties (Burris et al., 2009). The emerging adulthood population enrolled in higher education has unique challenges and how these students interface with resources at institutions of higher education is a critical component to understanding student's likelihood to access mental health services.

The well-being of students is increasingly important, because it may affect their persistence, development and, in some extreme cases, even their safety. The typical age of college students (18-24 years) is also the same timespan when symptoms of many major mental illnesses (e.g. depression, schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, and anxiety disorders) appear and are diagnosed by health professionals (Berman, Strauss, & Verhage, 2000). In a recent annual national survey of directors of college- and university-based counseling centers, 95% of directors reported seeing an increase in the total number of student clients, as well as an increase in the severity of cases (Gallagher, 2008). Some professionals "claim that the increase in distress among clients perceived by counseling center directors and staff was instead due to a small increase in the number of acutely distressed students, which required greater time and resources..." (Sharkin, 1997, p. 279). Regardless of this potential difference, student well-being is a multifaceted issue that affects the daily work of mental health professionals on campus.

Burris et al. (2009) also indicate the importance of acknowledging the protective and non-protective factors associated with student's overall psychological health and well-being. For instance, there are risk factors that may contribute to the well-being of the student, such as levels of optimism, health values and religiousness (Burris et al., 2009). Mental health providers should consider incorporating information about protective factors into promotional materials and publications about the MHHS process (Vogel, Wester, & Larson, 2007). Taking those steps may encourage more students on college campuses to seek assistance when they are in need.

Differential use of mental health services. A prominent aspect of help-seeking is the utilization of psychological services for various social groups. The mental health of undergraduates is complicated by the fact that many individuals who are in need of mental health care are not receiving that treatment (Deane & Todd, 1996; Eisenberg, Golberstein, & Gollust, 2007; Vogel, Wester, Wei, & Boysen, 2005). This poses a crucial challenge for systems of higher education. In addition, according to Brack, Runco, Cadwallader, and Kelley (2012), undergraduates who identify a friend as depressed are the people most likely to refer their friend to the counseling center for assistance, followed next by the student's parents. Regardless, in many cases, students who truly need the assistance are not as likely to access that help (Brack et al., 2012).

In particular, underutilization and disparity are two terms that need to be operationalized in the help-seeking literature. Underutilization refers to an "evaluative term applied in situations in which individuals who might benefit from services do not use them" (Rosenthal & Wilson, 2008, p. 61). Disparity, according to Rosenthal and Wilson (2008), is present when those who access services do not do so to the same extent

as members of another group. When establishing student care, providers need to consider the issues of treatment underutilization and disparity, because they pose ongoing challenges for mental health providers and the higher education system. A strong presence of underutilization and disparity among groups inevitably increases the gap in service that quite often presents itself in the work of mental health organizations (Gallagher, 2008).

It is generally accepted that unrecognized and untreated mental illness can have a major negative impact on the learning process, academic success, and persistence of afflicted students (Kadison & DiGeronimo, 2004; Kitzrow, 2003). Students can experience diminished success in fulfilling academic responsibilities and, therefore, their ability to learn may be challenged. Of course, the issue is multi-faceted; so many factors need to be thoroughly considered. Overall the issue of emotional distress in the undergraduate population is a complicated problem, which calls for effective solutions to meet the needs of a diverse student body.

The existing literature describes mental distress as a critical aspect in the overall mental wellbeing of college students. Inherently mental distress is an indication of some type of potentially immediate problem. It manifests itself in a variety of ways and is something that, if persistent, should probably be evaluated by someone with a clinical background. This kind of distress is defined by the Center for Disease Control (CDC) as associated with the quality of one's life. The CDC (2011) explains:

Frequent mental distress is defined based on the response to the following quality of life question, 'Now thinking about your mental health, which includes stress, depression, and problems with emotions, for how many days during the past 30

days was your mental health not good? Frequent mental distress is identified as a report of 14 or more days of poor mental health in the past 30 days.’ (p. 1)

Mental distress can have a significant and lasting effect on one’s state of mind and seeking help is a step some individuals consider if they experience these feelings. In terms of MHHS, it is important to gauge the extent to which an individual is experiencing mental distress, how it is impacting their everyday life, and how that distress is a factor that contributes to the help-seeking process. Sharkin, Plageman, and Coulter (2005) also indicated that those who have sought counseling in the past consider the point at which someone should seek counseling to be at a relatively low level of severity or distress. For those who have not pursued counseling, however, the threshold of manageable distress is perceived to be much higher (Sharkin et al., 2005). Overall, there is more to examine as it relates to managing levels of distress without professional assistance.

Psychological Help-Seeking

Rickwood, Deane, Wilson, and Ciarrochi (2005) describe the most relevant and applicable mental health help-seeking framework for this study. The authors provide a comprehensive and generally accepted definition of help-seeking, which is “a process of translating the very personal domain of psychological distress to the interpersonal domain of seeking help” (p. 1). Help-seeking is grounded in various factors that affect behavior. Rickwood et al. (2005) interpret these factors as recognition of personal distress, the ability to communicate personal concerns to others and the disposition to share mental health issues to others.

The study will examine some of the components associated with the Rickwood et al. (2005) framework, which is related to “awareness,” “expression,” “availability,” and

“willingness” to see help (p. 8). Specifically, gaining insight into “availability” and “willingness” to access mental health support services are critical for the study (p. 8). The campus environment factors of this study are aligned with exploring “availability” and the dependent variable, likelihood to seek help, will be explored in depth throughout this literature review. However, “awareness” and “expression” are essential to the process an individual goes through in the help-seeking process, the study will not consider these factors in detail. The following section will outline aspects of the help-seeking decision making process that are relevant to the research.

Some factors that influence the help-seeking decision making process.

Individuals go through a decision-making process when they choose to reach out to a counselor. Saunders, Resnick, Hoberman, and Blum (1994) articulated the decision-making process through which individuals usually progress. Saunders et al. (1994) outlined a four step model which includes that individuals first recognize they have a problem; second determine that counseling might help them address it; third choose to seek counseling; and fourth contact a counseling center or individual therapist. It is important to note that often individuals initially decide to talk about their feelings, or to disclose those feelings, and the next step typically involves making a decision to seek help (Quinn, Wilson, MacIntyre, & Tinklin, 2009).

Help-seeking intention. Additionally, there are some aspects of psychological help-seeking intention that are essential and related to the help-seeking decision making process. For instance, Rickwood et al. (2005) describe three fundamental components of help-seeking behavior as a measure of “time context; source of help; and type of problem” (p. 6). These elements represent a global perspective of help-seeking and serve as a basic

framework for help-seeking theory. Beyond this crucial structure, as it relates to help-seeking intention, “there seem to be commonalities regarding the importance of demographic variables, personal attitudes, and some type of social construct like stigma” (Hess, 2011, p. 9). These intrinsic and extrinsic elements of help-seeking are essential to establish a viable and appropriate model. These topics are expanded upon in the following sections about critical psychological variables.

It is also important to note there are various predictive factors involved in a student’s MHHS decision-making process. In fact, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), in the Theory of Reasoned Action, assert that varying factors have “different salience in a decision-making process” (p. 467). In addition, Vogel et al. (2005) noted that perceived risk had greater predictive effect on help-seeking than factors such as utility in help-seeking or comfort in accessing assistance. Understanding the predictive nature of help-seeking factors starts with understanding the ways in which these factors contribute to an individuals’ willingness to seek assistance.

Willingness to seek help. In terms of the decision-making process associated with mental health help-seeking, it is necessary to explain the differences in the literature between intention and willingness. Hammer and Vogel (2013) indicated that an important distinction should be made between intention to seek help and one’s willingness to seek help. According to the authors, the most applicable definition of willingness is outlined by Gibbons, Houlihan, and Gerrard (2009) and can be understood as an individual’s openness to behavioral options. Hammer and Vogel (2013) indicate that the predictive nature of likelihood to seek help is enhanced when considering reactionary processes in addition to reasoned decision-making. Willingness is defined as one’s openness to

behavioral opportunity and is considered to be someone making more spontaneous decisions rather than deliberate, well thought-out action (Gibbons et al., 2009).

Researchers also refer to this reactionary decision-making as a social reaction path (Gibbons et al., 2009).

Fundamentally, the difference between willingness and intention is associated with the presence of conscious planning. In terms of intention, reasoned planning is a core component in the process. However, in terms of willingness, there is a “social reaction path [that] involves reactive, spontaneous decision making rather than calculating deliberation” (Hammer & Vogel, 2013, p. 84). Rickwood et al. (2005) suggested that willingness is more about openness toward asking for help rather than concrete planning. Hammer and Vogel (2013) tested the prototype/willingness model (PWM), which included a reasoned action and reactionary path, with a population of 182 college students who experienced clinical levels of distress. The prototype behavior was examined as a given behavior and is considered an additional affect on a person’s willingness to participate in that action (Hammer & Vogel, 2013). In their study willingness significantly predicted help seeking decisions, but intention did not. There are critical implications for mental health professionals in Hammer and Vogel’s (2013) study.

Understanding students’ willingness to seek help to address challenges has been an essential aspect of help-seeking research. For young adults facing a personal or emotional issue, they may decide to refrain from accessing help. Choosing to manage the issue on one’s own is a decision-making process that researchers have explored. For instance, Deane, Wilson, and Ciarrochi (2001) designed a study, in part, to explore young adults’ decision to avoid requesting help from another individual. The results of this

study indicate that many young adults prefer to not seek help from anyone for personal-emotional and suicidal problems (Deane et al., 2001). This study also demonstrated that some young adults are averse to seeking help from another individual, therefore gaining perspective into this decision-making process and warrants additional examination. Ultimately, this finding raised questions about the willingness of some young adults to utilize help sources.

However, it is important to note that willingness to seek help may change based on specific interventions. In particular, in a study by Kaplan, Vogel, Gentile, and Wade (2012), the researchers' findings suggested that attitudes toward seeking help and the perceptions individuals have toward their peers may be positively impacted by a video intervention strategy. Although this study is not related to particular intervention strategies, it is worth noting that interventions may have an influence on one's willingness to seek mental health assistance.

Lastly, in terms of examining willingness to seek help, it is important to note that in many instances experiencing something distressing is not alone a predictor for help-seeking (Vogel et al., 2005). Rather, Vogel et al. (2005) suggested that it is the interaction “between the anticipated outcomes (i.e., the risks of talking about an emotional issue) and the experience of a specific distressing event that predicts help-seeking behavior” (p. 468). This is supportive of the TPB framework in which attitude toward seeking help is interrelated with perceived behavioral outcomes. It is essential to consider the anticipated outcome as it relates to help-seeking intention.

Social interactions. The work considers various types of help-seeking, including seeking assistance from one's existing social network. Some existing studies examined

particular characteristics of help-seeking behavior as it relates to social interactions. For instance, Downs and Eisenberg (2012) ($N= 8,487$) reported that social interactions may serve as a critical support and can be influential toward help-seeking for suicidal students. Downs and Eisenberg (2012) claim that “people within an individual’s social network, such as family, friends and community members can affect perceptions of the concern, provide social supports, and facilitate its resolution, including the use of professional help” (p. 105). In other words, the engagement with a healthy personal support network affects the help-seeking behavior of some students.

Furthermore, a study by Brack et al. (2012) in which undergraduates were surveyed about their opinions of referral sources, suggested that students, as well as others in their social network on campus, should be made aware of the services offered by the campus counseling center. In particular, Brack et al. (2012) indicated, “parents, resident advisors, and faculty need to be informed as well... [and] these individuals are in positions to refer students facing mental health issues to the counseling center because of the roles they play in students’ lives” (p. 156). The interactions between these key individuals and undergraduate students can be especially influential as it relates to facilitating help-seeking in general, as well as at the counseling center.

Validated Psychological Help-Seeking Structures

Many help-seeking frameworks have been developed, tested and established as valid in the psychological help-seeking literature. However, not all of these frameworks contribute to setting the stage for the study. The following section will describe the core theoretical frameworks that have been established in the psychological help-seeking literature and the foundation upon which each theory is grounded.

Theory of Reasoned Action. Many researchers generally describe the help-seeking process as a thoughtful and intentional process. According to Downs and Eisenberg (2012), help-seeking is considered as something individuals encounter when they “experience a problem, determine whether or not they need assistance, consider subjective and social norms regarding help-seeking, and appraise the effectiveness of available help” (p. 105). The Theory of Reasoned Action is one of the preeminent theories looked to conceptualize the help-seeking process.

The Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) is a prominent model in psychological help-seeking literature. TRA describes help-seeking behavior as a “function of intention” (Hess, 2011, p. 3). In particular, according to Romano and Netland (2007) “behavior is a function of a person’s willingness to carry out a behavioral intention” (p. 780). Attitudes and beliefs shape intention and those beliefs, in turn, affect behavior. According to Christopher, Skillman, Kirkhart, and D’Souza, someone’s attitude toward the behavior “is her or his favorable or unfavorable evaluation of performing the act” (2006, p. 81).

The beliefs an individual has about the perspectives of significant others in their life, called subjective norms, is another element in this model. Subjective norm is associated with someone’s perceptions of social pressures (Christopher et al., 2006). Considering what other individuals think about the behavior is crucial (Romano & Netland, 2007). Subjective norms have also been determined to impact intention (Hess, 2011).

In the TRA model, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) indicate there are some boundary conditions that can influence the strength of the relationship between intentions and behavior:

(a) the degree to which the measure of intention and the behavioral criterion correspond with respect to their levels of specificity, (b) the stability of intentions between time of measurement and performance of the behavior, and (c) the degree to which carrying out the intention is under the volitional control of the individual. (Madden, Ellen, & Ajzen, 1992, p. 4)

TRA is a framework in which attitude determined by specific beliefs (behavioral beliefs) regarding the consequences of performing the act and evaluations of those consequences (Christopher et al., 2006). These beliefs can be influential in the way in which attitudes inform and contribute to behavior. Furthermore, Vogel et al. (2005) account for attitude in this way, if someone anticipates a “constructive outcome for a certain behavior (e.g., seeking help will lead to not feeling sad anymore), then they will have a positive attitude (e.g., seeking help is a good thing)” (p. 459).

Theory of Planned Behavior. Previous research determined that the inclusion of Perceived Behavioral Controls enhanced a researcher’s ability to predict intention and behavior (Madden et al., 1992). Ajzen (1985) solidified this model and named it the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB). The TPB framework is depicted as four components: 1) attitude; 2) subjective norm; and 3) perceived behavioral control in relation to Intention, which is, ultimately, associated with 4) behavior (Ajzen, 1985).

Theory of perceived behavioral control. The TPB model includes influences beyond the personal control of the individual. Environmental factors are particularly

relevant and can include social constructs and pressures. In fact, Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC), according to Madden et al. (1992), has both a direct effect on behavior as well as an indirect effect on behavior through the intention variable. PBC includes the critical component of examining attitudes about behaviors. Understanding attitudes toward a behavior is a necessary phase in understanding the possible reasons for behavior and it is also essential in establishing a preventative approach and facilitating behavior change (Romano & Netland, 2007).

According to Romano and Netland (2007), the Theory of Perceived Behavior Incorporates the “addition of the construct PBC to predict behavioral intentions and behaviors that are not under [the individual’s] volitional control” (p. 781). Including PBC may enable researchers to more thoroughly assess the nuances of behavior. There may be factors in the environment that limit the individuals’ ability to perform the behavior, even if the person is motivated to take the desired action (Romano & Netland, 2007). Vogel et al. (2005) also studied mediating factors in the prediction of help-seeking. The study built on the perceived behavior model and the framework supported the inclusion of PBC as it relates to understanding help-seeking intention.

Another key concept of perceived behavior control is associated with behavior change. An individual’s desire to change their behavior is also associated with perceived behavioral control. This element comes into play in the application of strategies to enhance prevention-based work, primarily associated with health behaviors (Romano & Netland, 2007). This study will not address specific, prevention-oriented behaviors, however it is worth noting that PBC is employed in the reduction of risk behaviors in the field of public health (Romano & Netland, 2007). TPB also accounts for the strong

influence of past behavior, which is one of the strongest predictors of help-seeking behavior (Romano & Netland, 2007).

Help Sources in the College Setting

The following section will address the most readily considered sources of assistance for students on a college or university campus. Although there are clearly resources available outside the college campus for students in need, for purposes of this study it is essential to frame the sources of help available for students on the college campus. Although the section to follow will not provide an exhaustive accounting of all help sources a student is likely to access on a campus, it will include information about formal and informal help sources on campuses as well as a description of related, existing research.

There are various sources that provide assistance for students. Individuals know many help sources because of a personal connection or relationship with others (Rickwood et al., 2005). For instance, family members, friends, and colleagues are examples of informal sources of help (Rickwood et al., 2005). Additional common informal sources in a higher education setting may be teachers, coaches, and religious clergy, among others. Alternately, someone trained, licensed, or serving in a professional capacity is considered a formal help source (Rickwood et al., 2005).

It is worthwhile to examine the sources of help an individual prefers to access when they are experiencing something difficult. According to Karabenick (2004) students may prefer formal sources rather than informal sources. This may be due to students perceptions that faculty have an expertise that their peers do not have (Karabenick, 2003). There is, however, an ease of access that exists with informal sources, particularly as it

relates to accessing other students (Knapp & Karabenick, 1988). Examining the help seeking factors associated with reaching out to an informal or formal source of help warrants further examination.

In terms of informal help-seeking sources, faculty members are a key example of these resources on college campuses. Fundamentally professors serve as educators and researchers on their campuses and have regular contact with students. However, faculty also function as knowledgeable and trustworthy agents of the institution, and many campuses have established efforts to foster student and faculty interaction outside the classroom (Gabelnick, MacGregor, Matthews, & Smith, 1990; Golde & Pribbenow, 2000; Shapiro & Levine, 1999). Faculty may also contribute to the retention of students because having a relationship with a faculty member may directly contribute to that student remaining enrolled until they graduate (O’Keeffe, 2013). Examples of faculty involvement in this area include mentoring programs, established advising models, and faculty-in-residence are some common faculty-student engagement systems in place on many campuses (O’Keeffe, 2013).

It is important to note, though, that faculty members may or may not feel comfortable or qualified to assist a student experiencing a mental health issue. In a study by Becker, Martin, Wajeih, Ward, and Shern (2002), when controlling for other factors, faculty for whom there was a greater perception of their ability to help a student with a mental health concern were more likely to refer students or make accommodations for them. Although faculty members may be exposed to students who could be struggling, facilitating student MHHS may be a step that is too directive for some faculty members.

Many campuses also deliver peer educator programs to facilitate informal help-seeking. A primary reason for this approach is connected to research that indicates that students are influenced by “expectations, attitudes, and behaviors of their peer group” (Ender & Newton, 2010, p. 9). College students may be more inclined to have an initial discussion with a student who has undergone training and has an awareness of resolving low-level personal concerns (Ender & Newton, 2010). Additionally, according to Yorgazon, Linville, and Zitzman (2008) students are most likely to become aware of mental health services available on campus from another student. The trained peers are also best able to share personal experience related to working with institutional services and resources.

In terms of formal sources, the provision of counseling services in a higher education setting is organized primarily around a few core functions. First, Winston states that counseling center staff are positioned to help a student work through emotional concerns that come up for them during enrollment (as cited by Komives, Woodward, & Associates et al., 2003). Winston indicates that professionals are often licensed and are also trained to assist students for common concerns, including crisis events and psychological emergencies (as cited by Komives, Woodward, & Associates et al., 2003).

Second, according to Braxton (2003), there has been a greater emphasis on campuses to bolster student persistence rates (as cited in Komives, Woodward, & Associates et al., 2003) and counseling centers may be part of that charge as well. Counseling centers are urged to provide appropriate service at more and different levels than what was previously required. For instance:

‘Stone and Archer (1990) stressed a need for counseling services to (a) clearly define boundaries on the types of problems and degree of severity of those clients for whom the counseling professionals will provide services and (b) develop and identify extensive referral and outreach services to transition effectively more severe clients to appropriate community resources. At the same time, college mental health professionals strive to maintain the developmental, preventive, and consultative services that are integral to their work.’ (as cited in the “Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education,” 2011, p. 2.)

Third, according to Delworth, counseling centers also provide services to help a student in the event of a psychological crisis (as cited by Komives, Woodward, & Associates et al., 2003). The professional staff also ready to receive notice about these concerns from others in the campus community. In other words, mental health professionals serve as consultants to faculty, staff and even student’s family members if there are concerns about a student on the campus.

Lastly, according to Winston, it is imperative that all counseling center licensed mental health professionals were to follow the confidentiality requirements placed on them by the state in which they are licensed as well as other confidentiality guidelines governed by their institution (as cited by Komives, Woodward, & Associates et al., 2003). It is also best for centers to work to enhance awareness of the confidentiality guidelines in place for students who seek services. Overall, the work of counseling centers is specific to individual service for students in need and it also encompasses a great deal of community-oriented work throughout the campus.

Some Effects of Seeking Help at Campus Counseling Centers

There are many resources involved at the campus level that are positioned to support students' success. In particular, the counseling center is a key example of a formal resource toward this end. Generally, institutions in the United States provide counseling and psychotherapy and particular formats vary from campus to campus (American College Health Association, 2010). In the case utilized for this study, the counseling model employed is consistent with counseling, psychotherapy, psychiatric evaluations, psychological assessments and consultations. Some of the impact counseling services can have on college students will be explored further in this section.

In a study by Lee, Olson, Locke, Michelson, and Odes (2009) found, in a study of 10,000 students, that those who participate in counseling, are more likely to stay enrolled in college and are more likely to perform better academically. In particular, studies found that 86% of students who sought counseling for academic related problems, such as thinking about leaving college or transferring, continued their enrollment for at least one more semester (Bishop & Brenneman, 1986). Students who chose to engage with a mental health professional were more likely to work through their academic or enrollment challenges. In another study with college students ($N = 562$) with personal concerns were studied over a two year period, it was found that students who attended counseling had higher rates of continued enrollment than students who did not access counseling (Wilson et al., 1997).

Furthermore, the amount and manner in which resources are allocated to counseling services on a campus is another way campuses may be able to impact student help-seeking. Hunt, Watkins, and Eisenberg (2012) conducted a qualitative study and

found that the allocation of resources toward counseling services is a critical component toward influencing help-seeking. According to the study, decision makers were inclined to fund according to some of these factors, such as ensuring resources are available for students in mental health crisis situations, data supporting the utilization of counseling, activism by individuals on the campus, and the contributions of those in leadership positions on the campus (Hunt et al., 2012). Clearly there is a broad spectrum of factors that contribute to help-seeking.

Some Key Factors that Influence Likelihood of Help Seeking

Existing research has identified some factors that may increase or decrease the likelihood of help seeking, also referred to as approach and avoidance factors (Kushner & Sher, 1989; Vogel & Wester, 2003). In a study by Vogel et al. (2005) approach factors are defined as an individual's level of distress and his or her desire to minimize distress are related to an increase in likelihood the individual will seek out help. Fear of treatment is an example of an avoidance factor that can manifest as an obstacle for some individuals (Park, Attenweiler, & Rieck, 2012). Approach-style factors are associated with actively reaching out for assistance. As for avoidance-type factors, Vogel et al. (2005) describe factors that reduce the likelihood of an individual to seek out help from a counselor.

Counseling professionals are challenged to better understand the individual differences involved in students' help-seeking decisions (Komiya, Good & Sherrod, 2000). Furthermore, according to Vogel and Wei (2005):

...both individuals with attachment anxiety and those with attachment avoidance would perceive less social support, this lack of support would be negatively

associated with the psychological distress they experience, and this distress would be positively associated with their intention to seek professional help. These findings are important because although avoidant individuals were less comfortable admitting their distress and less likely to see the need for professional help, they were willing to acknowledge problems with social support, and this lack of support contributed to their feeling of psychological distress, which then contributed to their willingness to seek professional help. (p. 354)

It is essential to heighten the awareness of those involved in helping facilitate help-seeking behavior in college students. This is crucial in increasing the usage of mental health services.

Moreover, attitudes held by college students are integral in their help-seeking decision-making. Vogel and Wester (2003) found that “past counseling experience has a direct link with participants’ toward seeking psychological help...therefore, if we as counselors want to reach out to those in need of services, it seems we would need to first address their attitudes toward counseling” (p. 358). According to Vogel and Wester (2003) help-seeking variables only account for 25% of the variance associated with help-seeking attitudes. It was Fisher and Cohen (1972) who developed a scale, the Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale, which suggested that those with more favorable attitudes toward seeking out counseling had, in turn, more positive expectations of counselors. In many regards, why an individual seeks help is left largely unknown (Vogel & Wester, 2003) and there is great opportunity for mental health professionals and higher education administrators to expand this knowledge to format services in a more focused and effective manner.

Another step that campus officials can take is to inform the campus community, particularly the student body; about mental health concerns and the benefits of treatment is a critical task for mental health professionals working on college campuses. Vogel et al. (2007) describe the “need for mental health professionals to provide accurate information about mental illness and treatment to reduce the negative stereotypes so that people can make informed decisions” (p. 416). A great deal of effort is also made to promote MHHS behavior through public awareness campaigns, promotional materials as well as conversations with self-identified individuals who have accessed counseling services in the past as a way to normalize MHHS (Vogel et al., 2007). Additionally there is also a need to educate others who are a part of the social network of an undergraduate who may be struggling. Downs and Eisenberg (2012) suggest that encouragement from others was a strong component for the individuals who sought treatment. Therefore educating members of the campus community who are poised to refer those in their social network to services is a critical task. The social networks may also contribute to an individuals’ sense of belonging on the campus, which will be described in more detail below.

Stigma. In order to understand the individual differences and broader, environmental components that influence help-seeking, it is important to address the impact of stigma. The research about stigma and its effects on individuals in terms of their willingness to seek psychological assistance is prolific. The study did not examine the nuances of stigma and its predictive effect on MHHS. However, the following section will describe stigma in order to ground the study in a key, external variable that may influence MHHS.

According to Link and Phelan (2013) stigma as a process and it is affected by global constructs, like culture, society and the environment. In terms of help-seeking, stigma can be a significant deterrent. It is experienced by all cultures and is pervasive for many with mental illness (Hinshaw, 2005; Pinto-Foltz & Logsdon, 2008). Vogel, Wade, and Aschman (2009) suggested that there are two types of stigma, self-stigma and public stigma, and various aspects of these categories of stigma that may have more of an effect on the individual and their decision making process to seek help. The authors also state that greater levels of stigmatization by one's social network may contribute to public-level stigma and individual help-seeking may, therefore, be even less likely to take place (Vogel et al., 2009).

Self-stigma is associated with one's negative beliefs about themselves as it relates to seeking help and public stigma is connected to a perception by people in general that help-seeking is a poor decision and not socially encouraged (Corrigan, 2004; Vogel, Wade & Haake, 2006; Vogel, Wade, & Hackler, 2007). Public stigma is especially impactful when coming from individuals someone interacts with on a regular basis such as family, friends, individuals in the university setting, and others (Vogel et al., 2007). Stigmatization from individuals in one's personal life may be a strong deterrent toward seeking help and may be associated with greater self-stigma toward seeking psychological assistance (Cheng, Kwan, & Seving, 2013). Those in one's personal life may substantially contribute to one's sense of self-stigmatization and, ultimately, one's impetus for seeking psychological help. According to Loya, Reddy, and Hinshaw (2010) the personal views of Caucasian students ($n = 74$) were more positive than South Asian students ($n = 54$) and results provided critical information about the stigmatization

experienced by many South Asian students and an opportunity to develop efforts to reach this specific student population.

Perceived public stigma can have an impact on an individual's decision making for seeking help. Vogel et al. (2009) developed and tested the reliability and validity of the Perceptions of Stigmatization by Others for Seeking Help Scale (PSOSH). The scale authors were interested in determining what was involved in the help-seeking process for the individual as it relates to other's views of accessing psychological help. Findings suggested that social stigma of those in one's personal life predicts attitudes about seeking help from a counselor (Vogel et al., 2009). Additionally, according to Cheng et al. (2013), the more concerned racial and ethnic minority students are with stigmatization by others for accessing mental health care the more likely they may feel a sense of self-stigma.

In addition, according to Corrigan (2004), social stigma is a primary deterrent to MHHS. Perceived negative attitudes from others for seeking assistance are serious concerns for many individuals. Reluctance to disclose mental health problems may be associated with social stigma (Quinn et al., 2009). Effective MHHS also necessitates a certain level of personal vulnerability. In fact, Karabenick (1998) explains that MHHS is a self-regulatory function. Self-regulation is a skill by which an individual is able to manage key aspects of his/her life (Schunk, 2008). An individual who seeks help must first acknowledge their personal concerns to themselves and then decide to engage another individual to assist in resolving the problem.

Finally, Vogel et al. (2007) arrived at an important finding in their work about public and self-oriented stigma. The authors developed a model that suggests that public-stigma can lead to negative personal internalization of stigma. The researchers tested

their model by using SEM with a population of 676 undergraduate students. Findings suggested that stigma by others was mediated by an individual's internalization of that stigma (Vogel et al., 2007). According to Quinn et al. (2009) there is often "a general reluctance amongst students to disclose their mental health problems or to seek help, largely due to the stigma that exists" (p. 405). This may, in turn, have an effect on one's likelihood to self-conceal, which is discussed in a following section. Overall the relationship between public-stigma and the effect it can have on self-stigma is impactful for many in the field of counseling, as well as those responsible for educating the community about mental health help-seeking.

Some effects of seeking mental health services. For those individuals who decide to access mental health care they, generally, reported experiencing a range of benefits after accessing counseling services on campus. For instance, Lucas (2012) utilized the Psychotherapy Outcome Assessment and Monitoring System and studied college students ($N = 1,930$) who chose not to attend their initial counseling appointment, those who were placed on a wait list for services and those who attended at least eight sessions. Findings suggest that students who self-reported a high level of distress upon intake at the campus counseling center felt the greatest improvement if they attended at least eight counseling sessions. Lucas (2012) also notes that campus counseling center may need to encourage students to continue in counseling if they are likely to either stop attending before they are able to adjust to benefits from therapeutic services or if they were disinclined to attend their appointments. However, it must also be noted that some individuals do not feel as though they encountered helpful providers when they initiated treatment and this may lead to less of a desire to seek help in the future (Lucas, 2012).

This issue is an ongoing concern for mental health professionals and researchers studying factors that enhance early and frequent MHHS behavior.

Key Psychological Variables in Study

There are a multitude of psychological variables that have been assessed in the MHHS literature. The study focused on analyzing four psychological specific variables: Distress; Attitude toward seeking psychological assistance; Social provisions; and Self-concealment. The variables were intentionally selected for this study because the variables are four relevant, psychological variables worth examining in terms of their potential influence on students' help-seeking at the counseling center on campus. In addition, existing literature, especially Cramer's (1999) work, suggests there is more to study in terms of how these variables influence help-seeking. The following section begins with an explanation of the four variables, then describes work by Cramer (1999) and concludes with information about studies that set out to test Cramer's (1999) analysis of the related psychological variables.

Psychological distress. Distress is a critical variable to consider in relation to help-seeking and is essential to this study. Counseling center staffs have reported a change of the distress levels of students accessing their services over time (Erdur-Baker, Aberson, Barrow, & Draper, 2006). In most cases mental health professionals have reported an increase in the severity of the problems for students. Generally, higher levels of psychological distress are associated with a greater willingness to seek assistance from a mental health professional or service, yet there are also other factors that influence help-seeking.

Research by Wilson, Rickwood, and Deane (2007, p. 98) suggested that “problem recognition is viewed as a facilitator of help-seeking behavior, and increasing psychological distress has been shown to facilitate such recognition, although not to the extent that might be expected.” For instance, according to Vogel et al. (2005), distress alone is “not a clear predictor of someone seeking help but that it may be the interaction between the anticipated outcomes (i.e. the risks of talking about an emotional issue) and the experience of a specific distressing event that predicts MHHS behavior” (p. 467). Distress level needs to be considered broadly and in conjunction with other factors.

Ingham and Miler (1986) were two preeminent authors in assessing distress as a factor in one’s decision to seek professional help. It is important to note that the study was centered around an individual’s access to a medical provider in a health center. In addition the study was conducted in Great Britain, where there is a relatively different model for those seeking help for their symptoms. Overall the authors assessed the likelihood of consultation with a health provider based on symptom severity (Ingham & Miller, 1986). The authors designed a study that utilized a two-interview model. The interviews were structured to analyze the decision-making process one goes through when they decide to visit a doctor and what kind of social and demographic variables play a role in help-seeking behavior (Ingham & Miller, 1986). One interview took place at the health center when the person had a scheduled appointment and the second took place in the individual’s home at a later time. The population was 1,416 and the ages of participants ranged from 16 to 75. Findings suggest that those who are most likely to consult with a doctor were those who could not say what was the cause of their problem,

followed by those who believed there was an “internal physical cause” (Ingham & Miller, 1986, p. 51).

Overall, the help-seeking literature suggested that symptom severity is the primary factor along with demographic, environmental and personality variables (Ingham & Miller, 1986). It is also important to note that accessing help from a doctor was mediated by symptom severity. Ingham and Miller (1986) explained that in considering stressful events, the decision making process to seek help is mediated by symptoms. In other words, the authors describe that the stress of life events may cause anxiety, depression or other concerns, which may increase the person’s likelihood of consulting with a doctor. However, in other instances, the likelihood of seeking help occurs independently from symptoms (Ingham & Miller, 1986). For instance, there were significant interactions found in marital status and sex and specifically those who were married or cohabiting with a partner were less likely to consult with a doctor and those who did not have a partner were more likely to seek help (Ingham & Miller, 1986).

This study provides a critical foundation for work going forward about significant influences on one’s decision making to seek help. Ingham and Miller’s (1986) findings suggest that symptom severity, or distress, was the main determinant of help seeking behavior and this was a key finding in the help-seeking field. The finding also established a key foundation for subsequent research as it relates to distress levels and inclination to seek help. In the higher education field there is grave concern that individuals who need help the most are the most severely distressed and are also not seeking help (Gallagher, 2008). The author’s study enabled other researchers to understand more about which

specific symptoms are involved when an individual decides to seek psychological assistance.

However, there is more work needed to understand distress and how it relates to help-seeking. For instance, in some cases, studies indicated that levels of distress do not affect MHHS intention. Instead factors such as willingness to disclose information persuaded MHHS (Komiya et al., 2000). Deane et al. (2001) claim that students were more likely to seek assistance for particular issues but not for other problems. The researchers indicated that students are inclined to seek help for suicidal thoughts but not for concerns such as depression/anxiety or personal/emotional issues. It is also important to note that more work is needed to understand distress and how it contributes to help-seeking.

Attitude toward professional psychological help-seeking. This variable is considered a variable of primary importance in the related literature. For instance Cramer (1999) noted that volumes of studies have suggested that one's perception of help-seeking is a strong predictor of likelihood to seek help. In terms of understanding attitude toward seeking help, Rickwood and Braithwaite (1994) conducted a study with 715 high school students in Australia to better understand individuals' attitudes toward seeking help when faced with emotional problems and how those attitudes predict help seeking behavior taking place. In particular, the authors measured the following independent variables via these scales: Symptoms, measured by General Health Questionnaire (GHQ) to assess current health status; Personality, measured by Self-Consciousness and Illness Behavior Questionnaire; and Network was measured by the Interview Schedule for Social Interaction to assess social support. Rickwood and Briathwaite (1994) performed a

multiple regression and of the 704 individuals who sought help there were a number of significant findings.

In Rickwood and Braithwaite's (1994) work, findings suggest that help-seeking in general was predicted by more symptoms of distress, being female, availability of social support, knowing another person who has seen a counselor, and high self-consciousness and willingness to disclose mental health. In their analysis of gender, authors controlled for symptoms and found that gender was still significant, which suggests that help-seeking styles are different for men and women (Rickwood & Braithwaite, 1994). However according to Rickwood and Braithwaite (1994), when only considering emotional distress, only gender and willingness to disclose were significant predictors of help-seeking.

Rickwood and Braithwaite's (1994) work contributed to the psychological help-seeking field as it relates to predictor factors when distress is incorporated into the model. Gaining insight into which factors are significant when emotional distress is accounted for in the model is particularly relevant for mental health professionals in the higher education system. Considering the significant findings in Rickwood and Braithwaite's (1994) work, efforts can and should be made by practitioners to reach male students, increase the likelihood of students' willingness to seek help, and reach students at times when they have high levels of willingness to seek help. Of course these effort should be geared toward reaching the individual students. Additionally, they should be considered through the lens of campus factors and influences campus environment can have on students' willingness to seek assistance when they are feeling distressed. This study examined some of these issues.

The literature does extend into willingness to seek help in terms of one's attitudes toward help-seeking. For instance, a study by Erkan, Cankaya, Ozbay, and Terzi (2012) assessed willingness of students via survey instruments, ages 11 through 24, in Turkey ($N = 5829$) to seek psychological assistance. The authors utilized the following instruments: the Self Concealment Scale, Attitudes Towards Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale, Social Support Scale (focused specifically on family, friend and special person) as well as other scales such as the Personal Form, Willingness to Seek Counseling Scale, Problem Areas Scale, Multi-Dimensional Perceived Social Support Scale and the Bem Sex Role Inventory. Although the Willingness of Seek Counseling Scale was not utilized in this study, it is particularly relevant because of the applicability to assessing likelihood to seek help (internal consistency is .92.) (Erkan et al., 2012).

Social provisions. Help-seeking is a social coping process, which involves social relationships and interpersonal skills (Rickwood et al., 2005). Moreover, help-seeking is an “approach” style of coping (Rickwood et al., 2005). This coping strategy facilitates positive steps taken toward resolving the problem. According to Rickwood et al. (2005) and Miville and Constantine (2006) the availability of social support is related to less access to professional MHHS when individuals feel that their social support systems are sufficient. Engaging with a help-seeking source, such as a professional resource or someone with a personal connection, empowers the individual toward a more active resolution process (Rickwood et al., 2005; Vogel et al., 2007).

Sherbourne (1988) conducted a study to examine the role of social supports and stressful events in relation to individual's use of mental health services. Specifically the author's purpose was to test “whether or not life stress events and social supports predict

the use of mental health services” (Sherbourne, 1988, p. 1394). The population in the study was not specifically college students rather participants were part of the general population. Participants were part of a three to five year longitudinal study and the population included a total of 4580 and their ages were 14 and older. Sherbourne (1988) used data from the RAND Health Insurance Experiment (HIE). The HIE followed families over a 3-5 year period in three states in the United States and participants in Sherbourne’s (1988) study were pulled from the HIE population. Participants were given a financial incentive to complete questionnaires. The independent variables in the study were the Social Activity Battery, which assessed two dimensions of social networks, namely social resources and social contacts. According to Sherbourne (1988), social resources are defined as “ties the individual can rely on” and it also suggests that individual with high numbers of close friends and relatives have more robust relationships in which to rely on and confide in (p. 1395). Those social contacts are defined as behaviors the individual is doing (Sherbourne, 1988). Lastly, life stress events were studied by using the Rahe Social Readjustment Rating Scale and the measurement tool assessed personal life events that happened in the past 6 months.

In the study, Sherbourne (1988) used probit regression modeling and results suggested a number of interesting relationships between stressful events and social support structures. First, more acute life events did not significantly predict use of mental health services. Sherbourne (1988) states that long-term, chronic stressors may lead to more serious disorders and, therefore, may be more predictive of help-seeking. Second, in terms of social support, the Sherbourne (1988) found that more social resources were related to less likelihood to seek help from a mental health professional. However,

Sherbourne (1988) did note that it was expected that the presence of close friends and relatives would decrease an individual's use of mental health services.

Sherbourne's (1988) study was one of the first to demonstrate that life events and social support are predictive of help-seeking behavior. In the higher education context it can be extremely helpful to consider the needs of students with long-term, chronic stressors and the influence social resources have on help-seeking. Designing efforts to specifically inform students about the benefits of accessing social supports as well as the benefits of counseling could be useful.

Considering the impact of social resources, mental health clinicians should be particularly aware of the role friends and relatives play in terms of generally addressing the individuals concerns about stressful events. Utilizing one's social network is generally a healthy, productive step in managing stress. In some instances, however, accessing social support may not be entirely sufficient. Mental health clinicians, of course, are acutely aware of this and should devise strategies on campuses to inform members of the campus community about the distinction of being helpful to a student in need and when it becomes possibly necessary to facilitate the student assessing help from a professional counselor.

Self-concealment. Self-concealment is a construct that is worth examining in the context of mental health help-seeking. Larson and Chastain (1990) are the preeminent researchers who initiated work around self-concealment. It is something distinct from self-disclosure and is considered to be active concealment of personal information that one considers to be negative or distressing (Larson & Chastain, 1990). There are three components to self-concealment: (a) it is personal information that is a "subset of private

personal information, (b) consciously accessible to the individual, and (c) actively kept from the awareness of others” (Larson & Chastain, 1990, p. 440). According to Larson and Chastain (1990) some individuals are more inclined to self-conceal than others and there are also specific types of traumatic or distressing events or information an individual may be more likely to self-conceal. It is important to note that self-concealment may have detrimental effects on the individual, perhaps even more so than the original distressing event (Pennebaker, 1985). The impact of continuing to conceal may seriously deter the person’s ability to process the distressing event.

Larson and Chastain (1990) distributed questionnaires to three sets of samples. First, human or social service workers were contacted from a university mailing list. Second, individuals who attended a professional conference were asked to participate. Lastly, graduate students enrolled in a counseling psychology program were contacted and 306 participated. Subjects completed the Self-Concealment Scale (SCS), the Self-Disclosure Index, Social Support and Social Network measure, Physical Symptom Checklist, Anxiety and Depression Scales, and Life Events or Experiences inventory. Performing an exploratory maximum-likelihood factor analysis tested the reliability of the SCS and results suggest it is reliable and uni-dimensional (Larson & Chastain, 1990).

Moreover, Larson and Chastain (1990) were able to demonstrate that self-concealment is associated with health outcomes, such as help-seeking. Specifically the authors noted that self-concealment is significantly related to physical and psychological symptoms. Even after controlling for trauma incidence, trauma distress, trauma disclosure, social support and social network, and self-disclosure levels, self-concealment was a significant predictor of symptoms. Also, in light of concretizing a new construct,

Larson and Chastain (1990) offer some hypotheses or theories about the potential impacts on health outcomes. The theory that is most applicable to the higher education environment is related to the idea that self-concealment “may affect health status by limiting the range and frequency of helping behaviors offered by significant others” in the person’s life (Larson & Chastain, 1990, p. 453). In the higher education environment there are generally abundant interactions with members of the campus community. Each one of these interactions is valuable and could be instrumental in facilitating the students’ decision to talk about a personally distressing or negative issue.

Furthermore, according to Kelly and Achter (1995), those who are inclined to conceal emotionally distressing information are less likely to want to reach out for help from a mental health professional based on 256 participants in their study. Hinson and Swanson (1993; $N = 145$) found that willingness to disclose to a counselor indicates that the individual is more likely to actually go to a mental health professional. Hinson and Swanson (1993) also found that reluctance to disclose distressing information was a deterrent to MHHS. However, some studies, such as Cepeda-Benito and Short (1998), did not detect difference in the likelihood of an individual to access mental health treatment based on levels of self-concealment. The differing results related to self-concealment indicate that it is appropriate to continue work to better understand this construct.

Moreover, related to disclosure to counselors, in a study by Koydemir, Erel, Yumurtaci, and Sahin (2010) addressing students’ willingness to access mental health professionals include findings that offer more information about the nature of students’ likelihood to disclose to professionals. It is also important to address this study as it utilizes a qualitative methodology in assessing student MHHS which is not a readily

found in the literature. The work was conducted in three urban universities in Turkey (Koydemir et al., 2010). Although there are certainly distinct cultural aspects associated with the Turkish population as compared to United States undergraduates, it is still worthwhile to describe the research. The students in the study ($N = 15$) were second-year students or older (Koydemir et al., 2010). In the study the researchers examined adjustment to college, the sources from which students seek assistance and the barriers students feel toward seeking psychological assistance (Koydemir et al., 2010).

In terms of methodology, the study participants were interviewed by the researchers and were asked a series of nine open-ended questions (Koydemir et al., 2010). The questions were centered around the “challenges they faced upon entering the university and also at the time of interview, methods of dealing with problems, the sources they sought help from, their perceptions and beliefs about help-seeking, the situation that would prompt them to seek help from a professionals, their willingness to self-disclose to a counselor, and general community beliefs about counseling and help-seeking” (Koydemir et al., 2010, p. 277). Researchers applied a “Consensual Qualitative Methodology” (Hill, Thompson & Williams, 1997, p. 276) analysis approach and first identified main domains, then constructed core ideas by summarizing the transcription statements, and finally conducted a cross-analysis to confirm the categories and subcategories of the codes.

The most relevant findings to the study are associated with students’ willingness to disclose to a counselor, instances in which they would seek professional help, and sources of help they contacted to seek assistance. In terms of students’ willingness to disclose to a counselor, over half of the interview respondents indicate they would be

willing to disclose to a counselor (Koydemir et al., 2010). The two primary themes that emerged for students who were not willing to disclose to a counselor were a lack of trust in the counselor or the physical or personal characteristics of the counselor (Koydemir et al., 2010). As it relates to the sorts of situations the students were willing to ask assistance, the respondents overwhelmingly suggested they would seek psychological assistance if and only if they had exhausted all their other options (Koydemir et al., 2010). However a variant response is that some students would seek professional help if the problem were severe enough (Koydemir et al., 2010). Lastly, the sources of help respondents referred most readily to friends, then parents, followed by authority figures and two students indicate they would consult with a counselor (Koydemir et al., 2010).

Koydemir et al. (2010) also provide some suggestions for future research. The most applicable to the work is related to students disinclination to disclose to someone they are not familiar with (Koydemir et al., 2010). Perhaps bolstering awareness of the purpose and benefits of counseling (Koydemir et al., 2010) would enhance rates at which undergraduates access those services. The qualitative component of the study intended to enhance related knowledge.

Analysis of self-concealment in relation to other psychological variables. In a study conducted by Kelly and Achter (1995), the authors assessed the relationship between self-concealment, attitudes toward seeking psychological help and intentions to seek counseling. The study was organized in two parts, one involved students taking an introductory psychology course ($N = 260$) who were asked to complete a set of instruments, and the second study involved students ($n = 83$) being presented a description of counseling and asked for their interpretation of the statements as well as to

complete the survey instruments (Kelly & Achter, 1995). The students were asked to respond to the: the Self-Concealment Scale, Intention to Seek Counseling Inventory, Fischer-Turner Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale, Social Provisions Scale, and Beck Depression Inventory (Kelly & Achter, 1995). Although both studies utilized the Self-Concealment Scale, the second study also included a description of counseling that emphasized the extent to which someone would need to reveal personal information in a counseling session as well as an opportunity for students to list five thoughts that occurred to them as they read the descriptions (Kelly & Achter, 1995). In addition, according to Kelly and Achter (1995), those students were asked to provide a rank on a 9-point scale how much disclosure is required in the counseling process.

Results in both studies suggested that higher levels of self-concealment were associated with individuals being more likely to seek counseling for various problems (Kelly & Achter, 1995). However findings suggested that individuals are also less likely to have favorable perspectives on counseling (Kelly & Achter, 1995). The authors found that self-concealment was a better predictor of likelihood to seek help than psychological distress. Kelly and Achter (1995) also found that individuals with high self-concealment were over 50% more likely to have seen a counselor than those with low self-concealment. Additionally, Kelly and Achter's (1995) findings suggested that lack of social support was the reason high self-concealers were more likely to want to seek help than those with low-levels of self-concealment. It is also worth noting that participants who read the high-disclosure description with high levels of self-concealing were less favorable than low self-concealers (Kelly & Achter, 1995). However, for the low-disclosure statement about counseling there was no significant difference between high

and low self-concealers (Kelly & Achter, 1995). The authors indicate that findings suggest that high self-concealers may have negative views of seeking help because they believe they will need to talk about “highly personal information” in counseling sessions (Kelly & Achter, 1995, p. 44). There is more to examine as it relates to self-concealment and seeking help.

In a study by Cepeda-Benito and Short (1998), the authors assessed distress in a different way than Kelly and Achter (1995) as it relates to the effect of self-concealment. Cepeda-Benito and Short (1998) considered distress by using a different scale, which examined distress as a situational variable, or one in which the person is likely to seek help for a particular concern. In the study with students ($N = 732$) enrolled in introductory and upper-level psychology classes, participants completed the following measures: Hopkins Symptom Checklist-21; Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help; Thoughts about Psychotherapy Survey; Wilcox Social Support Network Survey; Self-Concealment Scale; and the Intention of Seeking Counseling Inventory (Cepeda-Benito & Short, 1998). Multiple regression analyses were conducted to predict likelihood to seek help for the three problems outlined in the Intention of Seeking Counseling Inventory, which were psychological and interpersonal concerns, academic concerns, and drug use concerns. Kelly and Achter (1995) utilize the Beck Depression Inventory and that is a more general tool used to measure distress.

Results of the study suggested that, in contrast to Kelly and Achter’s (1995) findings, those inclined to be high self-concealers were more likely to avoid counseling rather than seek it out. Additionally, Cepeda-Benito and Short (1998) findings suggest a contrast with Kelly and Achter (1995) as it relates to low levels of social support serving

as an influence in seeking help and in terms of self-concealment serving as a better predictor of one's likelihood to seek help as compared to distress. Cepeda-Benito and Short (1998) found that distress is a better predictor than social support mechanisms as it relates to likelihood to access MHHS. In addition there was no indication that self-concealment was a significant predictor for accessing help for any of the three types of distress considered by the study. Another result suggests that favorable attitudes toward psychotherapy significantly predicted likelihood to seek help for any reason help would be sought (Cepeda-Benito & Short, 1998).

According to Cepeda-Benito and Short (1998) the differences between their study and Kelly and Achter's (1995) study may be due to methodological differences, as noted above in terms of the distress measure and the additional two variables assessed in their study. However, Cepeda-Benito and Short (1998) state it is unlikely differences exist because of sampling strategies. Overall, findings suggest there is more to examine as it relates to self-concealment.

Cramer's analysis. The research most directly related to the quantitative aspect of the study is associated with Cramer's work. Cramer (1999) developed a model that draws on the fundamentals of TRA and TPB, yet this model is a distinct framework that focuses on the four elements of help-seeking: Distress, Attitude toward counseling, Social provisions and Self-concealment. Cramer's (1999) model is one that addresses volitional and non-volitional intention and can be utilized to assess help-seeking intention from a global perspective. Although the work does not involve conducting a path analysis, which was the methodology in Cramer's (1999) study, it is important to acknowledge the existing work and its contribution to the help-seeking literature. In addition, Cramer's

(1999) work is also particularly relevant to the higher education context because the analysis is designed to understand the predictive effect of the four psychological variables. The following section will articulate the basic components in Cramer's (1999) work and lay the foundation for the work.

Cramer (1999) developed a path model to explain an individual's decision to seek psychological help. Psychological distress is examined from the perspective of the severity of the distress feelings. Attitudes toward counseling are connected to the individual's beliefs about psychological help-seeking and how likely the individual is to access counseling to solve their problem. The social support is examined through perceptions the individual has about the assistance they will receive from others to address their concern. Lastly, the topic of self-concealment is related to the individual's inclination to share their personal feelings about an emotional matter.

Cramer surveyed a robust sample of almost 1,000 participants and the model has been used in a number of studies (1999). Cramer's (1999) model specifically proposes that those who have higher levels of self-concealment are less inclined to have social support, have higher levels of distress, and have more negative attitudes toward psychological counseling. Lower levels of perceived social support are more likely to connect to greater distress, and subsequently distress and attitudes about help-seeking affect help-seeking behavior (Cramer, 1999).

Cramer set about to understand inconsistent findings and used path configurations to consider the relationship strength of antecedents for direct and indirect predictors. Inconsistent findings in previous studies examine the relation of each psychological variable in terms of help-seeking. Researchers also noted that individuals are more likely

to access a mental health professional when personal problems cause challenges in their ability to cope and distress levels are at a motivating point (Wood, 2010). Sherbourne (1998) suggests that social support is a significant predictor for seeking help when their social support system is “impaired or ineffective” (Cramer, 1999, p. 381).

However, it is important to note that Cepeda-Benito and Short (1998), Kelly and Achter (1995), and Rickwood and Braithwaite (1994) suggest that social support was not a significant predictor of help-seeking. Kelly and Achter (1995) suggest self-concealment and attitude were the only significant predictors and high self-concealers were more likely to seek help. Additionally, Cepeda-Benito and Short (1998) note that distress, attitude, social support and interaction of social support and self-concealment were significant and high self-concealers were less likely to seek help. Lastly, according to Cramer (1999), Larson and Chastain (1990) suggested that individuals who are likely to self-conceal are less likely to seek help from a mental health professional. However, Cepeda-Benito and Short (1998) and Rickwood and Braithwaite (1994) findings did not support this prediction, and Kelly and Achter (1995) reported a modest but significant effect.

In the study, Cramer (1999) generated covariance matrices for a path analysis by converting scale correlations and standard deviations from Cepeda-Benito and Short (1998; $N = 732$) and Kelly and Achter (1995; $N = 256$). These two studies tested the four psychological variables noted above. According to the path model, self-concealment is more strongly related to distress than with attitudes toward counseling, and help-seeking is more strongly related with counseling than distress (Cramer, 1999). In particular, according to the model in the study, individuals are more likely to access a mental health

professional when distress is high and attitudes toward counseling are positive (Cramer, 1999). Distress is likely to be high when social support networks are hindered and when individuals conceal personally distressing information from others in their lives, and individuals who conceal are likely to have negative attitudes toward counseling and impaired social networks (Cramer, 1999).

There are some findings that align with other researchers' work. For instance, Cramer's findings are consistent with Cepeda-Benito and Short (1998) and Cramer states "self-concealment more deeply paves the road to intensification rather than relief of psychological problems" (1999, p. 385). Cramer (1999) also discusses that a more sophisticated statistical analyses are needed to understand the complicated decision making involved in seeking help for self-concealers. Although this study will continue to examine the help-seeking decision making process of self-concealers, the study did not analyze the nuances of self-concealment. Rather the study considered these four psychological antecedents to help-seeking more broadly and in the context of seeking help on campus. These psychological factors are especially relevant because there is a need to understand whether demographic variables or psychological variables intervene more in one's psychological help-seeking process (Cramer, 1999).

Testing Cramer's path model. As previously noted, there are inconsistent findings in relation to the predictive effect of the four psychological variables. Due to these discrepancies, researchers have set about to study the variables in various analyses. The following sections will explain the findings of three studies associated with Cramer's (1999) work.

First, Liao et al. (2005) conducted a study that examined Cramer's (1999) model while adding the construct of acculturation to the model. It was important for the authors to analyze Cramer's (1999) model in relation to ethnic minority groups (Liao et al., 2005). It is relevant to consider how Asian culture influences help-seeking behavior as there are studies that suggest those who feel more accustomed to American culture, norms and values are more likely to have more positive intention toward help-seeking (Liao et al., 2005). Understanding how acculturation influences Cramer's (1999) model is also an important element to consider because it may be another variable to consider in terms of personal and environmental variables.

The study was situated at a large, predominantly White, Midwestern university and the population was 538 college students enrolled in educational psychology courses (Liao et al., 2005). Of the students in the study, there were 202 Asian and Asian American students and 44% were born in the United States and 34% were Asian international students. The instruments utilized in the study were consistent with Cramer's (1999) work, except the authors also utilized the Severity of Personal Concerns and Willingness to Seek Counseling instead of the distress scale used by Cramer. In addition, acculturation was tested via the Behavioral acculturation and Adherence to Asian value scales (Liao et al., 2005).

Liao et al. (2005) conducted a structural invariance analysis to assess if the various models are invariant for Asian and Asian American sample and the White sample. Findings suggested that, overall, results replicated most of Cramer's (1999) predictions (Liao et al., 2005). In particular, students with higher degrees of distress and positive attitudes toward counseling were more willing to seek help; those who were considered

to be high in self-concealment had less social support, more severe distress and less social support; and students with higher levels of social support had lower severity of personal concerns (Liao et al., 2005). There were also a few interesting findings in the study. One suggested that self-concealment was more negatively related to attitude toward counseling for Asian and Asian American students than for White undergraduates (Liao et al., 2005).

Ultimately, the authors suggested that including acculturation significantly improved the model for Asian and Asian American students. Another finding suggested that adherence to Asian value accounted for more variance than behavioral acculturation, which was anticipated by the authors (Liao et al., 2005). Overall the study purported the influence of cultural aspects to the help-seeking process (Liao et al., 2005). As many researchers have noted, there are numerous personal variables that should be examined in the help-seeking literature. Acculturation is an important one that emphasizes individual and broad, environmental elements.

Second, Leech (2007) performed a study that aimed to examine the applicability of Cramer's (1999) model of willingness to seek counseling for students in a master's level counseling program. As practitioners in training and because there was no previous research on this particular population, it was useful to understand the predictive ability of Cramer's (1999) model with a population that was different from an undergraduate sample. The population for the study was gathered from 19 master's level counseling programs across the United States (Leech, 2007). The programs were housed in both small and large universities. The total population was 519 and participants completed a set of paper copy surveys that were mailed by faculty instructors. The survey instruments

were consistent with Cramer's (1999) study and Intention to Seek Counseling Inventory was also included. Leech (2007) performed a confirmatory factor analysis and a structural equation modeling analysis.

The Leech (2007) study suggests a few things. First, there were three positive relations in the model, and they include self-concealment and distress, distress and willingness to seek help, and attitude toward counseling and willingness to seek counseling. Second, there were also three negative relations discovered in the study (Leech, 2007). Specifically, self-concealment and social support, social support and distress, and self-concealment and attitude toward counseling all had significant negative correlations with willingness to seek help (Leech, 2007). The findings seemed to be consistent with Cramer's (1999) model and also provided an interesting assessment on help-seeking for graduate students in counseling programs.

Lastly, according to a study conducted by Vogel and Armstrong (2010), there is a need to assess Cramer's (1999) model to understand how students approach help-seeking when faced with particular sets of challenges. In particular, the authors examined student help-seeking reporting psychological, academic or career-related issues (Vogel & Armstrong, 2010). There was a need to understand help-seeking for students currently facing these particular challenges. The study also "evaluate[d] if self-concealment lead to lower levels of positive social experiences or greater levels of negative social experiences (or both)" (Vogel & Armstrong, 2010, p. 388).

Participants in the study were undergraduate students ($N = 235$) and they were enrolled at a large, Midwestern university (Vogel & Armstrong, 2010). Study participants completed a set of surveys and received extra credit in a psychology class. It is important

to note that 336 students responded to the surveys, however only 235 indicated they were currently facing a psychological, academic or career-related issue, therefore those were the students included in the study (Vogel & Armstrong, 2010). Cramer's (1999) instrumentation was used, except for the inclusion of the Social Experiences Scale instead of the Social provisions scale. A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to assess model fit and bootstrapping was used to analyze significant levels of indirect effects for the mediated model (Vogel & Armstrong, 2010).

Vogel and Armstrong's (2010) findings suggested that individuals' tendency to conceal information seems to be linked to the willingness to seek counseling for psychological, academic and career issues, and there are mediators of negative social experiences and distress level (Vogel & Armstrong, 2010). Another aspect of Vogel and Armstrong's (2010) findings that may be impactful to those in higher education is that tendencies to self-conceal lead to challenges as it relates to gaining positive social experiences, not the other way around (Vogel & Armstrong, 2010). As Vogel and Armstrong (2010) suggest, this finding lends itself to designing interventions and other strategies to address the relationship between self-concealment and social interactions.

Theoretical Psychological Help-Seeking Frameworks for Study

In the following section, a description of and rationale for the psychological help-seeking theory underpinning the study will be provided. Although there are many theories associated with the MHHS literature, the theories of Perceived Behavioral Control and Willingness Toward Seeking Help are most relevant in the context of this study. This will be examined in greater detail in the section below.

There is no comprehensive or agreed upon theoretical construct for help-seeking behavior, and the field of psychology has addressed help-seeking primarily in one of the following models: either through examining specific variables that influence overall help-seeking or by closely analyzing a particular psychological concern and help-seeking around that issue (Rickwood et al., 2005). For instance, Cepeda-Benito and Short (1998) used a model to examine general help-seeking with 732 subjects to better understand intention to seek help. Alternatively, the other model is directed at understanding why an individual seeks professional psychological help for a particular issue. Both approaches are valuable for building upon the existing knowledge about help-seeking intention.

Although there are a number of theories associated with undergraduate help-seeking, the theories of Perceived Behavioral Control, Willingness Toward Seeking Help and Cramer's (1999) model are more relevant to this study. In fact, help-seeking frameworks are intended to conceptualize the phases of the process of seeking psychological assistance. These models relate key aspects of help-seeking, and TRA and TPB provide the grounding for many other models, such as Cramer's (1999) framework. Cramer's (1999) model is also particularly crucial to the higher education context because it considers individualized perceptions, beliefs and attitudes of students as well as aspects of connectivity to others. Gaining an understanding of these help-seeking elements can better inform decision-making at the institutional level to actively support or, potentially, encourage student help-seeking.

The help-seeking literature reviewed in the preceding sections and Cramer's (1999) model involving four psychological variables creates the framework for the quantitative components of this study. There are a few core principles associated with

psychological help-seeking as it relates to undergraduate students seeking help at the university counseling center. First, as previously stated, there is an abundance of individual variables that influence the help-seeking process and distress, attitude toward seeking psychological help, social provisions, and self-concealment have been found to be significant predictors of help-seeking in many studies. However, there are questions that have remained in terms of understanding the direct and indirect predictive nature of the variables and help-seeking intention, in particular as it relates to self-concealment (Leech, 2007). There is value in analyzing these four variables on two campus sites.

Second, the four psychological variables, like many psychological-related variables, are not fixed qualities. Students may enter college with some leanings as it relates to the psychological variables, however college is a time when students are often exposed to new environments, individuals and support structures on campus. Considering level of distress, attitudes toward seeking help, social support and degree of self-concealment are key factors and campus environment may influence these factors, as will be described in the following section.

Third, students' willingness, or openness to seek help, may also present opportunities for administrators and clinicians on campus to connect to students and encourage student help-seeking. There may be proactive or even contemporaneous actions campus officials may take to encourage help-seeking. In fact, in the higher education context there is work that can be done in terms of prevention strategies to educate students and increase favorable attitudes toward psychotherapy (Cepeda-Benito & Short, 1998). Furthermore, according to Hanna (2002), it takes courage to talk to someone about something that is bothering us. In fact, "anyone can ignore their own

thoughts and feelings, but it takes guts to be honest about them and not back off...”

(Vogel & Armstrong, 2010, p. 393). There may be facets of the campus environment that lend themselves to this kind of work.

Finally, educational and outreach efforts are important work in the field (Vogel et al., 2005). Often these outreach efforts are considered prevention-oriented work designed to enable mental health professionals to better understand the complex factors related to a student’s help-seeking intention (Vogel et al., 2005). Additionally, Vogel et al. (2005) recommended a specific strategy for campuses to promote help-seeking behavior, and that information should be shared about the help-seeking process, what is involved, and what it means to talk to a mental health professional. Ultimately, Vogel et al. (2005) suggested that articulating the benefits students are likely to experience in therapy is a useful step in promoting help-seeking behavior.

Pertinent Individual Help-Seeking Variables in Study

The following section will outline individual-related variables most applicable to the study. According to the literature there are a multitude of variables that affect help-seeking intention. Vogel et al. (2007) have identified major individual-level factors that affect mental health help-seeking. Those factors include: social stigma, fear of emotion, treatment fears, anticipated utility and risk, reluctance to self-disclose, situational variables, demographic variables and social norms (Hess, 2011). There are demographic and situational-oriented variables that are significant when it comes to avoiding help-seeking. Some of these demographic and situational-oriented variables, which are most

directly related to the study, will be discussed in detail in the following sections in the literature review.¹

Age and year in school. Research suggests that young adults are more likely to have negative attitudes toward MHHS than middle-aged adults (Gonzalez, Alegria, & Prihoda, 2005). For the purposes of studying college students, examining year in school is appropriate and can be considered in parallel with years of age. It is imperative that race/ethnicity and gender be considered simultaneously because the research on age is linked to these variables.

Gonzalez et al. (2005) explains that studies exist that consider age in the context of race and ethnicity. Most studies examined Caucasians and the majority of the results supported positive attitudes toward MHHS. According to Gonzalez et al. (2005), as students' age, their attitudes toward seeking help become increasingly positive. Similarly Gloria, Castellanos, Segura-Herrera, and Mayorga (2010) noted that older Latina students were more likely to have positive attitudes toward seeking help and students in the study also reported they had a greater "Anglo oriented" approach (p. 132). "Anglo oriented," in this context, is understood to be associated with Latino/a students enrolled in college and the cultural identity they are more likely to proscribe to during their enrollment period (Gloria et al., 2010). Simultaneously, it is important to consider the likelihood of seeking

¹ As identified in Cramer's framework, the study focuses on particular factors associated with MHHS, such as: Attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance, social provisions, self-concealment and level of psychological distress. Reluctance to self-disclose and social stigma are related to Cramer's factors were examined in the literature review. Other than demographic variables, the literature review did not emphasize the factors above, which are specific to more clinical aspects of MHHS.

services based on year in school in conjunction with severity of particular problems. First year students and students who have transferred to a new institution are “more likely to experience personal, social and academic adjustment difficulties than other students” (Lee et al., 2009, p. 307). Understanding this transition for college students is important and is a core principle of student affairs work. Considering age and enrollment year may help inform mental health models that can assist students in addressing problems that come up during their enrollment.

Culture, race, and ethnicity. It is necessary to consider the ethnic, racial and cultural elements associated with MHHS. Chen and Mak (2008, p. 443) state, “culture not only shapes the attitudes toward seeking help from mental health professionals but also influences the cognitive appraisal of psychological problems. Cultural differences have been documented in lay beliefs about the etiology of mental illness.” Cultural components are crucially important individual variables as it relates to many facets of social science research. In the context of MHHS, there may be racial and ethnic attributes that are associated with undergraduate help-seeking behavior (Chen & Mak, 2008).

Survey findings from a survey of college students ($N = 1,116$) who sought help indicated that European American students took part in more counseling sessions than any ethnic or racial minority group (Kearney, Draper, & Barón, 2005). In addition, European American students also reported the lowest distress level of the study participants. A study by Masuda and Boone (2011) found that Asian American students without a history of counseling were more likely to have less favorable attitudes toward MHHS and greater self-concealment. Seeking assistance from a mental health

professional is hypothesized to be the last resort for Asian Americans (Maki & Kitano, 2002). Similarly, according to Chen and Mak (2008), with a population of 747, European and Chinese Americans were more likely to seek help than Hong Kong and Mainland Chinese. Further, according to (Cress & Ikeda, 2003), “Asian American students ($N = 508$) are more likely than all other students combined to experience feelings of depression as well as to perceive negative campus climates” (p. 81).

However, Sheu and Sedlack (2004) indicate that Asian and Caucasian students do not differ in their MHHS attitudes in terms of accessing help for a particular problem, namely academic and mental health counseling. Moreover there are a number of studies that suggest that MHHS is not significantly different among various races. For instance, Gonzales et al. (2005) found commonalities among Latinos and Caucasians and accessing mental health treatment.

Additionally, U.S. students in a study ($N = 109$) reported significantly greater intention to seek help from a mental health professional on campus (Christopher et al., 2006). In the study, Thai individuals were exposed to “persuasive information designed to reinforce the positive personal behavioral beliefs (i.e., advantages) and argue against the negative personal behavioral beliefs (i.e., disadvantages) associated with seeking professional psychological help” (Christopher et al., 2006, p. 91). Ultimately the study suggested that help-seeking intention may be influenced by the dissemination of culture-specific explanations about the benefits of help-seeking.

Additionally, Gonzales et al. (2005) indicated that African American students in college are more likely to have positive attitudes as it relates to mental health treatment. Sheu and Sedlacek’s (2004) study ($N = 2,678$) indicated that for African American

students, the type of concern influences their attitudes toward MHHS. The students were more inclined to seek help for academic related concerns but not for mental health issues. So, Gilbert and Romera (2005) also reported that African American students are likely to have more positive attitudes as they progress in their education, and that students with less experience at the campus may be less likely to want to seek out counseling services when they need assistance. Further, African Americans reported more positive attitudes prior to seeking services than their Caucasian counterparts (So et al., 2005). After accessing mental health services, however, they reported a more negative attitude after seeking services (Diala, Muntaner, Walrath, Nickerson, LaVeist, & Leaf, 2000).

However some research in the area suggests that African American students may be less inclined to want to seek out help from a mental health professional if the individuals know they are more likely to speak with a Caucasian mental health professional (Nickerson, Helms, & Terrell, 1994). Students' perception of MHHS related to the race of the provider is something explored extensively in the literature. In fact, according to Whaley (2001), culture plays a significant role in African Americans utilization of mental health services. For some, those perceptions are also associated with a lack of trust in Whites in general, including mental health professionals (Ridley, 1984). Wallace and Constantine (2005) utilized the ATTSPPHS-S, Stigma Scale for Receiving Psychological Help (SSRPH) and SCS (Self-Concealment Scale) that "both men and women in our study, higher levels of Africentrism were associated with greater perceived stigma about counseling and greater self-concealment" (p. 379). A preeminent contribution to the field was work in the area of cultural mistrust and the creation of the

Culture Mistrust Inventory (CMI). The inventory assessed the cultural response style of African Americans (Whaley, 2001), developed by Terrell and Terrell (1981).

In their work Nickerson et al. (1994) note that African American's mistrust of Whites "seems to serve as a significant barrier to the counseling process" (p. 379). This "mistrust" can be understood along a continuum of paranoia that ranges from mild to severe lack of trust (Whaley, 2001). For those individuals with a higher score on the CMI, those individuals are more likely to perceive a therapist in the same manner in which they encounter society as a whole. Specifically, if "an African American exhibits a high level of mistrust of Whites in the broader society, it is likely that the person will not trust a White therapist" (Whaley, 2001, p. 515; Ridley, 1984). There may be implications, according to Ridley (1984), that suggest that the individual may be less likely to disclose information to a counseling provider of a different race, in part, because of cultural mistrust. Clearly challenges are associated with this phenomenon and individuals may be reticent to genuinely seek help all together or it may, at least for some, take a longer period of time for the person to trust the therapist and get assistance. In contrast, it is possible that the counseling relationship is something inherently different (Whaley, 2001) in which the client and therapist are able to address concerns related to cultural mistrust.

In their critical study, Nickerson et al. (1994) examined the predictive nature of the CMI and opinions about mental health issues as it related attitudes toward seeking help. The study was situated in a setting in which counseling professionals were primarily White. Findings suggested that the CMI was the only significant predictor of help-seeking attitudes. As mentioned previously, attitude toward seeking psychological

assistance is a strong predictor toward willingness to seek help from a mental health professional.

According to Cheng et al. (2013), having an established sense of ethnic identity may serve as a “secure psychological foundation” that minimizes one’s sense of self-stigmatization (p. 108). Feeling established in one’s ethnic identity may help facilitate MHHS. Moreover, according to Gloria et al. (2010), there is a need for university counseling staff members to work through a lens that considers cultural aspects of seeking help for Latina undergraduates as well as a need to increase students’ perceptions of university counseling centers as places where staff are competent and able to help students from a cultural perspective. Mental health professionals should be aware of this as they work with students. As Chen and Mak (2008) state, there is a great deal of “importance of understanding help-seeking patterns within specific cultural contexts” (p. 442). Overall, understanding ethnicity and race in the context of help-seeking intention is essential because cultural factors contribute to help-seeking (Briley, 1977; Gardner, 1971; Wright, 1975).

Gender. Gender is a variable of interest in understanding help-seeking behavior. According to Gonzales et al. (2005), based on 1990-1992 National Comorbidity study, ($N = 5,877$), women were more likely to seek treatment than men. This study assessed attitude toward MHHS by considering three aspects of help-seeking: likelihood of seeking treatment for an emotional issue, level of comfort talking about problems and level of embarrassment experienced if the individual’s friends learned the person was in counseling (Gonzales et al., 2005). Male participants were 32% - 54% less likely to have positive attitudes about seeking mental health services. Deane and Todd (1996; $N = 107$)

also found significant difference in terms of gender with college students and MHHS behaviors.

Many studies examine gender in relation to MHHS and the studies report difference in terms of race or ethnicity. For instance, Duncan and Johnson (2007) reported that African American women were more likely to have positive attitudes about help-seeking. The type of problem that may necessitate counseling, such as personal, career, time management, and study skills, also reflect difference in terms of the help-seeking attitudes of men and women (Sheu & Sedlacek, 2004). Overall, women are more likely to access help from a mental health professional than men of the same age.

Sexual orientation. Sexual orientation and its relation to psychological help-seeking is a topic that is now being examined in the gender-based literature (Oswalt & Wyatt, 2011). A preeminent study focused on student MHHS and sexual orientation assessed Fall 2009 American College Health Association-National College Health Assessment data. With those data, Oswalt and Wyatt (2011) ($N = 27,454$) facilitated a study with gay, lesbian, bisexual and questioning students and study participants accessed help at higher rates, including the counseling center, than heterosexual students. Study findings suggest that those students who have a more developed sense of their own identity appear to have more positive notions of mental health and were less likely to engage in risk-taking behaviors (Hardy, Francis, Zamboanga, Kim, Anderson, & Forthun, 2012). Although the study did not consider Transgender students, it is important to note that sense of identity may contribute to Oswalt and Wyatt's (2011) findings that gay, lesbian, bisexual and questioning students were more likely to experience poorer mental health and have their mental health negatively impact their academics than their

heterosexual counterparts (Oswalt & Wyatt, 2011). Moreover, additional work is needed to better understand the LGBTQ community as it relates to help-seeking.

Academic standing. Although there are studies that assess help-seeking for specific problems, such as academic difficulties, there are few studies that actively capture grade point average (GPA) or academic standing. Sheu and Sedlacek's (2004) work (2004) indicates that MHHS due to academic difficulties is more common because individuals are more inclined to access help for a concern other than a psychological issue. Sheu and Sedlacek (2004), $N = 2,678$, reported that African American students were more inclined to seek help for academic related concerns but not for mental health issues. For the purposes of this study, GPA is considered as an aspect of academic standing.

Academic challenges may be considered academic impairment (Keyes, Eisenberg, Perry, Dube, Kroenke, & Dhingra, 2012). In a study by Keyes et al. (2012) 5,689 college students participated in the Healthy Minds Study survey and also completed the Mental Health Continuum–Short Form and the Patient Health Questionnaire screening scales for depression and anxiety disorders, as well as suicide ideation, plans, and attempts, and academic impairment. The study examined common mental health concerns facing college students and also considered the relationship between mental health concerns and academic challenges. Results suggested that those included in the sample with mental illness are at greater risk for engaging in suicidal behavior and facing serious academic issues (Keyes et al., 2012). In fact, those with at least moderate levels of mental health issues were more than twice as likely to encounter academic impairments (Keyes et al.,

2012). The relationship between mental health concerns and academic impairment warrants additional research to better understand that association.

The international student population is one that deserves significant attention. The number of international students has grown in recent years (Chalungsooth & Schneller, 2011) and there is also great concern that international students experience greater emotional concerns than students from the U.S. (Chalungsooth & Schneller, 2011). Academic distress can be especially problematic for international students because they often arrive in the United States with expectations of continuing to excel academically (Arthur, 2004). According to findings in a study by Li, Wong, and Toth (2013), “when Asian international students experienced high levels of academic stress, regardless of their past counseling experience and attitudes towards seeking professional help, they seemed more willing to seek counseling” (p. 10). Findings suggest that significant academic stress can be in predicting Asian international students’ willingness to access counseling (Li et al., 2013).

Previous counseling experience. Prior counseling is a variable that may affect MHHS intention in the future (Komiya & Eells, 2001). It is reasonable to group students into two categories as it relates to experience with counseling; either they have worked with a mental health professional in the past or they have not. Komiya and Eells (2001; $N = 121$) report that previous counseling experience indicated increased likelihood to have a positive attitude toward seeking help. Halgin, Weaver, Edell, and Spencer (1987; $N = 429$) also found that prior counseling experience had a positive influence on attitudes toward help-seeking.

Some studies indicate that prior counseling experience does not affect help-seeking. For example, Cramer (1999) examined the effect of prior counseling experience on intention to seek help in the future and reported that there was no significant difference between these two groups of students. Fischer and Turner (1970; $N = 212$) also found that it was unclear if previous counseling experience affected MHHS behavior. Kahn and Williams (2003) also performed a study ($N = 320$) and their findings supported Cramer's results that there is no significant difference related to MHHS for students with or without experience in counseling. For this reason, Kahn and Williams (2003) support an effort to devise and implement strategies to inform all students, regardless of prior counseling experience, to seek psychological counseling if needed. This study elaborates on this concept and may lead to recommendations for counseling service models.

Current experience in counseling. Determining if an individual is currently accessing mental health services is an essential, baseline factor that should be known for this study. If an individual is currently in a counseling relationship with a mental health professional, then it is likely that this impacted future MHHS intention because the individual has already accessed assistance in counseling (Komiya & Eells, 2001). Overall, access to a mental health professional is a factor that is important to consider related to the current help-seeking process.

Campus Environment Factors and Sense of Belonging Influence on Mental Health Help-Seeking

For purposes of the study, understanding the prominent attributes associated with the campus environment and how that comes to bear with students' feelings toward belonging to the institution was a crucial component. Therefore, the following sections

will delve into the key areas in the extant literature related to the higher education environment and the influence of sense of belonging on MHHS. It is important to point out, however, that each of these areas in the literature addresses specific variables, many of which were not examined in this study. For instance, the literature on campus culture is extensive and addresses the relationship with student learning, faculty and student engagement, student involvement, and many other aspects of the student experience. In reviewing this body of literature, the researcher focused on studies most related to understanding campus culture in general terms and how campus factors relate to the understanding of help-seeking on a college campus.

Specifically, the following sections will cover three main topics associated with campus environment factors and sense of belonging. First, the related categories in the Carnegie Classification system will be discussed. Second, information about organizational and campus culture will be described. Third, sense of belonging and its relation to demographic variables, academic and social factors, degree of connectedness to the campus, and, ultimately, to the influence on MHHS will be discussed.

Related Carnegie Classification background. Overall, the Carnegie classification system distinguishes categories of campuses according to type of institution, instructional program, enrollment profile, enrollment size, and residential character (“The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education,” n.d., para. 2). This categorization system is one of the fundamental ways institutions of higher education can be understood and the classifications serve as a means to comprehend some components of institutional difference. For purposes of the study, it is helpful to have a basic understanding of some of the most applicable Carnegie classifications, which are type

of institution, campus size and student achievement characteristics. Furthermore, incorporating information about the Carnegie classification for each site campuses will provide background information that may enhance understanding of some of the institutional factors that contribute to students' likelihood to seek help on the particular campus.

Campus size is "related to institutional structure, complexity, culture, finances, and other factors ("Size & Setting Description," n.d., para. 2). Understanding the size and residential setting are essential to begin to understand these dynamics of a campus. Second, campuses are segmented into two primary sectors. Those classifications are private and public institutions (Carnegie Classification website, n.d.). Governance configurations, financial factors, community relations and other aspects of an institution's systems and operations are shaped by this classification.

Finally, undergraduate achievement is accounted for in the Undergraduate Profile category in the Carnegie Classification system. It is focused on the academic achievement characteristics of first-time, first-year students based on entrance exams ("Undergraduate Profile Classification," n.d., para. 3). Additionally, another way some researchers describe achievement is in terms of institution selectivity and Hurtado (2003), as cited in Komives, Woodward, and Associates et al., (2003) states, "the level of institutional selectivity is often referred to as the proportion of admitted students relative to applications" (p. 37). Overall, the Carnegie classification system offers grounding for understanding some core characteristics of campuses that help set the stage for the understanding broader constructs of the campus, such as campus culture.

Organizational and campus culture. Campus culture is defined as a set of “deeply held meanings, beliefs, and values” by a given campus (Peterson & Spencer, 1990). In the context of organizational culture, campus culture can be considered through a more nuanced perspective. This is an essential component for the work because a key aspect of the study is around the influence sense of belonging and the campus environment has on students’ likelihood to seek help.

According to Toma et al. (2005) institutional culture is something that is usually considered as a means to describe the environment, but that it is, actually, more of a tool for the institution than it is anything else. The researchers describe culture of the institution as something that “is not just something to have, which is where the discussion of the concept usually focuses, but is something to use” (Toma et al., 2005, p. 1). In many ways the campus focuses a great deal of time, attention, and financial resources toward fostering the campus culture, which has a distinct benefit for the members of the campus while also serving the institution’s need to present a particular external image (Toma et al., 2005). It is clear institutional culture is an impactful component of the work performed on the campus by faculty, staff as well as students. Although there are significant bodies of work that identify the subcultures present within campus and organizational cultures, for purposes of this study subcultures will not be directly addressed. Overall, the work by Toma et al. (2005) also provide a conceptual view of institutional culture and the effects it can have on individuals. The authors state that individuals are more likely to identify with the campus if they have an understanding of the institution (Toma et al., 2005). It is helpful to bear this in mind when considering aspects more applicable to the perceptions of the individual student. Moreover, the ways

in which the individual student encounters the campus is key to understanding the students' perception of their sense of belonging as it relates to the campus.

Sense of belonging. Sense of belonging is a particularly salient theory in the field of higher education, and in the context of this study, sense of belonging is a primary factor that will be examined. Much of the literature incorporates sense of belonging as an essential attribute in the work associated with students' relationship with their campus. Although there are a multitude of studies that examine undergraduate MHHS, there are a limited number of studies that account for campus-related aspects of help-seeking. Moreover, there is a dearth of studies that consider the influence of sense of belonging may have on mental health help-seeking. The sense of belonging literature and its relationship to MHHS will be described in the following section.

Sense of belonging is also often extensively connected to work associated with campus culture and MHHS, as the work is often "closely associated with alterations in physical and mental health" (Hoffman et al., 2002-2003). In other regards, sense of belonging is the foundation from which many in higher education begin to understand multifaceted issues such as involvement, retention, academic success and integration, and many other elements of the student experience (Hoffman et al., 2002-2003). The primary reason for the connection between both areas is related to factors associated with sense of belonging. In particular, sense of belonging is often contextualized around students' "fit and valued involvement" toward the campus (as cited by Hoffman et al., 2002-2003). Moreover, Maslow (1968) suggests that belonging was associated with feeling as though physical, emotional, behavioral and well-being needs were being adequately met. It was Baumeister and Leary (1995) who suggest that the desire to belong is defined by a need

for ongoing contact with others. Specifically, the researchers state that there is a great human need for interpersonal relationships that are stable, positively effect emotion, and are ongoing. Moreover, according to Goodenow (1993) sense of belonging in educational environments is described as the following:

Students' sense of being accepted, valued, included, and encouraged by others (teacher and peers) in the academic classroom setting and of feeling oneself to be an important part of the life and activity of the class. More than simple perceived liking or warmth, it also involves support and respect for personal autonomy and for the student as an individual. (p. 25)

The sense of belonging construct suggests that the environment and others around the campus help facilitate the student feeling like an individual on the campus. According to Osterman & Osterman (2000), studies addressing sense of belonging suggest that students who experience a sense of belonging in educational environments are likely to be more motivated, more engaged in campus and classroom activities, and, overall, more dedicated to their academic work. Therefore, it is also important to consider a relationship between students' positive sense of belonging and their ability to adjust to problems that arise during college. Individual characteristics, such as demographics, are integral in more fully understanding the sense of belonging construct.

Demographic attributes. Another element in this body of literature is related to demographic factors, which are often studied in relation to feelings of belonging on the campus. Hurtado and Carter (1997) studied demographic factors associated with Latina students, their perceptions of the racial climate on their campuses and the relationship with sense of belonging at the institution. Hurtado and Carter (1997) state that

“membership” is in fact a more applicable construct when considering the college student experience, rates of persistence and their overall success (p. 324). Hurtado and Carter’s (1997) findings also suggest that involvement in religious and social organizations in the community are related to stronger sense of belonging.

Additionally, one of the reasons membership is a more appropriate construct is because of the inherent inequities related to race and ethnicity in higher education institutions throughout time (Hurtado & Carter, 1997). Further, Hurtado, Milem, Clayton-Pederson, and Allen (1998) purported that student perception of institutional climate as it relates to diversity may have an impact on student’s social and academic lives on the campus. Therefore, according to Hurtado and Carter (1997), “the concept of membership is intended to capture the multiple communities on campus and students’ multiple affiliations without adopting a single or predominant set of norms” (p. 327). Ultimately, membership is a key construct involved in campus environment and student engagement literature.

There are many studies that examine students’ attitudes and sense of belonging as it relates to campus climate associated with race and ethnic group cohesion (Maramba & Museus, 2013). Thompson’s (2012) findings suggested that sense of belonging for students of color ($N = 181$) in their first year in college at a Historically Black Institution (HBI) predicted students’ likelihood to seek help on the campus for various issues, including academic and mental health concerns. In Thompson’s (2012) study, participants completed the Institutional Belonging Scale by Mendoza-Denton et al. (2002). The scale addressed the extent to which students felt “welcome,” “comfortable,” “excited,” and the extent to which they felt they “fit” at their university (Thompson,

2012). Findings suggested that, “students of color who felt a greater sense of belonging at the College, reported being more comfortable and more likely to seek help from the College Psychological counseling center if they believe they needed help” (Thompson, 2012, p. 61). Although students of color in the sample were likely to seek help, findings, however, ultimately suggested that sense of belonging did not significantly predict students’ likelihood to seek help from the counseling center on campus when students were asked to consider specific types of problems for which they would utilize the counseling center for assistance (Thompson, 2012).

Additionally, in one of the studies, by Gloria et al. (2010), students had more negative perceptions of the university environment and findings suggested they had more negative attitudes toward seeking help than did White students. In another study, Latina participants reported students’ sense of belonging is impacted by feelings of stress and interracial encounters with other students, faculty and administrators that have a negative affect on their sense of belonging in college (Hurtado & Carter, 1997). It is important to consider how this informs the help-seeking process for Latina students. Some studies suggest that Latina students may not seek help at the counseling center on campus because they have a perception that the center may have experienced staff but may not have a mental health professional capable of understanding them from a cultural standpoint (Gloria et al., 2010). There is more work to be done to better understand the influence demographic factors have on a students’ sense of belonging and, ultimately, their willingness to seek help.

Academic and social factors. O’Keeffe (2013) discusses another set of contributions in the sense of belonging literature which states that students also have a

particular role to play in college and that role is both academic and social in nature (Ackermann & Morrow, 2007-2008). Overall, student participation in the “academic and social committees” may connect to students’ sense of belonging in college (Ackermann & Morrow, 2007-2008, p. 136). According to Hoffman et al. (2002-2003) sense of belonging is associated with both academic and social integration on campus. Ackermann and Morrow (2007-2008) also discussed various coping strategies and the distinction between problem-focused, emotion-focused, and avoidance coping strategies. Ackermann and Morrow (2007-2008) suggest that students who access supportive individuals may be better equipped to manage the challenges of college than those who are not engaged in these networks.

Furthermore, in terms of academic settings, the sense of belonging literature is rich and encompasses the education environment at nearly all levels. Some pivotal contributions to the sense of belonging literature are derived from elementary and secondary education settings. For instance Freeman, Anderman, and Jensen (2007) explained that in the elementary through high school level, students’ sense of belonging is related to the environment established by teachers in the classroom. Teachers’ emphasis on academic material and mastery of meaningful content as well as cooperative interactions with students contribute to strong sense of belonging for students (Freeman et al., 2007).

Collier and Morgan (2008) also consider students’ role from an academic perspective. According to Collier and Morgan (2008), the students’ role is centered on learning about the academic expectations and enabling themselves to apply those abilities in an efficient and effective manner to be successful. A particular study by Li et al.

(2013) examined students' role in the academic environment and students' perceptions of stress in relation to their overall academic experience. The authors utilize a mixed-methods study to analyze Asian international student's willingness to seek counseling. Li et al. (2013) tested factors related to attitudes toward seeking assistance, prior counseling experience and academic-related stress. In terms of the study setting, the work is situated in a U.S., large, public Midwestern University and 177 international undergraduate students participated (Li et al., 2013). The average age of participants is 26, which is slightly older than the traditional college-aged student. Participants completed the Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Help Scale, the Willingness to Seek Counseling for Academic Problems Scale, and Academic Stress Scale (Li et al., 2013). In addition, participants are asked the following open-ended question at the end of the survey: "What comes into your mind when you think about 'counseling' or 'mental health counseling?'" (Li et al., 2013, p. 4). A content analysis method (Berg, 2007) was implemented and coding and category grounding was employed (Li et al., 2013).

Findings in the Li et al. (2013) study suggest that academic stress is a much stronger, significant and negative predictor of willingness to seek counseling than attitudes and willingness to seek help. This finding was in alignment with other studies reporting "a high prevalence of academic problems or academic needs presented by Asian international students in counseling" (Li et al., 2013, p. 10). In terms of the qualitative components in the study, findings suggest that students considered contacting a counselor when all other options had been attempted and when the problems were severe in nature (Li et al., 2013). These findings suggest students may be less inclined to seek help unless they are faced with severe challenges (Li et al., 2013). There may also

be cultural components at play in terms of Asian international student help-seeking (Li et al., 2013), and future research is warranted to further understanding of help-seeking in general and as it relates to international students. In addition, it is important to note that the study did not directly assess social integration or students' sense of belonging and this is an important component to examine in relation to students' willingness to engage in MHHS. The study may provide additional information for mental health professionals working to enhance access to mental-health services in relation to students' sense of belonging.

Finally, another critical facet of sense of belonging in the context of academic and social factors is that sense of belonging may change over time. A study by Hausmann, Shofield, and Woods (2007) suggested that students' early social experiences have been when they begin college are more likely to be better factors of initial levels of sense of belonging than demographic or academic-related experiences. Student's social experiences are more influential in their sense of belonging early on, however students' academic integration is impactful over time. For instance, students who have a greater sense of academic integration are more likely to feel a greater sense of belonging than those who are not academically connected (Hausmann et al., 2007). Hoffman et al. (2002-2003) noted in their study that first-year students indicated they felt the most stress because of academic responsibilities. Moreover, Hoffman et al. (2002-2003) findings suggested that interpersonal relationships and connections helped students feel more readily supported and comfortable in terms of their academic and social environment. Hausmann et al. (2007) noted that academic adjustment is crucial to a students'

experience over time and sense of belonging lessens over time if academic integration is not strong.

Ultimately, understanding the role of academic and social constructs of sense of belonging is essential to understand student success. According to Braxton (2003), research expands upon the work by researchers who have made prominent contributions to the collection of work about student-centered success theory (as cited in Komives, Woodward, & Associates et al., 2003). Additionally, it is essential to consider the influence of students' perceptions of the campus and how this relates to sense of belonging. A broader discussion about students' perception of the role of the university in relation to sense of belonging will be described in greater detail in the following section.

Influence on mental health help-seeking intentions. The theory connected with sense of belonging is deeply associated with students' perceived connection to campus, which in turn researchers have suggested positively correlates to greater levels of MHHS intention (Chen, 2013). Although there are a number of studies that examine sense of belonging in relation to various aspects of the student experience, as noted above. However, there are very few studies found that specifically examines sense of belonging in relation to student MHHS.

First, a study by Thompson (2012) examined sense of belonging and how it related to willingness to seek help on campus for students of color. Findings suggested students of color ($N = 181$) in their first year enrolled at an HBI were likely to seek help for academic and emotional concerns at the counseling center (Thompson, 2012). Regression analyses suggested, however, that students were reluctant to indicate they were willing to seek help when asked about specific concerns they would utilize the

counseling center to gain assistance (Thompson, 2012). Thompson's (2012) work was also instrumental in examining difference between problem-solving to address academic concerns as compared with personal issues. Findings suggest that students at an HBI were more likely to seek help from the academic resources on the campus than counseling services (Thompson, 2012).

Second, a study by Chen (2013) considers students' perceptions of campus environmental factors, through the lens of sense of belonging, and students' willingness to access mental health services. The study will be described in the following sections and will help build a more specific foundation for the work most applicable to the study. Chen (2013) conducted a study on a large, public campus in the Southeast and assessed campus culture and its relation to student help-seeking. Student participants ($N = 212$) were contacted through the Sona system on the campus, and out of the population 25% indicate they had sought mental health treatment for themselves in the past and 44% indicate someone in their family, other than themselves, had sought treatment (Chen, 2013). The study examined campus culture, from three different perspectives, namely participants were asked to respond to a 12-item instrument from the view points of the student body, their peers, and administrators.

Additionally, the study utilized the Theory of Perceived Behavior to establish the theoretical foundation for the study and the instruments used included scales to assess: Mental Health Stigma, Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Assistance, Barriers to Treatment, Campus Belonging, and MHHS intentions. To test these variables, Chen (2013) utilized the following instruments: Campus Belonging was measured using an adapted, three-item scale (Bollen & Hoyle, 1990; Hausmann et al., 2007); Barriers to

Treatment Participation Scale (BTPS) (Kazdin, Holland, Crowley, & Breton, 1997); Attitudes Towards Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale- Short Form (ATTSPPH-SF) (Fischer & Farina, 1995); Discrimination-Devaluation scale (aD-D) was utilized to measure Stigma (Eisenberg et al., 2009); and individual MHHS intentions were assessed using the General Help-Seeking Questionnaire (GHSQ) (Wilson et. al., 2005).

The analysis was conducted using a bootstrapping analysis and there were three primary findings generated by the study. First, campus attitudes were not found to be significantly associated with MHHS intentions and the relationship between campus culture attitudes and MHHS intentions was significantly and fully mediated by personal attitudes toward seeking mental health support (Chen, 2013). Second, findings suggest that campus barriers were significantly correlated with MHHS intentions and personal barriers were also significantly associated with MHHS intentions (Chen, 2013). Third, findings from the study suggest that neither campus nor personal stigma were significantly associated with MHHS intentions (Chen, 2013).

Chen (2013) and Thompson (2012) recommend that future researchers consider a few main topics. First, Chen (2013) suggests studying campus culture using multiple measures. Understanding the nuances of the campus environment and its relationship with students' help-seeking perception is an important issue to address. Second, Thompson's (2012) work also suggests the need for campuses to consider other models and ways to offer mental health services for students. Organizational models in place to offer mental health services, such as combining academic and mental health resources, may enable more students to seek help (Thompson, 2012). Third, Chen's (2013) findings

are consistent with other studies in terms of the significant effect personal attitudes have on help-seeking intention. Examining personal attitudes in the context of the campus would be an impactful addition to the body of research in the field. In fact, Chen (2013) states: “personal attitude change may be an important mechanism through which campus attitudes are associated with MHHS” (p. 42). This finding is consistent with the extensive literature around attitudes toward mental health seeking as a significant predictor in the MHHS process.

Moreover, this work could further understanding about campus environment and potential ways campus officials can promote awareness of mental health and the value of MHHS (Thompson, 2012; Chen, 2013). There is more that can be examined as it relates to MHHS, ways in which the campus environment can influence MHHS and, ultimately, methods campus administrators can employ to connect to students needing assistance (Thompson, 2012; Chen, 2013). Lastly, according to Chen (2013) there is a need to study this topic by applying various methods. Chen (2013) indicates that there is need to conduct qualitative work, and this work is “necessary to ensure appropriate sensitivity to student values, beliefs, and concerns. By using more ecologically valid, culturally sensitive, and objective measures, it may become easier to disentangle the relationships between perceived versus actual campus culture and self-perceived attitudes relative to MHHS beliefs and actions” (p. 57).

Gaps in the literature

The existing literature provides a solid foundation for the study. However, research in the higher education and mental health help-seeking fields do not offer many studies focused on mental health help-seeking in relation to sense of belonging or the

overall the influence of campus environment on MHHS. The gaps found in the literature review will be described in the following section.

In terms of MHHS, the four psychological variables examined have been tested in many known studies. However, questions remain in terms of understanding the direct and indirect predictive nature of the variables and MHHS intention (Leech, 2007). In particular, the Self-Concealment variable deserves additional attention in terms of furthering knowledge about its relation to one's MHHS intention (Leech, 2007). Furthermore, there is value in analyzing these four psychological variables, in relation to the demographic and MHHS variables, on two different college sites. There is more work that should be done to understand these psychological variables and setting up a study on two distinctive campuses in a contemporaneous time period will contribute more to this body of work.

In addition, the study is designed to assess Cramer's (1999) model on two different campuses and there is a need to examine Cramer's work in different settings. Examining Cramer's (1999) model on a large, public and mid-sized private campus will contribute to existing knowledge about the psychological variables and individual factors associated with likelihood to seek help on those campuses. The study is also designed to assess what individual influences affect MHHS and if and how those influences differ by campus-type. Moreover, the study will consider how campus factors influence likelihood to seek help through qualitative interviews.

In terms of institution environmental factors and sense of belonging, although the literature provides ample context to understand the importance of how a student's association with their college is essential, there is more to examine in terms of the

influence college environment and sense of belonging has on MHHS. The study provides a foundation for impactful work to be done as it relates to better understanding student help-seeking and ways campuses can positively influence MHHS. Furthermore, the existing literature, noted in the preceding section, creates a foundation for the study and also sets the stage for further research in some key ways.

Chen (2013) also suggests that additional work be performed to better understand the nuances associated with aspects of campus culture and an individual's intention to seek help. Specifically, Chen (2013) states that qualitative studies would make an important contribution to the field. A qualitative approach to the issue would enable campus officials to better account for the complexities associated with students' perceptions of campus culture and MHHS. The study sets out a plan to add to the body of work associated with campus environment factors, sense of belonging and the influence on student help-seeking.

In addition, the study sets out to examine this issue at two different institution-types, which will elaborate on the sense of belonging literature in relation to mental health help-seeking. Gaining greater insight into environmental factors that may influence MHHS can enable administrators and clinicians to provide even more effective services. First, having knowledge about how campus factors can influence MHHS is incredibly important. Second, with an understanding of campus factors, officials may be better positioned to consider these factors when they market and deliver services to the student body (Thompson, 2012). Third, these campus officials may then be able to coordinate their efforts in terms of reaching students by incorporating the campus

environment factors into the work happening in their counseling centers and the ways in which they are serving students.

Summary

Psychological help-seeking constructs indicate there is a great deal known about the psychological help-seeking process. Students' sense of belonging and campus environment factors provides a critical foundation for MHHS on campus. Both frameworks impart information that comes to bear in the understanding of MHHS in a college context. However, it is also worth examining institutional factors in relation to sense of belonging that influence MHHS on college campuses. Very little research, especially qualitative work, considers structures like those espoused in Cramer's (1999) model, in particular, in relation to how MHHS intention is associated with seeking assistance on a college campus and how institutional factors through sense of belonging contribute to mental health help-seeking. Student and campus environment and sense of belonging factors, together, deserve attention and this study will assess some of these attributes.

Chapter III

Methodology

Introduction

This study evaluates individualized factors that influence undergraduate students' intention to access professional psychological help at the campus counseling center. In addition the study examines the influence institutional factors have on student's intention to seek help at the campus counseling center. This chapter describes components of the methods that will be used to understand student help seeking behavior. The two research questions for the study were:

- 1) What individual influences affect undergraduate likelihood to seek help from the university counseling center for a personal or emotional problem? How does that influence vary across campuses?
- 2) How do institutional factors relate to undergraduates' likelihood to seek help from the university counseling center?

This chapter is organized as follows. First, the study design and context, methodological approach and information about the factors of the two campuses are addressed. The research questions, data collection procedures and the approach for data analyses are described. Finally, contributions and limitations are addressed in the close of this chapter.

Research Design and Context for the Study

Research design. The project is a mixed methods case study and examines two research questions. Therefore, the qualitative and quantitative data collection and analyses associated with the study both contribute to answering the research questions. The research set out to further knowledge about undergraduate student help-seeking for

the individual student as well as to understand the influence of the institutional environment on student intention to seek help on campus. The quantitative work was conducted through survey research, and is an appropriate inquiry into the predictive variables associated with help-seeking is an effective method of inquiry to employ (Creswell, 2003) to understand this topic. Qualitative data were collected through interviews at both site campuses. The set of validated survey instruments associated with psychological factors are utilized in the study to enable the researcher to establish a deeper understanding of variables and interviews further articulated some perspectives of students.

A mixed methods research design enabled the researcher to gain a greater perspective on the topic of undergraduate student help-seeking on college campuses and was appropriate for this study. Utilizing a survey and interviews provided support for answering both research questions. Creswell (2005) discusses that use of multiple methods help to remove some inherent biases which exist in a single methodology. In fact, Creswell (2005) notes that incorporating more than one research technique may “neutralize or cancel the biases of other methods” (p. 15). According to Creswell (2005), there are four key decisions that need to be considered in a mixed methods research design. One, the implementation of the research sequence should be weighed. Two, the priority level that will be given to the quantitative and qualitative data collection. Three, examining the stage at which the qualitative and quantitative findings should be integrated. Four, the perspective used in the study as it relates to an individual variable, such as demographics, must be weighed. These four aspects of mixed methods research design will be explained in greater detail in the following section.

A mixed methods approach is especially relevant in this study in order to understand predictive factors associated with help-seeking intention as well as the influence campus factors may have on willingness to seek help. Carspecken states that research is designed to contribute to a “shared understanding” of the setting, locale and the social site (1996, p. 34). Therefore, in terms of establishing understanding of the surroundings, incorporating a qualitative component is important. A mixed methods approach also is something that is appropriate in this work because either methodology, alone, may restrict the ability of the researcher to truly build a broader and diverse knowledge base about a set of academic questions being examined.

Case study. The study was also contextualized in a case study framework. A case study is a particular approach that enables researchers to delve into a set of questions in a specific setting (Creswell, 2005), or in this case, two particular campuses. One campus is a medium, private research institution, which will be called “Medium Private University (MPU)” in the study. The second campus is a large, public research institution, which is called “Large Public University (LPU).” In this study the case study model was especially impactful because the researcher examined the issue of student intention to seek help on two, distinctly different campuses that enroll different student populations.

Description of Case Locations

This section provides an overview of MPU and LPU in relation to the relevant campus structures and services as well as student information. First, the Carnegie Classification System is used to describe the general information about the location and key campus features. Second, descriptions of the student population are provided, in terms of the Carnegie Classification System. Third, student affairs services and the broad-

level responsibilities and roles of these departments are described. Fourth, key components of the student life structure and the role of undergraduates in this approach are explained. Finally, a description of the campus's counseling services office and the work taking place at the counseling department is provided.

Description of Large Public University

Size and setting. This site campus is located in the Southwestern United States in a large, metropolitan city. LPU is located in the same metropolitan city, with the same access to off-campus, community services as MPU, which is described in the following section. The campus is considered a large-full time four-year, selective doctoral granting, and high levels of research with majors offered in the following academic divisions: Architecture, Business, Education, Engineering, Hotel and Restaurant Management, Liberal Arts and Social Sciences, Humanities, Music, Natural Sciences and Mathematics, and Technology. The student population is characterized as large, with approximately 40,914 undergraduate students (Institution Research, Fall 2013) and the campus is considered primarily non-residential (Carnegie Classification System, n.d.). Finally, the campus is also considered a public institution and LPU serves the state and the community through its endeavors as an institution of higher education (LPU mission statement website, n.d.).

Undergraduate student population and achievement characteristics. For this study, the student population at LPU is considered to be enrolled undergraduates during the 2014-2015 academic year. The percentage of undergraduates served by the campus and the breakdown of how many students are enrolled in each class of student is outlined in Table 1. Table 1 indicates that the majority of the students enrolled during 2014-2015

are undergraduate, degree-seek students. The campus primarily serves undergraduates and this is demonstrated in the LPU's mission statement that it focused on undergraduate education and learning as part of its core purpose (LPU website, n.d.). Furthermore, although many of the departments in the Student Affairs Division service graduate students, many of the advising and student services offices are found at the department or academic school level for the graduate student body.

Table 1

Classification breakdown of the Large Private University student population at the study location in Fall Semester 2014

Classification	Percentage
Undergraduate	77.53%
Freshman	16.9%
Sophomore	19.7%
Junior	26.9%
Senior	36.6%
Graduate	15.39%
Master's	65.4%
Doctoral	34.6%

Table 2 depicts ethnic demographic information of the undergraduate student population enrolled during the 2014-2015 academic based on IPEDS categorizes. Nearly 35% of enrolled students identify as primarily White, non-Hispanic, 18% of students identify as Asian, non-Hispanic, and twenty-one percent of students identify as Hispanic, Black or African American, non-Hispanic, or American Indian or Alaska Native, non-Hispanic. Eleven percent are international students, nearly 2% identify as Two or more races, non-Hispanic, and the remaining demographics are unknown or unreported.

According to the Carnegie Classification System (n.d.) the admission factors for LPU are considered selective. Institutional selectivity is demonstrated, albeit in a limited

way, based on students' entrance examination scores (LPU website, n.d.). According to an LPU admissions report (2013), 35% of applicants accepted for the fall 2013 academic term were in the top ten percent of their high school class and 5% of students in the Fall 2013 class scored between 1,400 and 1,600 on the SAT.

The following section outlines demographic information of the undergraduate student population enrolled during the Fall Semester 2014 at LPC (Table 2).

Table 2

Ethnicity breakdown of the Large Private University student population at the study location in the Fall Semester 2014

Ethnicity	Percentage of total population
Nonresident aliens	11.0%
Hispanic	25.5%
Black or African American, non-Hispanic	8.6%
White, non-Hispanic	30.8%
American Indian or Alaska Native, non-Hispanic	.1%
Asian, non-Hispanic	20.0%
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, non-Hispanic	.3%
Two or more races, non-Hispanic	2.7%
Race and/or ethnicity unknown	.9%

Student Affairs Departments. The student affairs area is part of the Vice President structure for the campus and encompasses Enrollment Services as well as student affairs departments.² In the student affairs departments there a total of 27 departments and they are part of the following areas Health Center and Wellbeing Services; Housing and Residential Life; Dean of Students Office; nine distinct Student Life Offices; as well various stand-alone offices otherwise affiliated with Enrollment Services or Student Affairs, such as Career Services, Assessment and Planning,

² Department titles have been changed to help preserve anonymity of the LPU campus.

Advancement, Marketing and Communications, Orientation and other offices supporting the functions of this Division (LPU organizational chart, 2014). The Student Affairs Division employs more than 215 staff (LPU website, n.d.) and is aimed at fostering student success through learning, experiences, and discovery on the campus (LPU Student Affairs website, n.d.).

The Division is also intentional about espousing the phrase “the whole student” as it relates to its work to enhance students’ success (LPU Student Affairs website, n.d.). This is in alignment with the work geared toward student success and enhancing student engagement on campus (Tinto, 2006). Furthermore the division is centered around fulfilling five major functions, and those include staying engaged, staying healthy, living on the campus, accessing support services and utilizing functions affiliated with enrollment (LPU Student Affairs website, n.d.). More information about some of these functions will be explained in the following section about student life at LPU.

Key components of student life. This section will outline some of the distinctive features of student life on the campus. The information will be presented as follows. First, student activities and student government information will be provided. Second, information about campus housing and the numbers of students residing on the campus will be included. Finally, additional information about the campus’s student traditions or other distinct campus features will be noted.

Students are encouraged to be active in the LPU campus community (LPU Student Affairs website, n.d.). There are many opportunities for students to get involved in the campus community, including the over four hundred clubs and organizations, Greek life on the campus, student government, community and civic involvement and

many other engagement activities (Student Activities at LPU website, n.d.). The student government in this case is focused on issues related to academic and campus-life issues. The student government on the campus has been active for fifty terms and is divided into Executive, Legislative and Judicial branches (Student Activities at LPU website, n.d.). Each branch holds specific authority and contributes to the overall running of the student government each term. Examining the legislative decisions by the student government provided the researcher with a cursory overview of recent student concerns and some exposure to the landscape of the issues facing the student boards.

A review of some of the legislative rulings, noted already in the 2014-2015 docket of rulings, provides information about three legislative issues. First, the student association voted to fulfill the existing Nondiscriminatory Policy around sexual identity and the option for students, faculty and staff to identify as a gender regardless of their birth sex (LPU legislative vote website, 2014). Second, an administrative and finance committee of the legislative body in the student government voted to require the university to account for and mitigate its greenhouse gas emissions on an annual basis (LPU legislative vote website, 2014). Third, the legislative group voted to rearticulate a part of the campus's alma mater and reaffirmed the commitment on the campus for school spirit (LPU legislative vote website, 2014). Overall, as noted in the three approved legislative actions and resolutions, there is a diverse set of issues and conditions in which the student government on campus acts to respond to the needs of the student body, while also considering the impact on the greater campus community.

Another important component of the student life on the campus is related to campus housing. In the case of LPU, most students actually do not reside on-campus. The

university is primarily a commuter campus or non-residential campus (Carnegie Classification, n.d.) and there are a few aspects to this issue worth examining for the LPU campus.³ However, it is apparent the institution is committed to enhancing their residential population, with an addition of 200 beds in the previous academic year, and LPU considers this as part of the effort to enhance student success (LPU's website, n.d.).

Second, the residential life model at LPU includes trained student affairs professionals and student resident associates (LPU housing website, n.d.). The student resident associates (RAs) are charged with responding to low-level concerns, such as roommate conflicts and noise violations, developing and implementing programming efforts and referring students to resources on campus (LPU RA survey, n.d.). According to Dungy (2003), as cited in Komives, Woodward, and Associates et al. (2003), this model is typical in residential life systems in American higher education. These student RAs are also evaluated by their staff supervisors in the housing department to determine how well they connect with other students in their communities, how well they make referrals to resources on campus and support overall student success (LPU RA survey, 2013). In terms of options for enrolled students, the campus has seven residential facilities and offers programs such as honors housing, living/learning programs, faculty in residence and other programmatic options (LPU housing website, n.d.).

Moreover, LPU's housing department has recently set out to make some significant changes in regards to their approach to student housing. As an institution, the

³ Twenty-two percent of students live on campus. Although there is a small proportion of students residing on the campus, of public institutions in the state LPU has the second largest on-campus residential population.

campus is now considered a “Tier One” university and with that has come changes that affect the student life area (LPU website, 2012). Particularly, as it relates to the transitions taking place in residential life, the campus has committed to offering new programming efforts and professional staffing positions to restructure the Residential Life department to embody a broader purpose than merely provide housing (LPU website, 2012). The department’s mission is to positively contribute to the overall student experience, particularly outside the classroom, to expand students’ development and foster more globally aware citizens (LPU website, 2012). Ultimately, a sense of personal engagement and collective community are attributes of the residential life experience for students on the LPU campus.

Finally, in terms of other traditions and critical features of the campus, LPU is a campus with some unique activities. For instance, undergraduates plan and implement a large-scale scholarship fundraising event featuring a carnival, theatre productions and homemade regional cuisine (LPU traditions website, n.d.). The event has become an event for the campus and much of the surrounding city. Another defining feature of the campus is the institution’s commitment to wear LPU colors on a specified day each week. Faculty, staff, students, and alumni wear the institution’s color to symbolize unity and pride for the campus (LPU traditions website, n.d.). This is a way for individuals on the campus to foster collective support for their institution.

Provision of campus counseling services. The counseling services center is a department within the Student Affairs Department at LPU. The center provides mental health services for enrolled students, as well as some limited services for faculty and staff employed at LPU (LPU Student Affairs Annual Report, 2014). LPU’s Center employs 12

full-time clinicians and four administrative staff, is directed by a Ph.D. Psychologist and the Center also is currently staffed with eight Ph.D. Psychologists serving in various functions from individual service to outreach, one Licensed Professional Counselor, one Doctorate of Psychology, four pre-doctoral Psychology Interns, two practicum students and one graduate assistant (LPU counseling website, n.d.). The Center provides a variety of services to students including individual and couples counseling, group counseling, assessments for learning disabilities and Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder, personality and career assessments, consultations to the campus, and educational outreach efforts (LPU counseling website, n.d.). More information about the Center will be discussed in the next sections.

Based on enrollment figures from the Fall-Spring 2013 academic year, based on available data at time of study, the ratio of undergraduate students to clinical staff at the center is 3,295:1 (LPU website, n.d.). This is a notably higher ratio than 1,500:1, which LPU's accrediting body (International Association of Counseling Services) recommends (LPU website, n.d.). The Center has presented this information in the form of a request for additional staffing to LPU administration (LPU website, n.d.). Due to increased student enrollment and a heightened need for mental health services, leadership from LPU's Center also noted the need to provide more individual-based counseling services as well other types of mental health outreach and direct services (LPU website, n.d.). Further information about the types of services provided at the Center is provided below.

Specifically, the Center provides individual and couples counseling and these services are offered at a discounted rate of five dollars a session for individuals and ten dollars a session for couples counseling (LPU counseling website, n.d.). Individual

counseling provided is described as a service for students who are “seeking assistance for personal concerns” (LPU counseling website, n.d.). There are many types of concerns for which students may decide to utilize individual counseling and some of those may be depression, interpersonal conflicts, stress, anxiety, and many other concerns (LPU counseling website, n.d.). In addition the Center provides counseling through group processing and psycho-educational sessions (LPU counseling website, n.d.). LPU’s counseling website (n.d.) provides some examples of group counseling as ways to learn about yourself in context with others, emotional skills building, and mindfulness meditation.

The Center also provides same-day appointments for students who need them. Students are encouraged to call as soon as they can to let the Center know they need to be seen that day and there are also after-hours services offered for students experiencing a crisis (LPU counseling website, n.d.). Students experiencing a crisis are also provided a number of options through local and national crisis hotline services (LPU counseling website, n.d.).

Lastly, the Center coordinates outreach efforts and facilitates educational programs on the campus to increase awareness around mental health on the campus (LPU counseling website, n.d.). Some of the trainings provided by staff include sessions about suicide prevention, interactive discussion groups focused on increasing skills and educating students about mental health and wellbeing, as well as trainings tailored toward a particular group or audience on the campus (LPU counseling website, n.d.). LPU’s Center engages students, faculty and staff each academic year to further the discussion about mental health and build awareness about the issue (LPU counseling

website, n.d.).

Description of Medium Private University

Size and setting. This site campus is also located in the Southwestern United States in a large, metropolitan city. The campus is classified as private, selective, doctoral granting, with a high level of research activity and majors offered in the following six academic divisions: Architecture, Engineering, Humanities, Music, Natural Sciences, and Social Sciences. In terms of the Carnegie Classification approach, the student population is characterized as medium in size (Carnegie Classification, n.d.), with approximately 4,000 undergraduate students. According to the Carnegie Classification system the campus was considered highly residential (Carnegie Classification, n.d.) where nearly seventy-five percent of enrolled undergraduate students reside in campus housing. An additional characteristic important to this study is the existence of many departments within the university that support the residential component and other student life structures of the campus.

Undergraduate student population and achievement characteristics. The MPU population is enrolled undergraduates during the 2013-2014 academic year. Table 3 depicts the percentage of undergraduates served by the campus by enrollment classification. As noted in Table 3, the majority of the students enrolled during 2013-2014 are undergraduate students (Carnegie Classification, n.d.), and this is also demonstrated in the MPU's mission statement. According to the MPU mission, the institution has a distinct purpose in serving undergraduate students (MPU mission statement website, n.d.).

Table 3

Classification breakdown of the Medium Private University student population at the study location in the 2013-2014 academic year

Classification	Percentage
Undergraduate	60.68%
First-year	26.20%
Second-year	24.56%
Third-year	24.59%
Fourth-year	22.12%
Graduate	39.31%
Master's	18.02%
Doctoral	54.16%

The ethnic demographic information of the undergraduate student population enrolled during the 2013-2014 academic year is depicted in Table 4, based on IPEDS categories. During the 2013-2014 academic year, nearly forty percent of enrolled students identified as primarily White, non-Hispanic, twenty percent of students identified as Asian, non-Hispanic, and twenty percent of students identified as Hispanic, Black or African American, non-Hispanic, or American Indian or Alaska Native, non-Hispanic. Eleven percent of the MPU student population were international students, nearly five percent identified as two or more races, non-Hispanic, and the remaining ethnic demographics were unknown or unreported. Additionally, it is worth noting that a majority of undergraduate students represent a diverse home background, with nearly half of the students being from out of state and an increasing number, based on the 2013-2014 academic year, of international new students each year. According to available enrollment information, thirteen percent of the fall 2013 matriculation class were international students.

Another piece of relevant background information will help understand the nature of the student population at MPU. The population of enrolled undergraduates at this research site is often from high achieving academic backgrounds. For instance, in Fall Semester 2013, eighty-seven percent of applicants accepted at MPU were in the top ten percent of their high school class and the top 25 percent of students who matriculated in the fall 2013 semester class scored above 1,500 on the SAT (MPU Institutional Research Report, 2014).

Table 4

Ethnicity breakdown of the Medium Private University student population at the study location in the 2013-2014 academic year

Ethnicity	Percentage of total population
Nonresident aliens	11.32%
Hispanic	15.05%
Black or African American, non-Hispanic	6.43%
White, non-Hispanic	39.44%
American Indian or Alaska Native, non-Hispanic	.15%
Asian, non-Hispanic	21.38%
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, non-Hispanic	0.00%
Two or more races, non-Hispanic	4.69%
Race and/or ethnicity unknown	1.40%

Student affairs departments. There are eighteen departments that are part of the Student Affairs Division and at the time of the study approximately 200 employees severed in the Division. The departments included: Academic Advising, Career Services, Community Leadership, Communications Programs, Counseling Services, Health Services, Judicial Affairs, the Residential Facilities, Social Work/Case Management, Study Abroad, Student Research, and seven offices affiliated with Student Life initiatives

(MPU website, n.d.).⁴ Departments provided various types of advising for individual students, guidance for student leadership groups, counseling or health services, among other student life functions. These departments are led by master's level professionals, PhD's, or in the case of the health center, a medical doctor (Various MPU websites, n.d.). Departments report to an associate dean and the associate dean reports directly to the vice president of student affairs. Additional information about the undergraduate population in terms of the campus's approach to student life functions are described below.

Key components of student life. The residential life model is particularly prominent at the campus, which is similar to models at Oxford and Cambridge in Europe (Thelin, 2004). The residential community at MPU (the name of the community has been changed to establish anonymity for the research site) was the hub of student activity. On the site campus, approximately 250-325 students reside and dine in one of the residential settings in a given academic year (MPU website, n.d.). Dungy (2003), as cited in Komives, Woodward, and Associates et al. (2003), defines residential setting in broad terms as the space is also responsible for fundamental functions, such as providing an environment in which students can be safe, productive and stay connected to their academic goals. At the time of admittance at MPU, students are randomly assigned to one residential communities and maintain an association with the assigned community during their time at the institution. Residential communities serve as an entry point by which many students join leadership positions, get involved in campus-wide committees, and are exposed to social, academic and cultural activities on the campus (MPU website, n.d.).

Each residential community utilizes an infrastructure model in which tenured

⁴ Department titles have been changed to help preserve anonymity of the MPU campus.

faculty members reside “in residence” adjacent to the undergraduate housing community (MPU website, n.d.). It is grounded in the “mixing [of] living and learning” and students’ residential college becomes the primary affiliation with their institution” (Thelin, 2004, p. 8). Faculty members who live in residence serve some general, student affairs functions by helping students problem-solve (MPU website, n.d.).

In addition to the faculty in residence, the institution has additional faculty associates and staff who live in residence and provide general guidance for students. These individuals are called Live-in Associates (LAs) (MPU website, n.d.). However, it is important to note that they do not function as traditional resident assistants, in that they are not responsible for policy enforcement. The LAs provide general advice, support student leadership development, and coordinate activities (MPU website, n.d.).

Student-driven accountability is another factor that characterizes the residential model (MPU website, n.d.). Unlike LPU, which student leadership primarily focuses on governance, academic and campus-wide issues, at MPU undergraduate leadership is largely associated with leadership within the residential community. Specifically, undergraduates are charged with responsibility related to enforcing campus expectations in the residential communities. In other words, students themselves serve as the first level of response for most non-urgent matters. The campus has a police force and a team of administrators who respond to severe behavioral incidents. Student-run courts in the residential communities handle violations of a lower level in the residential communities, and an example of such would be a noise complaint. The process of information gathering, deliberation and sanctioning happen under the direction of students in their own communities (MPU website, n.d.). To understand the research site, it is important to

acknowledge that significant responsibility and authority reside with student leadership.

In addition, it is important to note that students are often trained to serve as peer educators and advisors (MPU website, n.d.). In fact there are multiple models that exist on the campus supported and facilitated by staff in the Division of Student Affairs. For instance, a select group of students are trained to serve as point people for academic advising related questions. These students are trained in the university's academic policies and procedures and provide their fellow students advice on scheduling classes, trouble-shooting low-level academic-related concerns and advice on ways to connect with faculty at the university (MPU website, n.d.). Students are also trained to provide guidance for their peers as mentors. For instance, for students who are beginning the job search process, they are directed first to student leaders trained to facilitate student access to advisors in the career services center (MPU website, n.d.).

Lastly, and most relevant to this study, a select group of students are trained by professional staff in the area to serve as an initial guide if students have low-level, emotional concerns for which they would like advice (MPU website, n.d.). Those student leaders are trained to be aware of some key signs of distress and to make immediate referrals to the campus resources in those rare cases (MPU website, n.d.). Overall, these students are positioned to help facilitate more frequent and timely access to professional staff in counseling services on campus. More about the Counseling Services Center will be described in the following section.

Provision of campus counseling services. The campus counseling center provides services to enrolled undergraduate and graduate students (MPU counseling website, n.d.). The counseling center at the site campus employs licensed mental health professionals

providing counseling to enrolled students (MPU counseling website, n.d.). There are a total of 12 staff working in the center which includes two PhD psychologists, one doctorate in psychology, one licensed master level social worker, five licensed clinical social workers, one part-time consulting psychiatrist and two administrative assistants (MPU counseling website, n.d.). A PhD psychologist directs the Center (MPU counseling website, n.d.). In terms of confidentiality requirements, the Center is bound by FERPA as well as state confidentiality standards for mental health professionals (MPU counseling website, n.d.). The center provides three major services at MPU. One, it is responsible for short-term and solution oriented, individual therapy. Two, it provides crisis and case management. Third, in collaboration with student affairs professionals, the office designs and implements mental health awareness education (MPU counseling website, n.d.). More about these varying types of services will be explained in the following sections.

MPU's Center has an undergraduate student to counselor ratio of 400:1. This ratio is based on enrollment figures from the 2013-2014 academic term. The ratio of students to counselors can be explained, in part, by the application of responsibilities in the student affairs unit at MPU. Counselors also coordinate with administrators and other professionals in counseling and case management services to provide a more extensive set of offerings to students. More information about the types of individual and programmatic offerings are described below.

As noted on the Center's website (n.d.), in terms of short-term, solution oriented therapy, the Center staff typically meet with students for a flexible number of sessions, depending on the needs of the student, to help the individual work toward resolving their concerns. The types of cases that would be appropriate for this kind of on-campus service

are generally situations in which the student is psychologically stable and interested in working in a confidential, therapeutic setting. Examples of this may be mental illnesses that affect the students' ability to function in the academic setting (MPU handbook website, n.d.). Some cases, depending on the needs of the individual student, may be referred to professionals outside the campus who offer more intensive or specialized treatment services. Otherwise, students who contact the Center are offered an appointment to speak to a clinician in person, scheduled for an in-take appointment and then scheduled for on-going therapy, over a period of sessions (MPU counseling website, n.d.).

The crisis and case management work conducted by the Center is focused in a few key areas. First, as noted on the Center's website (n.d.), the office serves as a consultation source for faculty, staff and other students concerned about the well-being of a student. Generally, these types of contacts are associated with some kind of behavior observed by a member of the campus community. Second, the Center's director and associate director serve on the campus's behavioral intervention team, responsible for reviewing, considering, and sometimes responding to reports of concern about students (MPU counseling website, n.d.). Third, the Center offers two forms of fast-response assistance for students. The Center provides a twenty-four hour crisis phone line service and same-day appointments for students who are in need of a crisis appointment (MPU counseling website, n.d.). The phone service is answered by a trained mental health professional, off-site and information from the call is recorded and passed over to clinicians at the Center (MPU counseling website, n.d.). In addition the Center staff see students the same day they contact the Center if students need to see someone in person that day (MPU

counseling website, n.d.). Lastly, the Center staff facilitate a student going to the hospital for stabilization and further assessment (MPU website, n.d.), when such action is deemed necessary.

Finally, the Center partners with the case management/outreach office on campus to provide mental health education and programming for the campus community. Some examples of the programming are provided on the Center's website (n.d.) and those trainings include programs such as "Question, Persuade, Refer" (QPR) and campus-specific programs about potential signs of concern, mental health resources available on campus, and ways to refer a student to services on the campus (MPU counseling website, n.d.). The department provides other outreach efforts and assists in coordinating preventative education for the campus (MPU counseling website, n.d.).

Overview of Case Study Analysis Components

The following section frames the methodology for the study. First, the researcher outlines the survey research design as well as the interview study design. Second, research question one is outlined paired with sampling, data collection procedures, and instrumentation involved in the survey research component of the study. Finally, research question two is outlined and information about sampling, data collection procedures, and the instrumentation are addressed.

Research design. As noted previously, the case study involved two campus sites. One was a large, public research institution and the other is a medium, private research institution. To address research question one, the researcher utilized a correlational survey design on both campuses (Babbie, 1990). At the MPU site, a survey was conducted in Fall Semester 2013 and the same survey was implemented in Spring

Semester 2015 at LPU. The survey was optional for enrolled, adult undergraduate students. To answer research question two, the study involved one-on-one interviews with undergraduate students on the two campus sites. Both aspects of the study's research design will be explained in the following sections.

Correlational survey design. This type of survey design is set up to examine predictive relationships, and it is particularly relevant for this study as the researcher assessed responses from the sample and made some inferences about attitudes and willingness toward seeking help of this population (Babbie, 1990). Through the analysis of predictive factors, the study's findings may offer suggestions for ways to best reach individual students through counseling service departments. Moreover, the study provides additional information about why individuals who need assistance may be reluctant to access help (Rosenthal & Wilson, 2008) and what institutions of higher education may be able to do about that concern.

Specifically, the correlational survey design was an appropriate methodology for this study because it enabled the researcher to gain further knowledge about help-seeking and significant predictive relationships involved in likelihood to seek help on the two site campuses. Understanding the relationships between the psychological, counseling experience, and demographic variables is an important step in the work of campus officials in establishing effective sources of help on campuses. As the higher education help-seeking literature suggests, there is more to examine as it relates to individual factors associated with help-seeking intention. Moreover, there is a dearth of existing interview-based studies as well as mixed-methods studies aimed at enhancing awareness of the influence of institutional factors on students' willingness to seek help. More about

the interview process is discussed below.

One-on-one interviews. There are many models of qualitative research, and Carspecken (1996) describes a particular type of qualitative research, namely “critical qualitative research” (p. 3). This qualitative research is grounded in the purpose of “refin[ing] social theory rather than merely to describe social life” (Carspecken, 1996, p. 3). This kind of research provides a means to examine a more rich set of factors and experiences as witnessed in an observation or heard in an interview setting. The researcher largely applied Carspecken’s approach to qualitative research in designing the study’s interview components and conducting the data analysis.

During the research design phase, one of the first steps taken was planning the interview steps needed to conduct data collection (Carspecken, 1996). Carspecken (1996) describes compiling the primary record as process in which the researcher is often immersed in the research setting to collect a set of observation records (Carspecken, 1996). In the case of this study, the researcher compiled data through one-on-one interviews with students on both campuses. According to Carspecken interview-only studies are designed for the analysis of “attitudes, beliefs, and experiences of the individuals” (p. 38). Therefore, the researcher utilized an interview approach to gain a rich source of information to consider in terms of the individual’s experience as well as the relation to the social system present in the individual’s environment (Carspecken, 1996). Given the context of critical qualitative research, it is essential to consider the impact bias has on a researcher (Carspecken, 1996). Qualitative researchers approach their work with a keen consciousness toward meeting certain, rigorous standards to avoid bias (Carspecken, 1996). In terms of recognizing bias, the research employed a number of

steps in the analysis process, which are explained in the following section.

Finally, as previously noted, the following sections of this chapter discuss the two research questions. The sampling methods are outlined at the beginning of each section. Following that, data collection procedures are addressed. Lastly, each section explains the methods and procedures of analysis used to examine the data to answer the stated research question.

Research Question One

The first research question was as follows: What individual influences affect undergraduate likelihood to seek help from the university counseling center for a personal or emotional problem? How does that influence vary across campuses?

Sample at MPU. To address research question one, the sample was adult undergraduate students recruited from a stratified, random sample of students enrolled during the Fall 2013 Semester. There were 900 undergraduates in the sample and those students were contacted to participate in a survey using the MPU campus Qualtrics system. The population included undergraduate students who were actively enrolled as full-time, bachelor degree-seeking students from classes that entered between the years 2010 through 2013. The Office of Institutional Effectiveness controlled and maintained the sample of actively enrolled, adult undergraduates. The Office excluded students under eighteen from the accounting of actively enrolled undergraduates for the purposes of this sample draw.

Data collection procedures at MPU during 2013. In order to address this question, the researcher conducted a study at the institution in fall 2013 and invited participants from the random sample to take part in the survey. Participants at MPU were

contacted to complete the survey the first week in November 2013. Two reminder emails were sent to all participants one week after the initial e-mail and one additional week following the second invitation. The survey was active for six weeks and respondents ($n = 145$) completed the survey during the Fall Semester 2013.

Participants were provided a unique/non-unique link to log into Qualtrics, which is a password protected interface, to complete the survey and consented to partake in the study by first acknowledging their consent in Qualtrics. The consent form was the first prompt for the subjects and respondents had to agree to participate in order for the first of the instruments to appear. If participants did not acknowledge their consent, the subjects were forwarded directly and immediately to a page in Qualtrics that thanked them for their time and provided a list of mental health resources available on and off campus.

Study participants had the option of completing the survey at one-time or signing back in to complete the survey at a later point in time during the data collection period. Participants did not provide their name on the survey and participation remained anonymous to the PI. The completed instruments did not link to participants in any way, and other than the demographic questionnaire, which was provided first, the ordering of the measurements were varied to control for possible order effects. Therefore the researcher had access to the e-mail addresses of the participants only for purposes of disseminating the invitation to participate. After the data collection window was closed the subject ID, generated student identification numbers, information was used and email information was stripped from the data set.

Sample at LPU. To address research question one, there was a convenience sample of adult undergraduate students recruited from the Sona System. Students active in Sona

are generally enrolled in psychology, social science, education or other courses at LPU. Sona is a data collection management system controlled by the Psychology Department (LPU website, n.d.). Participants were contacted to complete the survey in late January 2015. The researcher sought a sample of 1,000 students to be invited to complete the survey.

Data collection procedures on LPU. The population for this study included undergraduate students who were actively enrolled as full-time, bachelor degree-seeking students at LPU. Undergraduates younger than 18 years of age were not included because the study was intended to analyze help-seeking decision making of adult college students. The researcher will account for the age of the participants in three ways. First, the researcher noted the age to participate in the invitation email. Second, the age requirement was stated in the Consent to Participate Form. Lastly, participant age was one of the questions asked in the survey.

Study participants had the option of completing the survey at one-time or signing back in to complete the survey at a later point in time during the data collection period. One invitation email was sent through Sona to participants one week after the initial e-mail. The Sona e-mail provided participants a unique link to log into Qualtrics to complete the survey. The survey closed after five weeks of data collection.

Participants were asked to consent to partake in the study by first acknowledging their consent in Qualtrics. The consent form was the first prompt for the subjects and respondents to agree to participate in order for the first instrument to appear. If participants did not acknowledge their consent, the subjects were forwarded directly and immediately to a page in Qualtrics that thanked them for their time and provided a list of

mental health resources available on and off campus.

Respondents were identifiable to the researcher by a survey code. Participants who complete the survey will be given one-half point (.05) of extra credit in Sona. This enabled the researcher to award extra credit points to those who consented to participate and completed the survey through the Sona System. The amount of extra credit awarded was the amount suggested by the Sona System. After the data collection window closed and applicable extra credit was applied to participants in Sona, the survey code information was stripped from the data set.

Survey Instrumentation. The variables studied include multiple independent variables and one dependent variable. Each variable was assessed by subject participation in an associated 19-item survey instrument and the specific items are discussed below. The independent variables included: Gender, year in school, age, race/ethnicity, grade point average, previous and current counseling experience, attitudes toward counseling, perceived level of distress, social support, and self-concealment.

Demographic variables. Gender, year in school, age, race/ethnicity, grade point average, and previous and current counseling experience were gathered by self-report in a demographic questionnaire developed by the researcher. The demographic questionnaire is a 19-item instrument. It is the first assessment to which subjects were asked to respond. A copy of the demographic instrument can be found in Appendix E. The process for survey distribution was outlined above.

Emotional distress. To assess perceived emotional distress, the Hopkins Symptom Checklist-21 (HSCL-21) was employed (Green, Walkey, McCormick, & Taylor, 1988). This is a 21-item, 4-point Likert-type inventory (Extremely = 4; Not at all

= 1). The HSCL-21 instrument has an internal consistency of .90 (Vogel et al., 2005).

The instrument is found in Appendix A- Hopkins Symptom Checklist-21. The preceding section outlines procedure for survey distribution.

Attitudes toward seeking professional psychological help. The study used the Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale to assess the dependent variable (Fischer & Farina, 1995). This scale measured attitudes about seeking professional assistance. The instrument is a 10-item, 4-point Likert-type scale (Agree = 4; Disagree = 1). The scale has adequate internal consistency internal consistency at .84 (Vogel et al., 2005). See Appendix B- Attitudes Scale. The preceding section outlined procedure for distributing the survey.

Social provisions. The Social Provisions Scale examined an individual's perceptions of the quality of their social support network (Cutrona & Russell, 1987). This is a 14-item, 4-point Likert-type scale (Strongly Agree=4; Strongly Disagree=1). The Social Provisions Scale has an internal consistency between .85 and .92 (Vogel et al., 2005). See Appendix C- Social Provisions. The preceding section outlined procedures for survey distribution.

Self-concealment. Self-concealment is assessed by a measure called The Self-Concealment Scale. The instrument measured the degree to which an individual is inclined to reveal personal information about themselves to others that they perceive to be negative (Larson & Chastain, 1990). This is a 10-item, 5-point Likert-type scale (Strongly Agree=5; Strongly Disagree=1). The reliabilities for this measure have been reported to be adequate. Studies demonstrate internal consistencies between .83 and .87 and test-retest reliabilities between .74 and .81 (Vogel et al., 2005). See Appendix D-

Self-Concealment Scale. The previous section outlined procedures for survey distribution.

Data Analysis for Research Question One. The quantitative element of the study was analyzed by regression analysis. A block-run, linear regression analysis was used to test the relationship between each independent variable, namely counseling experience, demographic variables and psychological factors and the dependent variable, intention of accessing help from the university's counseling center. A linear regression was also performed to test differences between the two campuses. Linear regression was appropriate in this study because the independent variables were analyzed to estimate the unknown parameters of the dependent variable.

In addition, regression analysis allowed the researcher to assess the individual predictive factors of help-seeking at the two site campuses. The researcher sought to compare variables between and among the two site campuses to gain better knowledge about the ways in which individual factors may influence help-seeking at the two site locations. This analysis enabled the researcher to better understand the demographic and psychological factors involved in student help-seeking at two different institutions.

Regression analysis was an effective statistical model to employ because analyzing relationships among variables was essential in this study. Regression analysis was also an effective analysis method in order to enhance knowledge about predictive factors associated with help-seeking. For instance, as Gibbons et al. (2009) state, one's willingness to seek help is something generally considered more spontaneous in nature rather than deliberate, well thought out action. Given the nature of the attitudes and perceptions associated with individuals' willingness to seek help, there was value in

conducting a regression analysis to estimate the relation between and among variables tested in this study.

Data analysis was conducted by regression analysis performed in SPSS 22. Prior to analysis, the researcher coded variables to be appropriately accounted for in SPSS. For instance, a dummy variable was created to account for ethnicity and this allowed the researcher to consider ethnicity as a categorical variable. Likert scale variables were coded as scale variables and all other variables were coded as nominal. Age, in the case of LPU, was handled by coding individuals older than 30 years of age as “99” in SPSS. Citizenship was converted to a dichotomous variable, therefore permanent residents and dual citizens were included in the total number of citizens. The researcher also coded any missing items as “99” in SPSS and the regression analyses was run pairwise.

Lastly, qualitative data analysis also contributed to answering the first research question. Aspects of the interviews informed the researcher about factors used in the regressions over influences in student help-seeking. Furthermore, as Creswell (2005) states, the integration of qualitative and quantitative is a crucial component in conducting mixed methods research. Qualitative analysis informed some findings specific to differences between how students perceive and navigate help-seeking sources at the site campuses.

Research Question Two

Research question two was as follows: How do institutional factors relate to undergraduates' likelihood to seek help from the university counseling center if faced with a personal or emotional problem?

Sample at MPU. In order to address research question two, the researcher developed a sampling procedure for both campuses. At MPU, a stratified, random sample of students enrolled during the Spring 2015 Semester was used. Only adult students, eighteen years of age and older were included in the sample. The sampling was performed after the end of the second week of classes (January 23, 2015) of the Spring 2015 semester. The random sample included 200 enrolled students from each class year that started at MPU in the following years (2014, 2013, 2012, and 2011). The sample produced 800 potential participants and five individuals were randomly selected for participation in interviews.

Sample at LPU. At LPU, in order to address research question two, the researcher posted an invitation to participate in an interview in the Sona Research System. The Sona online data collection website was used to notify LPU students of the study. Only adult students were included in the study.

Data Collection Procedures

To address research question two, the source of data was gathered during interviews with undergraduate students from the MPU and LPU campuses. In terms of the influence of campus factors on students' likelihood to seek help, a set of qualitative questions was necessary to understand the nuances intertwined in the perceptions and experiences of students involved in the study (Creswell, 2005).

Furthermore, intention is a subjective concept and is knowledge only one person can have access to (Carspecken, 1996). As Carspecken (1996) articulates, acquiring an understanding of the meaning of intention is a core component to qualitative work. Qualitative work is often interested in understanding events where others have a great

deal of access as well as events where perceptions are limited to individual experiences (Carspecken, 1996). This work helped examine the experiences of the individual participants and build understanding around a relationship with campus factors and students' willingness to seek help on campus.

Interview procedures and instrumentation. The following section will describe a number of topics related to interview procedures and instrumentation. First, information about how the Screening Questionnaire was used is provided. Second, the procedures followed during interviews as well as the protocol and other instrumentation design is addressed. Third, the procedures developed to prepare the other graduate student researcher to conduct interviews at the MPU campus is discussed. Fourth, the application of extra credit for LPU participants is outlined. Finally, how the researcher arrived at the interview instruments based on existent literature is addressed.

Interview Screening Questionnaire. The Screening Questionnaire (Appendix F) allowed the researcher to gather information about enrollment year, overall attitude toward seeking help, and participants' perceptions of sense of belonging for the interview participant. Not all participants opted to complete the Screening Questionnaire despite the researcher sending a reminder before the interview. The Screening Questionnaire also asked participants if they completed the survey affiliated with the study. No interview participants completed a previous version of the survey. Only the researcher and PI had access to the Qualtrics interface and Screening Questionnaire and responses. The Screening Questionnaire was developed based on three core themes discussed in the MHHS literature for college students. The three factors are described below.

First, the Screening Questionnaire requested that students provide their year of

enrollment, while also stating that interested interview participants need to be at least 18 years of age. Second, the Screening Questionnaire included one question about students' perception of their sense of belonging on the campus (Bollen & Hoyle, 1990). Third, the participants were asked to respond to a question about their attitude toward seeking professional help if they were struggling with a problem for a long period of time (Fischer & Farina, 1995). Due to the limited completion rate of the Screening Questionnaire prior to the interview, participants were not selected based on Screening Questionnaire responses. Instead, interview participants signed up for an interview time-slot in the Sona system. Interviews took place in a reserved classroom in the education building on the LPU campus.

Intake Form. At the beginning of the individual interview, the researcher provided a brief overview of the study and asked the interviewee to review the consent to participate. Consent was requested prior to the start of the interview. After participants consented to participate, the researcher utilized an Intake Form (Appendix G).

The Intake Form collected information about demographics, feelings about sense of belonging at the institution, attitudes toward seeking psychological help, and past and current experiences, if any, with the counseling center on their home campus. The demographic questions asked on the Intake Form aligned with the questions asked in the Qualtrics survey instrument. The Intake Form questions were derived from the literature about Sense of Belonging and Bollen and Hoyle's Sense of Belonging scale (1990) was utilized on the form. Participants were asked to respond to questions in the instrument associated with attitude toward seeking professional help (Fischer & Farina, 1995). Prior to starting the interview, the researcher quickly reviewed certain items on the Intake

Form to get a general understanding of the attitudes and perspectives of the interviewee as it related to sense of belonging at the institution, overall attitude toward seeking professional help and experience, if any, with the counseling services department on campus.

Interview Protocol. Interviews followed an outlined protocol (Appendix H). The protocol was grounded in literature about student engagement, sense of belonging, and MHHS. Carspecken's (1996) work also guided the interview protocol as the interview is aimed at gaining insight into the attitudes and beliefs of individuals within the context of a system. Interview questions were also designed to allow for expansion from the Intake Form. In developing the protocol questions, the researcher talked to an experienced qualitative methodologist and also gathered feedback from an undergraduate student at MPU. Specifically, the researcher utilized the feedback from both individuals to make questions clearer and allow participants to speak about their general perceptions related to the given domain area.

The researcher also consulted with a PhD with extensive experience conducting qualitative research. The methodologist provided specific feedback on the proposed interview protocol and process. First, the professor reviewed the domain areas with the researcher. Second, the professor suggested a review of the questions to focus them more on the influences of the campus on how counseling services are provided. Third, the researcher discussed with the methodologist the desire to focus the interview on student perceptions of help-seeking in a general sense, not necessarily on participant's personal experiences. Finally, the plans to conduct the Interview Screening Questionnaire and

Intake Form prior to the interview were discussed. Following the discussion the researcher made the applicable changes to the interview protocol.

In addition, the researcher performed a trial-run of the interview questions with an undergraduate student leader at MPU. The researcher e-mailed the student to invite them to test the questions with the researcher. When meeting with the student the researcher explained the purpose of the study, stated any discussions the student had with the researcher would not be used for publication or other purposes, and taking part in the trial-run was voluntary. The student agreed to take part and the researcher asked the student to review the Intake Form and asked the student the interview questions. The interview was not recorded, however the researcher asked the student if the researcher would have permission to make notes about feedback on the questions themselves. After the trial-run of the interview, the researcher reviewed feedback and revised the interview protocol questions accordingly. Overall, the researcher found the questions to be appropriate, however some rewording was necessary to make the questions more succinct and facilitate a more effective flow during the interview.

The interview protocol included a total of 17 questions and covered three topic domains. The topic domains included: Sense of belonging at the university, Accessing support for problem-solving, and Connecting with campus counseling department. The researcher also applied Carspecken's (1996) process of developing the interview questions, identifying key domain areas and, finally, articulating lead-off questions for the interview. Each of these interview design elements will be described in the following section.

First, the researcher developed a set of interview questions to enable flexibility during the interview process (Carspecken, 1996) and to allow the subject to situate the interview in the most realistic way possible. Second, the interview questions were structured in such a way to acquire the most rich, realistic responses (Carspecken, 1996). A key step in doing this is establishing lead-off questions and domains for each area of questions and developing possible follow up questions to pose to the participants. This step enabled the interviewer to function as a facilitator during the interview process (Carspecken, 1996). Finally, the researcher audio-recorded the interviews. Participants on both campuses gave full consent to audio-record interviews. At the opening of each session, participants were asked to identify themselves by the date of their interview only. Following transcription of each of the interviews, the audio file and transcription retained for archival purposes.

Second, during the interview, the researcher also worked to conduct data collection in the most natural way possible in an interview situation. Part of this entailed developing lead-off questions during the interview and Carspecken (1996) referred to this as dialogical data generation. The researcher worked to provide the most comfortable situation possible for the interviewees by posing many questions in the third person, reminding the interviewees that the researcher is most interested in their perceptions, rather than specific information about their personal experiences.

Finally, the researcher applied Carspecken's (1996) approach to identifying domain areas within the interview protocol. There were three domain areas noted in the protocol, and the researcher utilized the applicable core themes from the literature to inform the domain areas. The domain categories incorporated the primary areas of focus

for the study and those include sense of belonging, perceptions about accessing support, and experience interacting with the counseling services on the campus. Additionally, the researcher identified potential covert categories (Carspecken, 1996) as particular areas that were addressed in the interview questions outlined in the protocol. The covert categories were derived from the key topics associated with the research question, and it was a step that enabled the researcher to address the domain areas during the interview with participants (Carspecken, 1996).

Training of Researcher Conducting Interviews at MPU. On the MPU campus, the interviews were conducted by another trained researcher. Due to the researcher being an employee at MPU, this was done to ensure that MPU participants were comfortable participating in the interviews and were not concerned about researcher bias. The selection of the other interviewer was carefully considered so as to facilitate effective interviews. Additional information about the MPU researcher is noted in the following section.

The interviewer for MPU was a doctoral student who was unaffiliated with MPU and has experience conducting semi-structured interviews. The researcher had taken doctoral-level qualitative research courses based on Carspecken's (1996) approach and has conducted qualitative research in the form of observations and interviews. The researcher also had experience facilitating interviews and was aware of Carspecken's (1996) guidance associated with ways to effectively approach interviews and how to respond to interviewees during the process. The graduate student had also analysed observations and interviews utilizing Carspecken's (1996) process. Finally, the graduate student, although not affiliated with MPU, was familiar with the campus and was

knowledgeable about facets of MPU campus life. For instance, the graduate student was informed about the residential communities, the general organization of student affairs on the campus, and some background information about student enrolled MPU students. As it relates to the study itself, specific information was provided in a training session. More information about the training session is noted below.

The researcher conducted a training meeting with the interviewer and reviewed each question in the interview protocol, discussed the topic domains and covert categories associated with each domain area, reviewed the Intake Form, addressed how to handle the informed consent form, discussed how to answer participant questions that come up during the interview, and reviewed how to collect notes and audio-recordings. Additionally, the researcher explained the option for participants to take part in the interview as well as their choice to participate but not have their responses audio-recorded. Appendix I provides an outline of the training session with the graduate student researcher.

LPU extra credit for participants. As noted above in the section about survey data collection, the researcher applied 1 point of extra credit to LPU participants. The extra credit was awarded through the Sona System. The amount of extra credit was the suggested by Sona System administrator's and the researcher awarded credit based on the one hour time allotment for the interview. MPU students did not receive extra credit or any other incentive to participate.

Data analysis for research question two. The study was designed to examine this sort of knowledge through rigorous qualitative work by applying Carspecken's (1996) critical ethnography in an interview-only setting. In Carspecken's methodology,

interview-only studies are concerned more with “social system (1996, p.38),” rather than social action taking place within a given research setting. The study was designed to analyze the systems at play on the two site campuses.

Specifically, the following section outlines the compilation of the primary record, the approach used for coding interviews, and the peer debriefing process (Carspecken, 1996). Although there are other steps included in Carspecken’s (1996) methodology, these are the elements needed for analysis in this study.

Compiling the primary record. First, researcher listened to the audio-recordings after each interview and made notes. These notes helped the researcher understand some of the main perspective of participants during the interviews. Additionally, the interviewer was able to do some self-assessment in terms of the nature of how the interviews were conducted. This process was repeated through the completion of the final interview.

Second, transcriptions were performed ⁵and checked against the audio-recordings. The researcher also printed a copy of each transcription and made brief notes on the transcriptions to begin the coding process. There were a few segments of the interviews the researcher listened to again, and more closely, after rereading the interview transcriptions. This process helped familiarize the researcher with all interviews.

Coding process. After data collection, the researcher conducted a preliminary reconstructive analysis (Carspecken, 1996). This step involved the researcher building

⁵ An experienced transcriptionist performed transcriptions on behalf of the interviewer. The researcher alone maintained the word-processing file identifying participants and campuses. The researcher listened to each interview at least twice and matched it to each of the transcribed documents.

speculations about the meanings of the interviews interactions (Carspecken, 1996). The interview responses were processed through three distinct realms, or validity claims that are “the objective realm, the subjective realm and the normative/evaluative realm” (Carspecken, 1996, p. 85). The researcher applied this investigation approach and developed a set of meanings within the applicable realms gathered in the interviews. The researcher performed this step in concert with input from peer debriefers, one graduate student and one qualitative researcher with a PhD, to check the work and challenge the researcher on their own awareness of the identified meanings (Carspecken, 1996).

In terms of coding through horizon analysis (Carspecken, 1996), first, the researcher did a careful read of each interview transcription and made brief notes, in the form of adding phrases next to anything that was possibly a theme. Second, with the interview transcript open, the researcher opened a second word processing document and in that document wrote down a code for every item that presented itself as a theme (Carspecken, 1996). While coding, the researcher put an asterisk next to any item that appeared to be a “high-level code” (Carspecken, 1996 p. 148). Third, as part of reconstructive analysis, the researcher conducted a horizon analysis and wrote down if high-level codes were possible “objective; subjective; or normative-evaluative” (p.113) and if the theme was possibly “foregrounded or backgrounded (p.113)” (Carspecken, 1996). Fourth, the researcher provided the potential interpretation of the high-level codings to two peer debriefers for checking. More information about peer debriefing is in the following section.

Peer debriefing. Specifically, in terms of enhancing trustworthiness in coding, the researcher conducted peer debriefing. First, the researcher asked a graduate student,

experienced in qualitative research, to review an interview transcription and the corresponding, proposed codes from one MPU interview and another from an LPU interview. The graduate student was selected because they have also been a long-term employee at LPU and would be more familiar with the overall campus culture than the researcher. Furthermore, the graduate student was the same individual who conducted interviews at MPU for the researcher. Therefore, the graduate student was familiar with the work and could review the interview transcriptions with awareness of the study in mind. As a result of the debriefing, the graduate student suggested including a few additional themes and proposed rewording of other themes.

Second, a PhD, highly experienced in qualitative research, conducted a review of four different interviews and sets of interview transcriptions and coded documents. Two were interviews from MPU and two were interviews from the LPU campus. These four interview transcriptions and draft theme documents were also different sets of interviews than what the other peer reviewer examined. This peer reviewer was asked to examine the researcher's work in coding, horizon analysis, general notation of themes and demarcation of possible high-level codes. The peer review provided insight into the high level coding performed by the researcher and offered feedback to further expand the depth of codings.

Chapter IV

Results

Introduction

This chapter discusses findings divided by research question. An overview of population demographics and variables are described for Large Public University and Medium Private University prior to answering the research questions. Then, findings answering research question one, part one, are presented as results from block-run regressions for each of the two campuses. Qualitative findings across campuses are also presented to answer research question one, part one. For research question one, part two, the combined regression with campus added to the model is also provided. This chapter closes with findings answering research question two in the form of qualitative findings across and within campuses and a summary of findings for both research questions.

Research Question One, Part One Findings

Research question one, part one asked: “What individual influences affect undergraduate likelihood to seek help from the university counseling center for a personal or emotional problem?”

Findings from the MPU, LPU, and interviews are shared in the following section. Additionally, findings from the qualitative analysis of interviews on both campuses are presented.

Population Demographics and Variables for Large Public University

Demographics. In terms of the sample ($N = 226$), the response rate should be considered in terms of the undergraduate campus population of 31,722, from 40,914 cited as the total student population in Fall 2014 Semester (LPU website, n.d.). There was a

22% response rate on the LPU campus⁶. Ethnicity was significantly different in this sample than the population, $\chi^2 (5, N = 226) = 18.47, p > 0.001$. In terms of age in comparison to the population, $\chi^2 (36, N = 207) = 40.46, p < 0.05$, the age of the sample was significantly older than the campus population. The proportion of women completing the survey was significantly different in this sample than in the population, with a $\chi^2 (1, N = 222) = 5.12, p < 0.05$. Additional information about other demographic information are presented below.

Ethnicity. In terms of ethnicity the sample was not representative of the ethnic makeup of the campus population, as seen in Table 2. In particular, there were three factors to note. First, there were 28 (12%) non-citizens who completed the survey, and this was slightly higher than 9% of non-citizens enrolled at the campus. Second, there were more Asian students (29 %) who completed the survey than the overall population, which was 19% Asian. Third, there were 14 multi-racial students who completed the survey at 6%, and this is higher than 3% of multi-racial students enrolled. Overall the sample ethnicity is statistically different than the LPU population.

Age. Additionally, age of respondents was not significantly different than age of the campus population. First- and second-year students (Table 1) make up 49% of respondents while third and fourth-year students account for 43% of survey respondents. Additionally, 8% of respondents are split between their fifth-, sixth- or seventh-year. Enrollment beyond the fourth year is a significant difference as compared with the MPU

⁶ Forty-four percent of respondents completed survey within first week of survey being accessible in the SONA system.

sample.

Gender. Gender of the sample was mostly female, at 80%, with 180 women, 43 men and 3 transgendered individuals. The transgendered individuals were removed from the sample because of the small number of respondents in that given category. Women represented 49% of the total undergraduate population at the time of the study, therefore, the proportion of women completing the survey was significantly higher in this sample than in the population. Women were a large proportion of registrants in SONA population, at 78%, which is not representative of the total enrolled population. Therefore, gender in the sample was significantly different than the campus population. Results should therefore be considered in terms of the significant difference in gender between the respondents and campus population.

Academic enrollment. Academic enrollment information of the sample was slightly different than the general campus trend, with more enrolled full-time students than the general campus population. Research did not run chi square test on academic enrollment because it was not a key variable for study. Of the respondents, 192 were enrolled in 12 or more credits (85%). There were 14% of respondents enrolled at a part-time student status, which is less than the 25% of the general campus population. Similarly the majors of the sample were not representative of the population. This is expected considering majors and courses in which students are enrolled in the SONA population. Natural sciences majors represented 28% of the sample and natural science majors represent 12% of the campus population. Three percent of the sample majored in business and 14% of the campus population major in business. Social Science and Liberal Arts represent 42% and 32% of the campus population major in studies within these two

academic schools. Three percent represented Education majors, which is consistent with the overall population (5%). Overall, the academic makeup of the sample was inconsistent with the overall population, however, as noted, this is not unexpected due to the courses students registered through SONA are generally enrolled in.

Counseling experience variables. In terms of counseling experience 18% ($n = 41$) of the sample attended counseling prior to enrolling in college. In the sample 9% ($n = 20$) accessed campus counseling and out of that group eight had sought counseling prior to college. In addition, 12% of participants reporting being referred to campus counseling by a faculty or staff member and 9% reporting being referred to campus counseling by another student.

Psychological variables. The psychological variables included level of distress, attitude toward seeking help, social provisions, and self-concealment. The Hopkins Symptom Checklist-21 indicated perceived amount of distress felt during the past week and 31% of LPU respondents indicated that respondents felt a marginally high level of distress ($M = -6.775$, $SD = 4.66$). Respondents' attitudes toward seeking help were measured by the Attitude Toward Professional Psychological Help-seeking Scale. Most respondents (59%) indicated a positive attitude toward seeking help ($M = 2.40$, $SD = 5.80$). Social provisions as measured by the Social Provisions Scale considered how inclined one was to access another person for support. Of LPU respondents, 10% felt as though they had low levels of Social Provisions while a majority of respondents (69%) had more than adequate levels of social support ($M = 5.58$, $SD = 4.16$). Finally, 42% of respondents indicated they had a high rate of Self-Concealment and would rather not disclose personal information to someone else ($M = -1.17$, $SD = 8.75$).

Significant Findings from Block-run Regression for Large Public University

The results of the linear regression suggested that all blocks are significant (Table 5) (Block 1 $F(14,185) = 4.76, p < .001$, Block 2 $F(4,181) = 6.25, p < .001$, Block 3 $F(10,171) = 5.49, p < .01$.) The value of R^2 for Block 1 was .265 (Table 6), which indicated that together demographic and counseling experience factors accounted for 26% of the variation in likelihood to seek help on campus. In Block 2, R^2 was .383 (Table 6), which indicated that together demographic, counseling experience and psychological factor variables accounted for 38% of the variation in likelihood to seek help on campus. Therefore, the addition of psychological factors increased the variance accounted for in the block by 12 percentage points greater than demographic variables alone. Lastly, for Block 3, R^2 was .473, suggesting that interaction effects alone account for 9% of the variation in likelihood to seek assistance on campus.

Table 5

Summary of Analysis of Variance for the Prediction of Likelihood to Seek Help on Large Public University Campus

Block	SS	df	M^2	F
1 Demographic variables	44.07	14	3.14	4.76***
2 Demographic variables and Psychological factors	63.84	18	3.55	6.25***
3 Interaction effects	78.83	28	2.82	5.49**

Note. N = 226. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. Block 1 demographics measured by self-report Likert scale items. Block 2 demographics and psychological factors measured Distress by Hopkins 21, Attitude measured by Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale, Social Provisions measured by Social Provisions Scale and Self-concealment measured by Self-concealment Scale.

Table 6

Block-Run Linear Regression Predicting Likelihood of Seeking Help on Large Public University Campus

Predictor	Demographics			Psychological factors			Interaction Effects		
	R ²	ΔR ²	SE	R ²	ΔR ²	SE	R ²	ΔR ²	SE
Step 1	.265***	.265***	.814						
^a Control variables									
Step 2				.383***	.119***	.753			
^b Control variables									
Step 3							.473***	.090***	.716
^c Control variables									

Note. aControl variables included ethnicity, age, gender, GPA, pre-college counseling, previous campus counseling, current campus counseling, faculty and staff referral, peer referral.

bControl variables included ethnicity, age, gender, GPA, pre-college counseling, previous campus counseling, current campus counseling, faculty and staff referral, peer referral, distress, attitudes toward counseling, social provisions and self-concealment.

cControl variables included ethnicity, citizenship, age, gender, GPA, pre-college counseling, previous campus counseling, current campus counseling, faculty and staff referral, peer referral, distress, attitudes toward counseling, social provisions and self-concealment, Socprov x selfcon, Att x precoll, Att x gender, Att x selfcon, Att x prevcamp, Att x curr coun, Selfcon x dist, Att x dist, Socprov x dist, Att x age, Att x GPA.

Demographic and counseling experience variables. Variables accounted for the interaction effects of demographic characteristics, help seeking experience, and psychological factors. Gender has a significant negative relationship ($b = -.192$, $p < .05$) with likelihood to seek help on campus, suggesting that men were less likely to seek help on campus as compared to women. Hours enrolled had a significant positive relationship ($b = .484$, $p < .001$) with likelihood to seek help on campus, suggesting that student enrolled in more hours are more likely to seek help than those enrolled in fewer credit hours. Although, grade point average had a significant negative relationship with likelihood to seek help in Block 1, this variable does not have a significant relationship

with the independent variable in the full, block-run regression. Finally, although not significant in the full, block-run regression, in Block 1, referrals to campus counseling from another student (peer referral) had a significant positive relationship ($b = .138$, $p < .05$) with likelihood to access help on the campus, suggesting that if a peer referrals was correlated with greater likelihood to seek help on campus at a future time. Understanding why peer referrals was not significant in the full, block-run regression is worth examining further. Finally, current campus counseling had a significant positive relationship ($b = .841$, $p < .05$) with likelihood to access help on the campus, suggesting that if a student was currently accessing counseling on campus than the individual has a greater likelihood to seek help on campus at a future time. Current counseling had a significant positive relationship with likelihood to seek help across Block 1 ($b = .156$, $p < .05$) and Block 2 ($b = .371$, $p < .05$).

Ethnicity variables. In terms of ethnicity, there are many significant relationships with the independent variable. First, Asian American students, when compared to White students, had a significant positive relationship ($b = .301$, $p < .01$) with likelihood to access help from a counselor on campus, suggesting that Asian American students were more likely to seek psychological assistance on campus. Second, African American students as compared to White students had a significant negative relationship ($b = -.550$, $p < .001$) with likelihood to access help from a counselor on campus, suggesting that African American students were less likely to access help from a counselor on campus. Third, Hispanic students as compared to White students had a significant positive relationship ($b = .277$, $p < .01$) with likelihood to access help from a counselor on campus, suggesting that Hispanic students were more likely to seek psychological

assistance on campus.

Psychological variables. Psychological variables included distress, attitude toward seeking psychological help, social provisions, and self-concealment. First, distress had a significant positive relationship ($b = 2.586, p < .001$) with likelihood to seek help on campus, suggesting that students with greater degrees of distress were more likely to seek help on the campus. Second, attitude toward psychological help-seeking had a significant positive relationship ($b = 5.506, p < .001$) with likelihood to seek help on campus. This finding suggests that students with a positive attitude toward seeking help are more inclined to access counseling on the campus. Third, social provisions had a significant negative relationship ($b = -1.643, p < .001$) with likelihood to access professional counseling on campus, suggesting that students who have more established social connections are less likely to utilize counseling services on the campus. Fourth, self-concealment had a significant negative relationship ($b = -2.207, p < .001$) with likelihood to access professional counseling on campus. This finding suggests that students who have higher levels of self-concealment are less likely to utilize counseling services on campus.

Interaction effects. The interaction effects suggested there were numerous interactions with attitude toward seeking help and other variables. First, attitude and gender had a significant positive relationship ($b = 1.430, p < .001$) with likelihood to access professional counseling on campus, suggested that considering attitude toward help-seeking and gender together students were more likely to seek help at the campus counseling center. Second, attitude and grade point average had a significant negative relationship ($b = -6.825, p < .001$) with likelihood to access campus counseling on

campus. This finding suggested that considering positive attitude toward help-seeking and high grade point average together students were less likely to seek help at counseling center. Third, attitude and self-concealment had a significant negative relationship ($b = -.247, p < .05$) with likelihood to access professional counseling on campus, suggested that considering positive attitude toward help-seeking and high self-concealment together students were less likely to seek help. Lastly, in terms of interaction effects with attitude toward seeking help, attitude and previous campus counseling had a significant positive relationship ($b = .506, p < .01$) with likelihood to access professional counseling on campus, suggested that considering attitude toward help-seeking and gender together, female students were more likely to seek help at the campus counseling center.

There are additional interaction effects involving the interaction of psychological factors. First, social provisions and distress had a significant negative relationship ($b = -3.949, p < .001$) with likelihood to access counseling on campus. This finding suggested that considering social connectedness and distress together students were less likely to seek help on campus. Second, social provisions and self-concealment had a significant positive relationship ($b = 1.773, p < .001$) with likelihood to access professional counseling on campus, suggested that considering social provisions and self-concealment together students were more likely to seek help at the campus counseling center. Third, self-concealment and distress had a significant negative relationship ($b = -1.553, p < .001$) with likelihood to access professional counseling on campus. This finding suggested that considering self-concealment and distress together students were less likely to seek help at the campus counseling center.

Table 7

Summary of Block-run Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Likelihood to Seek-Help at Large Public University Campus

Variable	Block 1			Block 2			Block 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Age	-.011	.025	-.003	-.024	.023	-.068	.036	.026	.102
Gender	.172	.150	.074	.067	.143	.029	-.443	.171	-.192*
Hours Enrolled	.004	.021	.014	.023	.020	.082	.138	.030	.484***
GPA	-.148	.107	-.093	-.218	.100	-.137*	.007	.122	.004
Pre-college counseling	.524	.168	.221**	.269	.165	.114	.106	.263	.045
Previous campus counseling	.777	.262	.242**	.724	.243	.225**	-.674	.420	-.210
Current campus counseling	.969	.464	.156*	1.06	.435	.171*	5.210	.990	.841***
Faculty/Staff referral	.072	.208	.025	-.001	.196	.000	.151	.195	.053
Peer referral	.432	.218	.138*	.277	.206	.088	-.261	.227	-.083
Asian	.085	.165	.042	.128	.155	.063	.608	.181	.301**
African American	.123	.226	.038	.205	.211	.064	-1.77	.460	-.550***
Hispanic	.227	.163	.108	.107	.153	.051	.583	.182	.277**
Non res alien	.001	.181	.000	-.021	.168	-.008	-.123	.172	-.044
Two Races	-.040	.264	-.011	-.305	.250	-.080	-.228	.243	-.060
Distress				.203	.157	.103	5.071	1.104	2.586***
Attitude				.484	.111	.307***	8.66	2.000	5.506***
Social Provisions				.008	.152	.004	-3.613	.884	-1.643***
Self-Concealment				-.260	.080	-.249**	-2.307	.469	-2.207***
Att x gender							1.198	.299	1.430***
Att x gpa							-3.178	.673	-6.825***
Att x dist							-.208	.143	-.141
Att x selfcon							-.379	.128	-.247*
Att x precoll							.248	.321	.089
Att x prevcamp							1.896	.550	.506**
Att x currcon							-1.377	.760	-.168
Socprov x dist							-7.696	1.78	-3.949***
Socprov x selfcon							1.779	.408	1.773***
Selfcon x dist							-2.093	.462	-1.553***
R^2	.265***			.383***			.473**		
F for change in R^2	.476***					0.871			0.292

N= 226. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Population Demographics and Variables for Medium Private University

Demographics. The sample (N = 145) had an 18% response rate,⁷ and findings suggested ethnicity and academic components were similar to the population but that age and gender were significantly different. For ethnicity $\chi^2(5, N = 900) = 6.55, p = > 0.05$. However in terms of age in comparison to the population, $\chi^2(4, N = 900) = 65.10, p < 0.05$, the age of the sample was significantly older than the population. Additionally, the proportion of women completing the survey was significantly different in this sample than in the population, $\chi^2(1, N = 900) = 22.26, p < 0.05$. Additional information about other demographic variables are presented below.

Ethnicity. In terms of ethnicity the sample was representative of the ethnic breakdown of the campus population, as seen in Table 3. In particular, there were two factors to note. First, there were seven non-citizens who completed the survey, at 5%, and this was slightly lower than 11% of non-citizens enrolled at the campus. Second, there were more white students (48%) who completed the survey than the overall population, which was 41% White. Overall, the sample ethnicity is not statistically different than the population.

Age. A majority of MPU participants, at 57%, were first and second year students at (Table 3). Fifty percent of enrolled students were in their first or second year at MPU. Therefore, enrollment term, which is closely related to age, is not significantly different than the overall MPU population.

⁷ Fifty-five percent of respondents completed survey within two days after receipt of survey invitation. Thirty percent of respondents completed the survey the day of the first reminder.

Gender. Gender of the sample was mostly female, at 69%, with 100 women and 45 men. Women represented 49% of the total undergraduate population at the time of the study. Therefore, results should be considered in terms of the significant difference in gender between the respondents and campus population.

Academic enrollment. Academic enrollment information of the sample was consistent with general campus trends. Of the respondents, 140 were enrolled in more than 12 credits but fewer than 20 credit hours. Credits complete were also consistent with what was expected of a majority of first- and second-year respondents with 104 students completing fewer than 100 credits. Similarly the majors of the sample were representative of the population. Together engineering and natural sciences majors represented 60% of the sample and 33% indicated a course of study in social sciences and 13% in the humanities. Three percent of the sample majored in music or architecture. The academic makeup of the sample was consistent with the overall population.

Counseling experience variables. In terms of counseling experience 17% (n = 25) of the sample attended counseling prior to enrolling in college. In the sample 4% (n = 7) accessed campus counseling and out of that group eight had sought counseling prior to college. In addition, 10% of participants reporting being referred to campus counseling by a faculty or staff member and 14% reporting being referred to campus counseling by another student.

Psychological variables. The psychological variables included level of distress, attitude toward seeking help, social provisions and self-concealment. The psychological distress scale indicated perceived amount of distress felt during the past week and 29% of respondents indicated that they felt a marginally high level of distress ($M = -.16.13$, $SD =$

8.95). Attitude toward seeking help was measured by the Attitude Toward Professional Psychological Help-seeking Scale (Fischer & Farina, 1995). Most respondents indicated a positive attitude toward seeking help at 57% ($M = 1.56$, $SD = 5.78$). Social provisions were measured by the Social Provisions Scale (Cutrona & Russell, 1987) and considered how inclined one was to access others for support. Of the respondents, 21% felt as though they had low levels of social support while a majority (69%) of respondents indicated adequate levels of social support ($M = 7.52$, $SD = 6.97$). Lastly, 61% of respondents indicated they had a high rate of Self-Concealment (Kelly & Achter, 1995) and would rather not disclose personal information to someone else ($M = -3.09$, $SD = 8.64$).

Significant Findings from Block-run Regression for Medium Private University

The next section includes significant findings for the block-run regression for MPU. First, summary of findings are provided. Second, findings associated with each regression are presented. Finally, interaction effects are discussed in the last section.

The results of the MPU linear regression suggested that all blocks are significant (Table 8) (Block 1 $F(14,119) = 3.23$, $p < .001$, Block 2 $F(18,115) = 6.32$, $p < .001$, Block 3 $F(29,104) = 6.67$, $p < .001$.) The value of R^2 for Block 1 was .275 (Table 9), which indicated that demographic and counseling experience factors accounted for 28% of the variation in likelihood to seek help on campus. R^2 for Block 2 was .497 (Table 9), which indicated that demographic, counseling experience and psychological variables accounted for 50% of the variation in likelihood to seek help on campus when compared with Block 1 with the addition of psychological factors accounting for 28%. Lastly, R^2 for Block 3 was .650, suggesting that interaction effects alone account for 15% of the variation in likelihood to seek assistance on campus.

Table 8

Summary of Analysis of Variance for the Prediction of Likelihood to Seek Help at Medium Private University Campus

Block	SS	df	M ²	F
1 Demographic variables	31.36	14	2.24	3.23***
2 Demographic variables and Psychological factors	56.72	18	3.15	6.32***
3 Demographic variables, Psychological factors and Interaction effects	74.17	29	2.56	6.67***

Note. N = 145. **p <.01. ***p <.001. Block 1 demographics measured by self-report Likert scale items. Block 2 demographics and psychological factors measured Distress by Hopkins 21, Attitude measured by Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale, Social Provisions measured by Social Provisions Scale and Self-concealment measured by Self-concealment Scale.

Table 9

Block-Run Linear Regression Predicting Likelihood of Seeking Help at Medium Private University Campus

Predictor	Demographics			Psychological factors			Interaction Effects		
	R ²	ΔR ²	SE	R ²	ΔR ²	SE	R ²	ΔR ²	SE
Step 1	.275***	.275***	.8331						
^a Control variables									
Step 2				.497***	.222***	.706			
^b Control variables									
Step 3							.650***	.153***	.619
^c Control variables									

Note. aControl variables included ethnicity, age, gender, GPA, pre-college counseling, previous campus counseling, current campus counseling, faculty and staff referral, peer referral.

bControl variables included ethnicity, age, gender, GPA, pre-college counseling, previous campus counseling, current campus counseling, faculty and staff referral, peer referral, distress, attitudes toward counseling, social provisions and self-concealment.

cControl variables included ethnicity, citizenship, age, gender, GPA, pre-college counseling, previous campus counseling, current campus counseling, faculty and staff referral, peer referral, distress, attitudes toward counseling, social provisions and self-concealment, Socprov x selfcon, Att x precoll, Att x gender, Att x selfcon, Att x prevcamp, Att x curr coun, Selfcon x dist, Att x dist, Socprov x dist, Att x age, Att x GPA.

Demographics and counseling experience variables. Variables in the full-block included interaction effects, demographics, help seeking experience, and psychological factors. Findings suggest that hours enrolled had a significant negative relationship ($b = -.144$, $p < .05$) with likelihood to seek help on campus, suggesting that enrollment in more credit hours was correlated with lower likelihood to seek help on campus. Additionally, although not significant in the full-block, previous counseling experience had a significant positive relationship with likelihood to seek help in Block 1 ($b = .302$, $p < .01$) and in Block 2 ($b = .199$, $p < .001$)

Additionally, hours enrolled also had a significant negative relationship with

likelihood to seek help. In Block 1, hours enrolled had a significant negative relationship ($b = -.173$, $p < .05$) with likelihood to seek help on campus. Also in Block 2, hours enrolled had a significant negative relationship ($b = -.170$, $p < .05$) with likelihood to seek help on campus, suggesting that enrollment in more credit hours was correlated with lower likelihood to seek help on campus.

Grade point average also had a significant positive relationship ($b = 4.762$, $p < .001$) with likelihood to access help on campus, suggesting that higher grade point average was correlated with greater likelihood to seek help on campus. Current campus counseling had a significant positive relationship ($b = .547$, $p < .001$) with likelihood to seek psychological assistance on campus, suggesting that these students actively seeking help at the time of the survey was more likely to seek help on campus.

Relationships between ethnicity and likelihood to see psychological assistance were also found. African American ethnicity as compared to White students had a significant positive relationship ($b = .265$, $p < .01$) with likelihood to seek psychological assistance on campus, suggesting that African Americans were more likely to seek help on campus. Additionally, Hispanic students, as compared to White students, also had a significant positive relationship ($b = .166$, $p < .05$) with likelihood to seek psychological assistance on campus, suggesting that Hispanic students were more likely to access help on campus. Non-resident students, as compared to White students, had a significant positive relationship ($b = .145$, $p < .05$) with likelihood to seek psychological assistance on campus, and the full regression suggested that Non-residents ($n = 7$) were more likely to seek help on campus for a personal or emotional problem.

Psychological variables. All psychological factors had a significant relationship

with likelihood to seek help. For instance, level of distress had a significant positive relationship ($b = .375, p < .01$) with likelihood to seek psychological assistance on campus, suggesting that students who experienced greater distress were more likely to seek help on campus. Attitude toward seeking assistance from a counselor had a significant positive relationship ($b = .724, p < .001$) with likelihood to seek psychological assistance on campus, suggesting that students with more positive attitudes were more likely to access help at the counseling center on the campus. Attitude toward seeking assistance from a counselor also had a significant positive relationship ($b = .542, p < .001$) with likelihood to seek psychological assistance on campus in Block 1. Social provisions had a significant negative relationship ($b = -.186, p < .01$) with likelihood to seek psychological assistance on campus, suggesting that students with more robust networks of social support were less likely to seek help on campus. Lastly, levels of self-concealment had a significant negative relationship ($b = -.603, p < .01$) with likelihood to seek psychological assistance on campus, suggesting that students who have higher levels of self-concealment are less likely to utilize counseling services on campus. Additionally, in Block 2, self-concealment also had a significant negative relationship ($b = -.185, p < .001$) with likelihood to seek psychological assistance on campus.

Interaction effects. The interaction effects suggested that attitude and age had a significant positive interactive relationship ($b = 3.087, p < .001$) with likelihood to seek psychological assistance on campus, suggesting that considering age and attitude together students were more likely to seek help on campus. In particular, this finding suggested that older students who had a positive attitude toward help seeking were more likely to seek assistance on campus. Interaction effects also suggest that attitude and GPA had a

significant negative relationship ($b = -5.934$, $p < .001$) with likelihood to seek counseling assistance on campus, suggesting that students with more positive attitudes toward seeking help and a higher grade point average were less likely to seek help on campus. In addition, attitude and self-concealment had a significant negative relationship ($b = -.260$, $p < .05$) with likelihood to seek counseling assistance on campus, suggesting that considered together, students with positive attitude and higher levels of self-concealment were less likely to access help. Another finding suggested that attitude and current counseling had a significant positive relationship ($b = .478$, $p < .001$) with likelihood to seek psychological assistance on campus, suggesting that students with more positive attitudes toward seeking help and those currently accessing services were more likely to use counseling services. Lastly, social provisions and distress had a significant negative relationship ($b = -.188$, $p < .05$) with likelihood to seek counseling assistance on campus, suggesting that higher levels of social provisions and greater distress levels together were associated with less likelihood to access help.

Table 10

Summary of Block-run Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Likelihood to Seek-Help at Medium Private University Campus

Variable	Block 1			Block 2			Block 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Gender	0.064	0.166	0.032	0.194	0.142	0.097	0.310	0.162	0.155
Age	-0.060	0.068	-0.075	-0.106	0.059	-0.133	0.142	0.073	0.178
Hours Enrolled	-0.065	0.031	-0.173*	-0.064	0.027	-0.170*	-0.054	0.025	-0.144*
GPA	0.008	0.010	0.068	-0.001	0.009	-0.012	0.562	0.104	4.762***
Pre-college counseling	0.262	0.203	0.107	-0.100	0.182	-0.041	-0.340	0.206	-0.139
Previous campus counseling	0.716	0.248	0.302*	0.471	0.220	0.199*	-0.034	0.284	-0.015
Current campus counseling	0.347	0.386	0.081	0.364	0.337	0.085	2.357	0.547	0.547***
Faculty/Staff referral	-0.013	0.074	-0.016	-0.032	0.064	-0.039	-0.007	0.058	-0.009
Peer referral	0.175	0.235	0.066	0.178	0.204	0.067	0.316	0.197	0.118
Asian	-0.351	0.212	-0.150	0.079	0.191	0.034	-0.119	0.177	-0.051
African American	-0.712	0.299	-0.196*	-0.101	0.290	-0.028	0.963	0.318	0.265**
Hispanic	-0.114	0.212	-0.045	0.039	0.184	0.015	0.420	0.176	0.166*
Non res alien	0.102	0.350	0.024	0.463	0.301	0.108	0.623	0.269	0.145*
Two Races	-0.335	0.336	-0.083	-0.177	0.296	-0.044	-0.118	0.271	-0.029
Distress				0.012	0.010	0.115	0.039	0.013	0.375**
Attitude				0.087	0.013	0.542***	0.116	0.013	0.724***
Social Provisions				-0.011	0.010	-0.081	-0.025	0.009	-0.186**
Self-Concealment				-0.020	0.009	-0.185*	-0.065	0.018	-0.603**
Att x age							0.052	0.010	3.087***
Att x gender							-0.075	0.057	-0.110
Att x gpa							-0.280	0.052	-5.934***
Att x dist							0.004	0.003	0.194
Att x selfcon							-0.009	0.004	-0.260*
Att x precoll							-0.054	0.060	-0.078
Att x prevcamp							-0.048	0.063	-0.084
Att x currcon							0.963	0.239	0.478***
Socprov x dist							-0.004	0.002	-0.188*
Socprov x selfcon							0.001	0.003	0.038
Selfcon x dist							-0.001	0.001	-0.145
R^2	.275***			.497***			.650***		
F for change in R^2	.275***					0.222			0.153

N = 145. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Summary of Findings from Block-run Regression for Medium Private University and Large Public University

Overall, there are significant findings across all types of variables on both campuses. Demographic variables, counseling experience, psychological factors and interaction effects all provide results for answering research question one, part one. Additional findings associated with qualitative data for each individual campus and across both campuses are presented in the following section.

Overview of Qualitative Results Medium Private University and Large Public University

The following section presents qualitative findings that address research question one, part one. First, an overview of findings within each campus is presented. Second, findings across campuses related to individual differences, demographics and counseling experience are discussed. Institutional differences emerge in the next section associated with answering research question one, part two.

An overview of participant demographics by campus are included in Table 11:

Table 11

List of interview participants at Large Public University and Medium Private University using pseudonyms

Large Public University (LPU)	Gender	Enrollment year	Ethnicity/Race	Age	Grade Point Average	Major
Aaron	M	Third-year	Asian, non-Hispanic	19	3.5	Biochemistry
Adam	M	Second-year	Asian, non-Hispanic	21	3.1	Nutrition
Adeline	F	Second-year	White, non-Hispanic; Lebanese	19	3.2	Psychology
Andre	M	More than six years	White, non-Hispanic	32	2.5	Biology/Chinese
Annette	F	Fourth-year	White, non-Hispanic	22	3.8	Anthropology
Medium Private University (MPU)	Gender	Enrollment year	Ethnicity/Race	Age	Grade Point Average	Major
Bahula	F	First-year	Asian, non-Hispanic (Non-citizen)	18	4.23	Psychology
Beatrice	F	Fourth-year	Two races; Hispanic and White	21	2.71	English
Brayden	M	Fourth-year	White, non-Hispanic	22	3.72	Materials Science
Brittney	F	Second-year	White, non-Hispanic	20	3.78	Cognitive Science
Bryce	M	Second-year	Hispanic	19	3.75	Electrical and Computer Engineering

Note. * N = 10. Institution and participant names have been changed in order to protect confidentiality.

Overview of Results from MPU. There were five interview participants at MPU.

Participants completed an Intake Form that included demographic information and the Sense of Belonging and Attitude Toward Seeking Help instruments. There were three women and two men; two participants were White, one identified as Two-or-more races, one was Asian, one was Hispanic, and one was a non-citizen. There were two fourth-year students, two second-year students and one first-year student. Participant ages ranged from 18 to 22 years of age. The majors represented were English, Cognitive Sciences,

Materials Science, Computer and Electrical Engineering, and Psychology. Grade point averages of participants ranged between 2.71 and 4.23.

Attitude toward seeking help was reflected in responses to the Attitude Toward Seeking Professional Help Scale (Fischer & Farina, 1995) on the Intake Form. Participant responses suggested a moderately positive attitude toward seeking help with a mean score of 3.4 out of 5. Three participants also indicated they would at least be somewhat likely to seek help in the future at the campus counseling center and two indicated they would be likely to seek help on campus in the future.

Finally, sense of belonging was reflected in the Intake Form through Bollen and Hoyle's (1990) scale. The scale utilized was a 5-point Likert-type scale and responses suggested that participant sense of belonging on the campus ranged from low levels to quite strong levels, with aggregate responses ranging from 2.3 to 5 on the scale. There was one outlier with a score of 2.00 for sense of belonging on the campus. The mean score 4.06 and that suggested most participants were more likely than not to feel connected on the campus.

Overview of results from LPU. Five participants from LPU took part in the interview and completed the Intake Form. Participant attitudes toward seeking help were reflected in responses to the Attitude Toward Seeking Professional Help Scale (Fischer & Farina, 1995). Responses suggested a moderately positive attitude toward seeking help with a mean score of 3.3 out of 5, with a range between 2.8 and 4.3. Two participants indicated they would be unlikely to seek help on campus in the future, one suggested they would be somewhat likely, one indicated they would be likely to do so and one was extremely likely to seek help in the future at the campus counseling center.

Additionally, responses to the Sense of Belonging scale (Bollen & Hoyle, 1990) suggested that participant sense of belonging on the campus ranged from low levels to quite strong levels, with aggregate responses ranging from 3.0 to 4.7. The mean score 4.0 and that suggested participants were more likely than not to feel like they belonged on the campus.

Individual Influences Affecting Help-seeking

Four interviewee participants across the two campuses noted that the decision to seek help is quite individualized and dependent on the person and that person's perception of current circumstances. These participants commented on the personal differences associated with an individual's choice of seeking out professional counseling. More information about these individual differences and thematic categories associated with these personal differences are described below.

Gender influences help-seeking. Bryce from MPU was the only participant who noted anything different between how men and women go about accessing help. According to Bryce, women are more likely to want to seek help. He commented that women "have friends that they can talk about things on an emotional level with or go seek help." He noted that men "don't talk feelings quite frequently."

Feelings of distress. The general consensus among interviewees from both campuses is that individuals experiencing some sort of crisis, or immediate issue, were likely to at some point consider accessing counseling. Interviewees from both campuses reiterated that they would access a counselor if they could not resolve a persistent issue. Some participants across campuses noted they would be inclined to seek that help early

and often. Others, however, noted they believed they would ask for help but it would not be an immediate action on their part.

For students more likely to recognize a need to seek help at an early point. For Bahula, also at MPU, “[counselors] can probably give you pretty good advice about how to deal with situations that are heavy and making... causing a burden.” Bahula also agreed with Beatrice when she said there is value in “having an adult perspective...like [a] more experienced person.” Annette at LPU commented that she experienced this personally:

For about a little bit under a year [friend’s suicide] really bothered me. Um, that semester, the classes I was in it was really weird because suicide came up in like every single class. Even classes you didn’t think it would come in... come up in. It did. So I mean I probably should have gone and talked to someone. I should have probably done a medical withdrawal because I... I stayed in my bed for a couple of months.

Bryce also reflected that he “was talking to my parents and they weren’t being particularly helpful. Um, so I did see a counselor for a short period of time there, and um, and that sort of helped me resolve some of my issues.”

Alternatively, some students talked about not being as apt to seek out help early on. For instance, Beatrice at MPU acknowledged her strong feeling that:

I finally just kind of cracked and was like, I have to talk to someone about this that [who] isn’t also eighteen. And so I just kind of forced myself to go even though I wasn’t entirely comfortable with the idea.

For Aaron at LPU, “if it was a long term thing, I would probably seek help, but for short term issues I probably wouldn’t because I would feel as if it’s solvable in that timeframe.”

Additionally, Brayden stated:

I mean as of right now, you know, I don’t think that there’s anything that I feel like I need to see a counselor about. And I would really hope that if there was, that I would see it and I would go and see a counselor. You know, I would, I think, be really willing to do that.

These findings suggest that there are differences of perspectives across campuses related to the manner in which students handle distress.

General attitudes toward help-seeking. In terms of formal sources of help, five out of the ten interviewees across campuses noted there was a distinct, valuable purpose for accessing a professional counselor. Interviewees suggested there was an appreciation in having someone with training and more years of experience to speak with about a problem. More MPU students reflected this perspective than LPU students. Beatrice at MPU claimed there was a desire to talk with someone who “isn’t also 18.” Bahula also stated that there is no need to work through things alone and it was appealing to talk to “a more experienced person.” Bahula also commented that she “tend[s] to consult other people regarding [emotional and academic issues]...quite often...you need someone who can empathize with you when it comes to the emotions.”

Two interviewees, one from each campus, also discussed their experiences before attending college that involved mental health concerns of loved ones. The participants considered these experiences as relatively instrumental in terms of personal perceptions of formal help-seeking. Adam indicated he was required to attend a counseling session

before college as part of his parent's divorce proceedings. In Adam's case, counseling was not something he felt was useful, "[because the staff] kept asking me questions that weren't really something that struck my mind." For Brittney from MPU, she commented that: "I know people in my own family who should have gone to counseling years ago for certain things and never did so that kind of formed my attitudes about accepting help when you need it. Most people don't."

Preference to use personal networks for assistance. Eight participants across the two campuses discussed the fact that they would access friends or family to get assistance for a problem. These participants noted that talking to friends and family members would likely be the first step taken to work toward a resolution of a problem. For example, Andre, from LPU, stated that his family is "invested in his life," so he would utilize them when he needed help. Bahula noted that her "first line of defense is usually [her] mom." Adam, also from LPU, indicated he would talk to people in his personal life to resolve issues. The consensus across LPU and MPU was that family and friends were groups of individuals to whom participants could go for assistance when they had a problem in their life.

Familial influence on seeking help. Interviewees from both campuses spoke about the influence family have on their own perceptions of help-seeking. Two of the interviewees, one from each campus, also spoke about family influence from a cultural perspective, noting that the overall perception of their families on seeking help is influential in their decision-making around working with a counselor. Adeline from LPU stated that:

If your parents say psychology is like useless, they're going to think that it's useless and possibly teach that to their kids. And it's just going to keep going. But would you rather say it's useless or would you rather your kid be happy after going?

Bahula from MPU also stated that "family background... the thinking that [students] grew up with, the prospective that they have about counseling in general" plays a part in seeking help as an adult.

Open with personal network, but closed off to everyone at a certain point. There was a stark difference between talking informally to a friend or family member and to talking to a counselor about a problem. This finding presented itself across campuses. At MPU, Bryce commented: "it's harder to go and ask questions about like well, I'm having a problem, right. It's easier to talk about someone else's problem or how that affects you."

Andre from LPU stated he was not opposed to talking with a counselor if he were faced with an ongoing issue. He also stated, however, that for:

Personal issues I think would be like, probably like the most difficult because they would be like, I've never dealt with this before. Like I'm really embarrassed to have to try to figure this out. I don't know who I want to talk to. I don't want to talk to my friends about it because if I talk to my friends about it, they might not be my friends anymore.

Ultimately, there were situations Andre indicated he would not want to talk to anyone about, even though he commented on how he had a strong, active personal network. For instance, if he was "struggling in this class, I'm failing, I don't want people to know I'm failing. So therefore I'm not going to share with you that I'm doing bad. I'm just going to

say I'm doing fine. I'm good." Andre described himself as open and willing to talk to his close friends and his family, yet he had reservations about discussing academic failure even with his personal network of supporters. It is also worth noting that Andre was the only participant on either campus required to attend a counseling session during college. Andre was required to attend counseling because he returned to LPU with stipulations based on his academic standing.

An additional issue concern brought up by two LPU interviewees was the reality that it is difficult to open up to a stranger to ask for help. Adeline commented that she goes to someone in her family when she is struggling. She indicated she would not be likely to access an external person because "it's hard to let somebody into that. Especially some strangers because typically you don't know the person that you're going to go see." Additionally, Aaron talked about the challenge involved in talking to an individual one does not already know, "so if it was someone that they already know, it would be a lot more easier." Both participants suggested it is especially difficult to utilize an individual external to their situation and their life.

Helping friends involves listening, not a mental health referral. Overall, interviewees from LPU and MPU discussed steps they have taken to support friends. Six interviewees talked about the importance of listening to their friends, being approachable and being a presence so their friend did not feel alone. Serving as a sounding board for a friend during a difficult time was something the majority of interviewees embraced as part of their role. In particular, for Bahula, her "average Friday night is at least like two hours of listening to someone."

However, as an interesting contrast, Adam was the one interviewee who stated that he has never had a friend who needed help. Adam shared that “usually [his] friendships don’t usually last more than a year.” This participant was an outlier in terms of not being aware of any friends who have needed help. The interviewee stated that his friendships do not last long and that was why he was unaware of friends needing assistance.

In terms of the friendship role and responsibilities, three interviewees, one from LPU and two from MPU, noted that they felt it was more of a responsibility for them to help support friends in need. Beatrice, from MPU, stated she has met with a counselor on her campus in the past, shared that she has talked about her own process with other students so they know “that I’ve gotten help and it’s amazing that maybe someone else can get relief.” Brayden also stated that he wanted to improve his ability to be helpful for a friend who was struggling with depression. In fact, Brayden stated he intended to access the counseling center on his campus to learn how he could best support a friend. Brayden described this process as his way of making an “indirect request for, not help, but just understanding, being on the same page.” Aaron felt that for “emotional issues more people are willing to go to close friends.”

Sometimes contacting the professionals is the way to help a friend. One interviewee at LPU noted that family and friends could not help with everything and there was a purpose for the professionals. For Annette from LPU, a crisis affected her functioning and she now knows how important it is to seek assistance early and often to gain personal support and assistance for others. Annette also indicated that she

recognized her own lack of skill in terms of her ability to manage a situation of that gravity. Annette:

I don't think you're going to do something [like harm yourself], but you're going [to the counseling office at LPU]. Like, I'm not making that mistake of thinking it's okay, let's go tomorrow morning and meet [at counseling office]...So I don't... I don't know if what I did was right. I don't know if there's something better I could have done.

More at MPU than LPU, there was a belief that counseling professionals could offer a new perspective for the struggling individual. Most of the interviewees from MPU explained that formal counseling providers serve a role. Primarily these interviewees suggested they would be inclined to access formal services because of the perceived value in speaking with someone with more years of experience and a professional context in which to interpret concerns. Brayden:

I never really know how... I never know what I should do. You know, and I don't know, you know, what the best way to try to help or if I should try to help or if I should just...So I've been meaning to go to the counseling center just to ask that question in terms of what I should do.

In addition to these perspectives, a background element of this theme is that there is a limit to what peers can and should do to help their friends. Beatrice suggested that students should be made aware of the benefits of talking through their concerns with a professional counselor. For Beatrice:

If friends can't help you with it then a professional is someone that you should speak to. Especially when we're on campus and it's here and it's free, and we also

have a psychiatrist and it's here and it's free. And so like if something is wrong just handle it now before it becomes something larger and you have to pay for it in ten years.

Summary of Findings

Results for research question one, part one suggest, in general, individual differences contribute significantly to findings. In terms of demographics and counseling experience, at Large Public University gender, hours enrolled, current counseling, and identifying as Asian, African American, or Hispanic all had significant relationships with likelihood to seek help on campus. At Medium Private University, hours enrolled, grade point average, current counseling and identifying as African American, Hispanic or a Non-citizen all had significant relationships with likelihood to seek help on campus.

There were also significant findings in psychological variables. On both campuses, distress levels, attitude toward seeking psychological assistance, and the interaction of individual differences and psychological factors account for most significant findings. Qualitative findings from both campuses also suggested that feelings of distress encouraged students to seek assistance at the counseling center.

Additionally, from qualitative findings on both campuses, students had a positive attitude toward seeking help and also had an inclination to seek assistance from personal connections instead of from professional counselors. Findings from research question one, part two will be examined in the following section.

Research Question One, Part Two Findings

Research question one, part two asked: "How does that influence vary across campuses?" An explanation of findings is presented in the following section. To answer

the second part of the first research question, the researcher ran a linear regression with the full data set and assigned the LPU campus as reference for the dummy variable called “campus.” Additionally, the researcher analyzed interviews to determine what, if any, differences existed between campuses.

Variables in the combined regression accounted for demographic characteristics and help seeking experience, membership at the university campus, psychological factors, and interaction effects. First, demographics and help-seeking experience will be outlined. Second, findings related to psychological factors will be described. Third, results from the campus variable will be presented. Fourth, interaction effects associated with the LPU campus will be discussed. An explanation of findings is provided in the following sections.

Significant Findings from Regression for Combined Campuses

The results of the linear regression suggested that the block does significantly better than chance (Table 12) (Block 1 $F(37,298) = 4.365$, $p < .001$). The value of R^2 was 3.51 (Table13) indicating it accounted for 35% of the variation in likelihood to seek help on campus of variance. The value of $\Delta R^2 = .351$, $p < .001$ with a Standard Error = .784. Overall, as suggested in the MPU and LPU linear regressions, the combined campus linear regression is significant.

Table 12

Summary of Analysis of Variance for the Prediction of Likelihood to Seek Help on Campus for Combined Campuses

Block	SS	df	M ²	F
1 Demographic variables; Psychological factors; and Interaction effects	99.24	37	2.68	4.365***

Note. * . N = 371. p<.05. **p <.01. ***p <.001Block 1 demographics measured by self-report Likert scale items and psychological factors measured Distress by Hopkins 21, Attitude measured by Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale, Social Provisions measured by Social Provisions Scale and Self-concealment measured by Self-concealment Scale.

Table 13

Block-Run Linear Regression Predicting Likelihood of Seeking Help on Campus for Combined Campuses

<u>Combined Campus Regression</u>	
Predictor	R ²
Step 1	.351***
^a Control variables	
^c Control variables	

Note. aControl variables included ethnicity, citizenship, age, gender, GPA, pre-college counseling, previous campus counseling, current campus counseling, faculty and staff referral, peer referral, distress, attitudes toward counseling, social provisions and self-concealment, Socprov x selfcon, Att x precoll, Att x gender, Att x selfcon, Att x prevcamp, Att x curr coun, Selfcon x dist, Att x dist, Socprov x dist, Att x age, Att x GPA.

Demographics and counseling experience variables. In terms of demographic characteristics and counseling experience, grade point average had a significant negative relationship ($b = -1.580$, $p < .05$) with likelihood to access help on campus, suggesting that students with higher grade point averages are less likely to seek help on campus in the future. Previous access to counseling on the campus had a significant positive relationship ($b = .293$, $p < .01$) with likelihood to access help on campus, suggesting that engaging in counseling before attending college was correlated with greater likelihood to

seek help on campus in the future. Additionally, current counseling had a significant positive relationship ($b = .185, p < .05$) with likelihood to access help on campus, suggesting that accessing counseling at that time was correlated with greater likelihood to seek help on campus in the future.

Psychological variables. For the psychological factors of interest, including level of distress, attitude toward help-seeking, social provisions, and self-concealment level, there were two significant findings. Attitude toward psychological help-seeking had a significant positive relationship ($b = .277, p < .001$) with likelihood to seek help on campus. This suggests that having a positive attitude toward psychological help increases ones' likelihood of seek-help. Self-concealment had a significant negative relationship ($b = -.268, p < .01$) with likelihood to seek counseling on campus. The finding suggests that students who have higher levels of self-concealment are less likely to utilize counseling services.

Campus variable. In the combined regression, LPU was considered the reference variable. LPU was assigned a value of one and MPU was assigned a value of zero. It is important to note that the campus flag alone was not significantly related to likelihood to seek help on campus. Considering the campus variable alone was not predictive of students' likelihood to seek help.

Interaction effects. Finally, for interaction effects with the variable campus and demographic characteristics, help seeking experience, and psychological factors on the LPU campus there were three significant findings. First, current enrollment hours at LPU had a significant negative relationship ($b = -.753, p < .05$) with likelihood to seek campus counseling, suggested that considering campus and current enrollment hours together

LPU students were less likely to seek help at the campus counseling center when enrolled in more hours. Second, grade point average and the LPU campus had a significant positive relationship ($b = 1.726, p < .05$) with likelihood to seek campus counseling at LPU. This finding suggested that considering the LPU campus and grade point average together students were more likely to seek help at the campus counseling center when their GPA was lower. Third, and last, the LPU campus and African American had a significant negative relationship ($b = -.130, p < .05$) with likelihood to seek campus counseling. This finding suggests that African American students, as compared with White, were less likely to seek help at the LPU counseling center.

Table 14

Summary of Block-run Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Likelihood to Seek-Help on Campus for Combined Campuses

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Gender	.031	.149	.028
Age	-.028	.024	-.066
Hours Enrolled	.027	.020	.092
GPA	-.295	.128	-1.580*
Pre-college counseling	.270	.170	.113
Previous campus counseling	.807	.250	.293**
Current campus counseling	.956	.446	.185*
Faculty/Staff referral	-.017	.202	-.014
Peer referral	.266	.211	.091
Distress	.230	.161	.113
Attitude	.485	.114	.277***
Social Provisions	-.005	.156	-.002
Self-Concealment	-.282	.083	-.268**
Asian	-.320	.258	-.111
African American	.129	.159	.056
Hispanic	.179	.219	.062
Noncitizen	-.043	.174	-.014
Two Races	.096	.158	.039
Campus	1.750	1.729	.931
Gender x Campus	.058	.220	.021
Age x Campus	-.057	.070	-.614
Currenthrs x Campus	-.090	.220	-.753*
GPA x Campus	.303	.131	1.726*
Precollegecoun x Campus	-.047	.259	-0.013
Prevoun x Campus	.084	.346	.024
Currcon x Campus	-.755	.590	-.112
FacStaff x Campus	-.012	.215	-.010
Peer x Campus	-.162	.312	-.040
Distress x Campus	-.011	.274	-.006
Attitude x Campus	-.381	.288	-.078
Social Prov x Campus	-.158	.410	.021
Selfcon x Campus	.074	.131	.045

Asian x Campus	.003	.325	.001
African American x Campus	-.734	.342	-.130*
Hispanic x Campus	-.275	.295	-.072
Two Races x Campus	.168	.670	.025
Noncitizen x Campus	-.081	.665	-.012
R^2	.351***		
F for change in R^2	4.365***		

Note. $N = 371$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Qualitative Findings from Large Public University and Medium Private University

As previously noted, to address research question one, part two, the following will provide thematic information about how individual influences affect help-seeking on across both campuses. Findings are presented in the following section.

Help-seeking deterrents

Many instances of help-seeking deterrents are provided across and within campuses. Most findings are more closely associated with campus environment factors, however some findings are specific to one campus. Findings about help-seeking deterrents are presented across and within campuses in the following section.

Self-Concealment inhibits help-seeking. At MPU alone, there were four participants who commented that admitting a problem to someone outside of one's peer group is inherently difficult. Two MPU participants directly noted that students might be reluctant to seek help because they associate some kind of stigma with seeking out assistance for a mental health or emotional concern. Bahula noted "stigma...is probably what keeps people from using [counseling] as much as they could because it just is such a negative stigma." Brayden noted that there is a sense that the stress students feel is uniquely understood by students themselves not a third party. He shared that students

“have friends all around and hanging out with them and joking with them about the mutual stress. I think a lot of people de-stress by commiserating.”

Three LPU participants noted they would not take immediate action by talking to a counselor to address emotional concerns. Adeline was reluctant to share private information with anyone and she elaborated that she believed the counselor at her high school did not keep things confidential. Adeline:

...we didn't really safe talking to them because, no offense to our psychiatrist, she was kind of... she talked a little bit to other professors, and it was a very small school and some things would get out. And she would kind of cause problems.

Aaron shared that “for emotional issues more people are willing to go to close friends I would say.” For Adam, it is something that is dependent upon the person because some individuals “might be quiet and not want to talk their problems with someone. And someone who's really outgoing might be willing to talk to anyone. I think I would be one of the persons who seek help.”

Reservations about talking about personal or emotional problems. Across both campuses, students articulated reservations about how students generally go about working through problems. In terms of emotional issues, the general consensus from MPU interview participants was that emotional issues were considered to be non-urgent. For instance, Beatrice stated:

...it's just [other students] think that if they're stressed or sad or, you know, even like a little mildly depressed, it's like well I don't need to talk to someone about that. I mean I will get over it. I just need to get my schoolwork done, and I know a lot of people who are like that.

The general perception from interviewees at MPU was that these sorts of emotional issues can be dismissed, at least for the most part, and worked on a later time.

Brayden noted that students may:

...de-stress by commiserating. And I think... and I don't know if that's the best way to get rid of stress, and I don't really...I personally think it's not the best way to get rid of stress, but I think that that might be one of the most common ways on campus that people get rid of stress.

Four LPU interviewees commented on how the majority of students at LPU generally disregard emotional issues until the point they become urgent. Andre shared that personal issues are the most difficult to bring up, in general. For Adam, there was a desire to “just kind of put it on the side or ignore it, until it got the point where I had to deal with it.” Adeline commented that she does not like to reveal that she has her “own internal flaws... which everybody does, but [she] like[s] to keep those quiet.”

Annette also shared background about her attitude toward seeking help. Her story centered on a crisis situation she worked through with someone in her personal life. The crisis had a strong influence on her attitude toward seeking help. Annette explained that the situation changed her perspective on seeking help because she recognized she did not have the skills needed to provide assistance to friends in need. Annette shared two examples:

The girl next door in the dorm, when she needed something, I was right away like no, we're going straight to [LPU's Counseling Services Office]. Like there's no in between this time. With my boyfriend it was straight to [LPU counseling services], like we'll talk about it for a day. I don't think you're going to do something, but

you're going there. Like, I'm not making that mistake of thinking it's okay, let's go tomorrow morning and meet there.

Annette's experience served as a pivotal moment in her life, and she commented on how it continues to influence her attitude and actions as it relates to seeking help.

Andre offered another perspective on the matter. He shared a story that influenced his attitude toward seeking help on campus. For him, the LPU administration was ineffectual and caused him a great deal of difficulty in terms of his ability to pay for his education. Overall, Andre asked "If [the financial administration is] not really well put together, how well is anything else [counseling services] put together?" For Andre, his personal experience with the campus administration has colored his view of the counseling center on campus.

Personal pride may get in the way of seeking help. At MPU alone there was an element of pride referenced directly and indirectly throughout the interviews. Many participants at MPU noted that students are focused on comparing themselves with other students on campus, achieving at the highest of levels in their academic work to the detriment of their wellbeing, at times, and an overall reluctance to talk much about problems. Brittney stated that there is an element of pride that comes into play with many MPU students, and students' disinclination to seek help may be associated with a strong sense of pride. Brittney added that MPU professionals providing counseling need:

to be careful with maybe phrasing us as helpless victims that need to come in and have these counselors, you know, swoop us away. I mean it's not what they're doing, but just definitely staying away from that. Like realize we are proud. We're probably not going to want to admit things in our life. And so saying oh you need

help, you need help, that's not the kind of attitude that's going to entice us. And it's hard because that's that message we need to learn that we do need help, but presenting it in that way is not going to achieve its results. At least I don't think for us.

In comparison, it is worth noting that no LPU interviewees referenced the influence of personal pride as a particular deterrent to help-seeking.

Unhealthy, avoidant behaviors. There were a few examples of avoidant behaviors that were noted in interviews across campuses. Aaron claimed “there's a good amount that just try to shy away from the problem.” Adam also commented that he is aware that “alcohol helps [some students] get along with the problem.” In addition, an Brittney from MPU commented on the “work hard, play hard” culture of the MPU student body. This sort of culture fosters extreme levels of academic performance and of unwinding. Overall, each interviewee had their own thoughts about particular deterrents toward seeking help, however there was a consensus that inaction, or sometimes unhealthy behaviors, was a default approach to handling personal concerns.

Comparison-making affects help-seeking. At the MPU campus alone, there were also many deterrents toward seeking help that emerged. Two participants commented on how comparing oneself with other students is prevalent on campus. Beatrice commented that it may be helpful “if I can just mention it in front of other people that I've gotten help and it's amazing that maybe someone else can get relief.” For Brayden, this was an important part of what happens on the campus. Brayden explained that there is a perception that everyone “has it all together so well.” This was a struggle

for students because something exceedingly private may end up being on display for others to observe and, potentially, critique. Brayden also stated:

So you see one person, you know, Jonny Jay, you see wins just award after award and you only hear about him eight times a year, but every time you hear about him it's him winning an award and you think oh no, who am I to Jonny Jay. And so I think just the exposure to so many people who are achieving things make people worried about their levels of achievement. And I think to some degree the rest of the stress kind of comes from that. You know, stress about schoolwork is stress about comparing yourself to the people... Stress about not going out and partying enough is stress about knowing that... seeing people who are doing that.

Second, there was a perception from two MPU participants that students on the campus were expected to be happy. Most MPU students mentioned they were keenly aware that the campus has been recognized as a campus with some of the happiest of college students. The interviewees reported an underlying element of pressure as it relates to being a MPU student and maintaining a consistent state of happiness. For example, Brayden was explicit in his description when he stated: "I'm part of the happiest campus, then I'm going to be happy too. But also at the same time can be a big source of stress because if you think, you know, oh everyone around is so happy, why am I not as happy." Bryce at MPU made another comment to further this point that stress is a reality: "it's the expectation that college students are supposed to be stressed out... you're told like you're going to be feeling stressed out."

Fostering more Interaction with Mental Health Professionals to Help with Problem-solving

There are many influences that were shared between the two campuses. Most findings presented themselves in both campuses, except the MPU finding related to coordinating help seeking messages through student leaders on campus. Findings are outlined in the following section.

It helps to not feel alone. For Annette from LPU and Beatrice from MPU, the notion of not feeling alone was a strong motivator for seeking help. Annette from LPU discussed feeling a sense of connectedness to others and she recognized that she does not have the skills to manage some situations on her own. In her case, as noted previously, she experienced a critical event and this has caused her to be somewhat hyper-vigilant when it came to ensuring a counselor is involved when others need assistance. According to Annette, “it’s easier to talk about when you don’t feel so alone or you know. I think, I think about, um, my ex-boyfriend who... he felt isolated.” For Beatrice, although it took some time, she said she now feels she “could definitely go in [to her counselor’s office] and tell her anything, and I’m much more comfortable with it than I was the first time I walked in.”

Reaching out for assistance as a preventative measure. Another element discussed for LPU and MPU is the impetus to seek help because it is the lowest risk option. For instance, Annette discussed the immediate referrals she makes for friends to visit the counseling center. Annette also stated that members in someone’s family are not equipped with the skills needed to help. Annette:

There are a lot of things that, you know, your family and your friends aren’t trained how to handle a lot of. Even like daily stress, they don’t know how to help you through those things, not professionally.

From a different position, Andre commented that he believed that seeking help is something that is relatively low-risk and worth pursuing. Andre stated:

They're not allowed to tell anybody else about my problems. So I can go and tell them everything, and then like help... have somebody who at the end of the day... like I have no vested interest in them so I could care less what they think of me. The only thing that they're there for is to make me feel better. Like to help me fix like whatever issue it is. So in essence, make you feel better. And if they do that, then great. If not, then okay well I just wasted an hour or like a few like sessions of like an hour.

Annette and Andre, both from LPU, considered the immediacy of seeking help in different ways, however both had positive perspectives on accessing a counselor on the campus for assistance.

Bryce at MPU also stated "you need to be able to recognize when things have changed beyond an acceptable level." He also offered an example from his time in middle school when he had a difficult time transitioning from one school to another. Bryce talked to "a counselor for a short period of time there, and um, and that sort of helped me resolve some of my issues." This made a difference going forward for Bryce:

I think my decision to go before was influential on my decision to go this time. Before I was very opposed to the idea. I believed that things would work themselves out eventually. But, um, I mean even if there wasn't any concrete like problem, solution, like direct solving of my problems, the idea of being able to talk to like a third party was helpful for me.

Finally, Beatrice at MPU also commented on how she talks about her own experiences in counseling to help facilitate others to seek assistance. Beatrice:

I'm pretty comfortable in the fact that I do have to see someone that I am on medication. Like that doesn't bother me. So but when I talk about it there are a lot of people who are just like, oh, like I'm so sorry, like that you had to do that. And like people tend to just want to be empathetic for me when I would rather be, no I would rather discuss your issue. I'm fine now. I would like to help you seek someone. And a lot of people are too like nervous to discuss it. They just are... they're more willing to like shut down and be sad for me than they are to talk about their own issue.

Equate help-seeking with problem-solving and more informal interactions. In terms of things that encourage help-seeking, there were two MPU students who stated that minimizing the formal nature of interactions students will have with a counselor would encourage more help-seeking. Beatrice at MPU talked about this from the perspective of enabling the student to not feel as though the work with the counselor is highly formal or intimidating. She shared her experience talking to a counselor on the MPU campus:

...you can have a cup of tea and just sit there and kind of talk. And even if, you know, you start crying or you start having a hard time like telling your story...it's just very... it's more relaxing than sitting in like somewhere with bright lights and having to talk to like your pediatrician or something.

Bahula also noted that she thought the counselors working on campus could “[send] out emails once in a while saying ‘hey we’re here if you just want to come and sit down and have coffee with us.’ Yeah. Make it more casual.”

Adeline from LPU commented about the benefits she experienced from talking to a career counselor about her concerns. Annette also talked about a memorable and impactful experience hearing someone from Career Services speak at a sorority event:

Someone from Career Services came and spoke, at [my sorority], and like just that 30 minutes of like hearing him, seeing his face, knowing who he was I was like oh okay, I can go make an appointment with you. You can help like, look over my resume, and you know help me out. And so maybe just getting some kind of like face contact, knowing, you know, get the word out, you would maybe feel a little bit more comfortable. That did make a big difference because as soon as I could connect with an actual person, not a flyer or an email or whatever, I was like okay. I know where that is, I can go. Where do I make an appointment, oh okay, you’re going to tell me that too. Cool.

Annette also noted that volunteers on campus could be helpful in getting the word out about counseling services at LPU. She suggested “even a volunteer can say we have this program like go talk to someone.”

Intentionally inform student leadership about counseling services. Something specific to the MPU campus, according to Bahula, student leaders on the campus should be given information about counseling services and student leadership could make regular announcements about counseling services available on the campus. She provided an example in the context of student leadership, community meetings during the semester

and stated that “once in a while our president of our college, like our residential [community], who is also a student, will remind us. Like, hey, they’re still there and emails are probably the best way to reach anyone.” Brittney described something similar when she attending a “leadership little workshop that was in the building next or behind or kind of in [the counseling services] area,” because she went to the leadership workshop she new about counseling services at MPU.

Summary of Findings

In the regression analyses for LPU and MPU, there are significant findings across all variable types. Primarily, demographic and psychological factor variables are significant. Qualitative findings suggest attitudes toward seeking help and self-concealment are a prominent help-seeking deterrents. Help-seeking influences suggest that connectedness and the informal nature of seeking assistance from a counselor are impactful aspects of the help-seeking process.

Research Question Two Findings

The following section includes qualitative findings associated with the second research question: How do institutional factors relate to undergraduates’ likelihood to seek help from the university counseling center?

Findings are presented in the following order. First, sense of belonging findings are described, based on the interviewee perspective, across campuses. Sense of belonging, as supported in the literature, is explained based on social and academic involvement. Some findings are also presented within campuses. Second, the role of the university according to findings across campuses in regards to student help-seeking is discussed. Additionally, some findings are also discussed within campuses. Third, a description of

participant suggestions about ways to increase students' willingness to seek help from the relevant campus is described.

Sense of Belonging and Social Integration

Findings related to sense of belonging and social integration across the LPU and MPU campuses will be presented. Some findings are discussed in relation to both campuses and others were unique within one campus. Findings are presented in the following section.

Friendly and supportive nature of campus. Students on the LPU campus were described other students as friendly. From an overall perspective, interviewees characterized the LPU campus as a place where most students seem to be happy. Adam believed the LPU campus was particularly friendly:

[LPU's] environment is pretty friendly I feel compared to other schools like maybe [another public institution in the state] or whatnot. I have some friends that go to [another public university'] and some of their departments like engineering is more kind of reroute every class. And over here it's more supportive, let's work together to achieve something other than the individual goals. I feel that's an environment that can help all of us.

The Princeton Review ranked the MPU campus as an institution with some of the happiest students in the country by the (MPU website, 2012). Although most MPU participants commented that the campus was, overall, a happy place, there were reservations about the extent to which students are happy on the campus. Every MPU interviewee indicated they felt satisfied with their happiness, however there were

comments made that questioned how beneficial such a ranking was for the institution. For Brayden, this was something that fostered more comparison-type thinking:

I'm part of the happiest campus, then I'm going to be happy too. But also at the same time can be a big source of stress because if you think, you know, oh everyone around is so happy, why am I not as happy?

Beatrice shared her thoughts on the "happiness ranking:"

I remember every time it comes out that we're like in the Top 10 Happiest Campuses in the world everyone is just like uh, that's [just not true]. Like if we're going to spend all of our time here, I would like to see more, you know, more focus on non-academic issues.

Individual decision-making related to involvement on campus. Across both campuses, the general consensus from interviewees that the level of involvement on the campus is an individual decision and it is one that defines the value students' associated with social involvement. Students choose to engage at their own level to which they want to be involved. Annette at LPU spoke about her decision to focus primarily on her academics, which was the driving force behind her decision to move off campus after her first year in college. She stated: "this year I kind of wanted to go back home and just kind of focus on finishing out with a really good GPA." Ultimately, she talked about how her plans required prioritization and this was a skill she needed to cultivate in college.

Satisfaction with level of social involvement. In general, all LPU students and some MPU students were satisfied with their involvement on the campus. For the MPU campus, findings suggest not all students are particularly socially involved on the campus or their involvement is couched in some kind of discontent with the extent to which they

are involved on campus. There are two components to these findings. First, some individuals may inherently not feel a strong sense of connection to others on the campus however they may feel their connectedness is adequate. Second, MPU findings suggested there was support of the notion that there is an overemphasis on the value of certain types of involvement on campus.

In the first case, according to four LPU interviewees, there was an adequate sense of belonging for LPU students based on their involvement. Aaron, Adam, Andre, and Adeline stated they were currently involved in academic, cultural, or social organizations on the LPU campus. These students were explicit that their involvement in these organizations was instrumental in their own sense of membership on the campus. For instance, Adeline was part of the Honor's College and a cultural organization; Adam was involved in four different student pre-medical clubs and he commented on how "everyone had the same mentality kind of, to go to medical school and to help everyone else get there as well." Andre was part of two pre-medical societies; and Aaron was part of multiple academic organizations and a cultural club. There was one participant who was not actively involved in campus activities. Annette explained she was primarily involved off-campus through her job, although "when [she] first started it was mostly, um, I lived on campus. I lived in the dorm."

For MPU students, Brayden, Beatrice, Brittney and Bahula shared that they were involved in many activities on the campus. Brayden commented: "so I guess since freshman year I've been involved in the [campus's comedy troupe] which is fun. And then kind of off shooting from that there's now an on... off campus sketch group that I'm part of. He was also part of student leadership in his residential community. Brittney was

part of a “Christian organization, a Hispanic Student Association, a Pre-Medical Society, and Medical Service Club.” For Bahula, she was “mostly involved with the clubs within my [residential community].” Lastly, for Beatrice, she was “captain of [MPU] Quidditch team here on campus which is a lot of fun” and a new club on the MPU campus.

There was also general consensus across both campuses, that it was relatively easy to establish social relationships with other students on campus. For LPU, the general perception was positive in terms of social connection on the campus. There were four LPU interviewees that shared their experiences forging relationships with others on the campus. Adeline and Aaron stated they maintained many friendships with high school friends since the time they started at LPU. In Adeline’s case she talked about how “most of my [her] friends are Arab... I haven’t created... and like also the friends that I hang out with are the ones that came with me from high school, not really new relationships made here.” Aaron also noted he was planning to transfer to another institution to pursue his nursing degree, yet establishing friendships at LPU was something he valued. Andre also reflected on his experiences getting to know students on the campus:

I know a ton of other biology majors. I know... like I go to the library a lot. So I know a lot of engineering majors, and I know... like I know a lot of random... I know a lot of people on campus. So I mean like I interact with them. I talk with them. I go out and hang out with them.

Andre also commented on how he did not currently have a job and this helped him get involved on the campus. In fact, he stated that he had more available time because he was not working and that “ [changed] my experience more than anything else.” Lastly, for Adam, participating in organized events on the campus is a key component to

his involvement. He described himself as a person who “likes to go out and meet people.” He indicated that he attends many sporting events and other campus-sponsored events on a regular basis. Adam stated that attending events was crucial to his involvement on the campus.

Brittney, from MPU, also credited her social involvement on the campus to being a member in campus-wide academic and cultural organizations and socially was part of many campus traditions. For instance, she discussed attending “random traditions...and little night out activities.” Brittney was an interviewee who talked most explicitly about the friendships she cultivated in her time at MPU. Specifically, she attributed her strong relationships with friends to being a member of her residential community and she stated, “I’ve got a couple of people in my dormitory...that I hang out with on a pretty regular basis. They know about my life. I know about their lives. I would consider ourselves close.” Brittney suggested that living on the campus “makes it a lot easier” for her to participate in activities and form friendships. Ultimately, however, Brittney credited social involvement to the responsibility of the individual to get involved at their campus. Brittney:

I think it more lies on the person or responsibility of each student to take... to make that a priority and to plug yourself into your community. Because other people can only do so much for you. You need to go do something for yourself too.

Disillusionment with level of social involvement. Bryce specifically shared his experiences feeling disenchanted with his involvement on campus. Bryce suggested that his level of social involvement on the MPU campus was also associated with feeling less

affiliated to the campus. Although he was involved in an organization which demanded a lot of his time, when asked what he was involved in on the campus he stated, “I mean nothing really. I mean I participated for two years on the Engineering and Design team. Um, and that was a big sort of time sync for me. I put a lot of my time into that.” Bryce credited his sense of belonging as being a member of the campus community, however he did not feel he was intimately connected:

I’m part of a group, I don’t feel like that I identify as that group. Like I do go to school here. I will have to say it’s a very nice campus. I appreciate the level of education that I get and the quality of the classes. I wouldn’t however say that I’m part of like a [MPU] family or anything. But like I enjoy it here, and I enjoy getting what it has to offer, but I wouldn’t identify... like I’m a [MPU] student, but I’m not like yeah.

Bryce commented on how he wished students at MPU could be recognized more readily for their individual contributions, not as much for group membership or involvement. Bryce commented that he “prefer[red] to be... if I have to be part of like a whole I appreciate like, individual contribution over just sort of group identification.” During his orientation week he noted the following about that first week at MPU:

I don’t know if it sort of addresses some of the people who are like me and don’t necessarily want to be sort of openly identifying as like a group instead of an individual. So there were a lot of like team building exercises, but there wasn’t a lot of individual interaction.”

Furthermore, Bryce also commented on how it was difficult for him to get connected from the start of his college experience. “I’m friendly with a bunch of people.

I wouldn't say that I'm very emotionally close to anyone." He also noted this started early on in his MPU career and he said he "had sort of a rough start socially. Like sort of getting my... like getting to know people and stuff. And a lot of people sort of thrived in that sort of group environment." Overall he seemed to feel as though he's "just socially adverse sometimes, but I can imagine like socially anxious people would have an even harder time trying to get involved in things because there's, for some clubs, like interview processes." Similarly, for Beatrice, indicated that she was involved but many people do not know who she is:

A lot of people, my sophomore and junior year when I lived on campus, just didn't know who I was. So there are a lot of people in my dorm who have no clue who I am even though I go to [student government meetings] every week and have to sit there.

Bryce also reflected on orientation week as something that was geared toward students who liked socializing in large groups and were comfortable with minimal down time. His explanation of his thought process involved considering that he:

...should be kind of social this week. So where you have to put aside time to you know interact with people. I think I've struck a good balance. Like I study with groups now. So that sort of fulfills the quota of both doing assignments and socializing.

In the second case, from the perspective of Beatrice and Brayden, both students enrolled in their final semester at MPU, findings suggested that social involvement was something that came with a set of external expectations. In Brayden's case, he indicated that there was an overarching expectation of students to be actively involved in their

residential communities. Brayden stated “there’s a lot of kind of pressure to feel involved. Just because so many people around you are involved.” There is also the notion that students should be able to find the type of activity or system that best suits them. Sometimes this may take some exploration and experimentation in terms of where the student feels they have the strongest set of connections. Ultimately, the point was that students should find the group(s) on the campus where they feel connected. Beatrice agreed with this concept when she explained that she was involved in campus life in a more non-traditional way. Beatrice described being involved in a few clubs on campus and that she chose to be uninvolved in her residential community, except for serving in an unopposed appointed position in her community’s government system. Beatrice stated that she was “not as close with a lot of people at my dorm, but I tend to like find my one group. So I have my group of friends there that I prefer over anyone else.”

Cultural diversity and sense of belonging. From the perspective of growing while in college, students recognize the influence of culture on relationships with others and on life as a student in general. The perspectives on culture and diversity differ between each campus. From an LPU campus level, cultural elements contribute to the ways in which students interact with each other and other members of the campus. Andre credited his sense of belonging, in part, to being part of a diverse campus and city. Andre:

It’s in a large metropolitan area. It’s in a very diverse area. So if you are anybody coming from a place that’s not in any way, form or fashion this, you’re being exposed to a whole lot of new experiences.

Alternatively, Adeline, also from LPU, commented on how the majority of her friends on campus were ethnically similar to herself and that she was a member of a cultural organization. Aaron also referenced being part of a cultural student organization.

From the MPU standpoint, culture was not something that came up in the same way. Campus culture and expectations around how students engage with the campus through their involvement and in other ways was the primary way culture was presented. Brayden indicated that helping students feel like they belong is “so much dependent on the culture, and the culture is constantly fluctuating, that I don’t know if it’s really something that [MPU] as an institution can do or... I mean I’m sure that there are ways to affect it.” Brittney elaborated that, “since we have so many quirky traditions and there’s just so many little aspects about [MPU] that are unique, um, I think we definitely associate with that, and that builds our pride and our community.”

Living on campus increases one’s sense of belonging. A general consensus for interviewees on both campuses was connected to the influence students’ residential status had on their sense of belonging. Four participants credited general perceptions about sense of belonging to where students lived. Living off campus was generally associated with more challenges for involvement on campus and feelings of greater isolation on campus.

On the LPU campus, Adeline credited this issue to the reality that students may be isolated to one academic building during the day, for instance, “because most people they stay where their major is... Like my sister literally goes into her building and leaves.” Aaron also noted that it is more difficult for commuters to be involved, but he noted that is possible to take steps to be a part of activities on the campus. Annette commented on

her first year at LPU, and the impact living on the campus had in terms of her access to as social network on the campus. She stated, “that [it] was a really good experience meeting a lot of new people.” Similarly, for Adam, there was a notion that living on campus gave students an edge on getting involved at LPU. He commented that, “living on campus gives you a little bit more edge due to time and more availability to be with other students, professors. Most important is the sports games.”

It is important to note that Andre, from LPU, commented that the level and type of involvement on the campus may not be related to where the student lives. However, the four other LPU participants indicated that residence effects student involvement, with more involvement likely for those who reside in on campus housing. Annette lived on campus her first year, and “the next year [she] wanted an apartment so [she] lived by [herself], and that was, uh, [she] didn’t like that very much because you didn’t meet as many people.” However Andre could not see a difference between the type of involvement his friends at LPU had based on whether they lived on or off campus.

Lastly, for LPU students, the majority of informal, social interaction took place off campus. For two LPU participants who lived off campus, there was more regular off campus involvement than for those involved in more activities off campus at the MPU campus. For Andre, a great deal of socializing takes place off campus at restaurants and coffee shops. Again, for Annette, working off campus enhanced her social network and she stated that her “job at the YMCA has [offered her] a really good group of friends and coworkers.”

For MPU, the consensus was that most students feel an adequate sense of belonging on the MPU campus, however findings suggested there was some polarizing

perspectives associated with social involvement on campus. Three MPU participants discussed involvement in their residential communities and related activities in those communities as a core facet of their sense of belonging on campus.

First, Brayden, a senior, was highly involved in the residential community for his entire time at MPU and he was also active in numerous campus-based organizations. Brayden also moved up through the student leadership ranks in his residential community by being the “Junior Representative in [student government in his residential community] and this year ... as President.”

Second, for Bahula, social involvement in the residential setting was most associated with her strong sense of membership in her residential community. Bahula commented that being involved in the residential setting on campus was rewarding and the feelings of connectedness she felt started as early as her first week on the campus. She commented on how she “immediately start[ed] feeling part of [her] residential community. And [orientation leaders] put you up in like groups of eight usually with two [student leaders]. And my closest friends are from my group I had at orientation week.” Bahula attributed her strong sense of belonging to the manner in which MPU facilitates orientation week: “They have [orientation week] organized so that you immediately start feeling part of your residential [community].” To Bahula, it would be nearly impossible to feel disconnected with your residential community, because of the mechanisms built into students’ exposure to the campus and their living communities. She also elaborated that she considers orientation an event in which “within the first week as new students at [MPU] we know every single resource that we have as students regarding our mental and emotional health.”

Third, Brittney shared that she felt close to friends in her residential community. She commented on how she “hang[s] out with [them] on a pretty regular basis. They know about my life. I know about their lives. I would consider ourselves close.” Brittney also noted how involved she was in campus events, parties and traditions.

Sense of Belonging and Academic Integration

Academic connectedness was presented in the Sense of Belonging literature and is presented in the following section. Specifically, the manner in which students across and within campuses solve problems is addressed. Findings are presented in the next section.

Performance-based pressure with academics and other activities. Specifically on the MPU campus, findings suggest students have difficulty managing immense levels of academic pressure. Brayden noted:

In an environment that’s moving at such a fast pace and where you always feel like you are keeping up, you know, I think it’s much easier to just not want to address something where you have to potentially kind of... yeah, you know, really let yourself face something that’s going to be a time consuming thing to face.

It takes a certain level of strict persistence when it comes to focusing on academic priorities, and this means that personal issues may often need to be put aside to address academic responsibilities.

According to Brittney, academic pressure is something that is constant. She commented that, “at [MPU] probably the biggest stress factor is not a particular activity, but just the load of activities that you have.” An underlying theme in a portion of

Brittney's interviewee was related to the extent to which students relate to each other's academic experiences.

Relationships with faculty foster feelings of connectedness. In the case of two LPU students, the relationship with faculty on the campus was a core component of their academic sense of belonging. Annette believed professors were highly accessible and were clearly there to help students be successful. In her experience, professors actively talked about wanting to help and this was something they embraced as part of their role on the campus. Annette commented that:

Most professors go out of their way to make it, you know, very clear, 'I am always available for office hours. Just email me, call me whatever. I'm usually here, just drop by and let me know.' They want you to do well. They really do.

Her sense of belonging was, in part, attributable to this type of support provided by faculty.

In Adam's case, an LPU student, he felt he connected the most with faculty on the campus and he felt professors, in general, were supportive of students. Adam transferred from another campus where he felt faculty were not nearly as supportive. He felt as though his professors at LPU, "worked hard and come to higher position, and I feel I can do the same by just trying to connect with them." His perspective was that he could relate to how hard they had worked to establish themselves as faculty members in their respective fields. Adam also noted that he is aware of how much faculty care about students and this had a substantial impact on his sense of belonging at LPU. He described his perceptions of how faculty cared for students by comparing LPU to the campus he attended before he transferred to LPU. Adam stated that professors at the other institution

“really didn’t care what the student learned as long as they did what was needed and there you go.” For Adam, faculty were invested in the LPU student body.

Additionally, Bahula commented on the size of the residential communities as a factor in building a strong sense of interpersonal connectedness with faculty and staff living in residence:

I think since it’s so small every student gets a good amount of attention from our [faculty living in residence] who are like the head [LAs] of the residential [communities] as well as faculty members. One of my classes, 80 people, but the professor still knows everyone’s name. Which is great, I can’t do that.

Relationships with these faculty and staff constituted intentional, informal interactions with members of the administrative leadership in her residential community. Bahula expressed that these connections were at least partially attributable to the care and commitment faculty and staff have toward MPU students. She stated: “students gets a good amount of attention” from the faculty and staff who live in residence with them. Bahula also commented that she had met the President of the university and she said, “Yeah, yeah, he’s super nice.”

Similarly, for Brayden at MPU, his student leadership enabled him to have frequent, informal connections across the MPU campus with faculty who lived in residence, staff working in various capacities around the campus. Brayden considered these relationships to be both professional and personal, based on his role as a student leader and his own, individual desire to socialize with faculty and staff members. He explained those interactions:

Through the president’s role I meet a lot with [a student affairs

professional] and then other administrators and [Dean of Students]. I've gotten to know them a lot this year... The head of my lab I've gotten to know really well. Let's see, I've gotten to know the kitchen staff at residential community as well.

Also, for Beatrice, she noted how she felt connected to a faculty member when she met with the faculty person on a regular basis. However, she did not need to continue the meetings so the relationship faded:

I had one mentor in the education program who I felt really close to, but I also saw her like three times a week last semester when I was in the education program, but since I'm not student teaching this semester like I thought I would, I had to leave the program.

Brittney offered another perspective on the relationship between students and faculty as it relates to help-seeking. She shared that "[emotional issues are] a little harder to confess and to admit to people. But I think that's where we're not reaching out to the adults in our community or our professors. We're not letting others know about those problems." Brittney's concept of working with faculty was different than others and suggested they are a resource and students could consider accessing them for assistance.

Feasibility and practicality of seeking help for academic problems. The consensus with LPU and MPU interviewees was that asking for help for academic concerns was a relatively simple, necessary step and there was comfort in handling it relatively quickly. Most students try to address academic problems quite quickly. Bahula, from MPU, commented that she "tend[s] to think of academic issues more practically than [she does] about emotions."

For LPU, Aaron stated that students may use poor performance as a motivator to resolve their academic issues. Aaron stated he would:

Come in for tutoring or something or try to contact the teacher to see if there is anything that can be done. Or, if that's not possible, I would just use it as a motivation to do better next time and to improve upon myself. So there's always... you can always take a bad situation and use for something positive.

Aaron also commented on how academic issues are more readily addressed by students "since academics is more related to your future and career. I feel like people that... or ways of coping with academic problems." The ramification of not resolving academic issues may have long-term, negative implications. Adam also stated that he would work to resolve academic issues by talking to professors right away and he'd "try to get tutoring or try to seek help from the professor or just try different methods of studying." According to Adeline, she talks to her mother right away when she has an academic-type issue. Annette commented on how it was much easier to talk to professors "because you have so much, like, time with them. You know, even if it's a one-way conversation sitting in lecture. So I mean you know them." The LPU interviewees collectively commented on how they would address academic issues early on.

Similarly, MPU interviewees indicated there is a stark difference between how more academic-oriented problems are addressed as compared to emotional problems. Within the MPU campus, two interviewees described the need to take active steps to balance academic-related stress. Bryce stated that too often unnecessary stress was associated with academics because of a lack of pre-planning to meet deadlines. Bryce

suggested that there was a need to balance academic responsibilities to avoid undue stress.

Bryce:

I have a big test coming up in three days. I need to start studying for. I'm not going to study 8 hours a day everyday and ignore every other responsibility that I have. So like I'll study an hour and then I'll take a break and entertain myself with music, whatever for 20 minutes and then I'll get back to it. So I mean its just time management and not overstressing yourself when you don't have to.

Bryce considered emotional issues to be something individuals need to “just [be] aware, and just recognize when things are wrong.”

Beatrice also stated that students placed too much emphasis on academics and there should a more balanced perspective on the importance of academics. She reflected “if [students are] going to spend all of our time here, I would like to see more, you know, more focus on non-academic issues.” However, one interviewee expressed a more passive perspective on balance when she stated that relief from academics always comes because “the weekend will be here soon enough.”

Timing in the semester and problem solving. Additionally, for interviewees at both campuses it was noted that in a given semester, students act differently in terms of when to take action to address emotional or academic concerns. Andre at LPU stated that “a lot of your time is taken up with your school work” later in the semester. He believes timing matters from a “time management” standpoint for students. Generally, there is a time threshold at which students decide to take action.

For Bahula at MPU, there was a notion that going to talk to a counselor for a personal concern is something that takes away from the time they have allotted to study or work on academic things. Bahula:

I think it's kind of counterintuitive because if I'm really stressed out about tests as like most of the campus has been for the past two weeks, I'm less likely to go to the counseling center because I just have so much work to do. But that is probably when I need them more. I should go when I'm not as stressed and my to-do list is less.

Role of the University to Support Campus Connectedness

Findings suggested that students on the LPU and MPU campuses perceive the university as an education system that has a broader role than simply educating its students. There were many facets associated with the role the university serves, which are addressed in interviews on both campuses. Findings are described in the following section.

Myth of universal connectedness to the campus. Findings suggested MPU students generally embraced a sense of obligation to be connected in particular ways on the campus. For instance, Beatrice suggested that she initially had a perception that students who do not feel as connected to their residential communities should work toward conforming to the expectation that students are close to their classmates living on campus. There is a notion of universal connectedness across all facets of the student body. In her first two years at MPU, she believed that:

People didn't feel like I did about their dorm. They didn't feel this weird disconnect that I have. Because a lot of people are really proud of their dorm, and they're really excited about and they're friends with everyone who's there.

Ultimately, she explained "she [spent] more time on this campus I'm starting to realize that a lot of people don't... it's 50/50 on whether these people have these deep connections with their dorm."

There were two LPU participants that felt as though students in general were not particularly involved on the campus. According to Annette, many LPU students, and perhaps others in that generation, tend to shy away from many casual social interactions. According to Annette:

We don't talk to each other. We don't. I mean it's like, you're on your phone...you cannot make eye contact with anybody. You don't do it. Like and if you get caught it's like oh okay, um, I'm looking over here.

In addition, Adam indicated he felt he was a bit of an anomaly in terms of his level of involvement on campus. He stated, "There's some people, like my roommate, who usually don't even leave the room." Adam commented on how it was suggested that professors should introduce financial incentives to increase student attendance at events on the campus. For instance, he suggested, "if you made it a requirement to go to like some type of event, and if they went to a certain event they get like a lower tuition rate or something."

Institutional duty to provide a level of support beyond academic assistance.

Findings from both campuses suggest that the institution itself has a role in assisting student with non-academic issues. Bahula at MPU stated:

I think the university has a pretty big role with non-academic issues as well because if we're not... if we're just totally freaking out all the time, we're not going to focus as well on academics. So giving us a healthy foundation to pursue our academic goals is partly the university's responsibility.

Brittney, an MPU participant, suggested that it is the role of the university to correct the course when there is too much focus on something over another aspect of the student experience. She commented that "there's that sense of you need to find balance and that academics isn't the only thing important." Another particular reference was made that the LPU campus administration needed to make changes to the process of how students' challenges are resolved, especially financial concerns. Andre commented that administrators should "teach [students] how to work" through problems, particularly financial issues related to enrollment.

Foster regular dialogue between administrators and students. Findings from both campuses suggest that institutions have a responsibility to provide information to students, respond to students' needs, ask students for input along the way and, often, work in partnership with students to make improvements to campus. One MPU interviewee credited the work the students and administration do together to run the campus. The interviewees share two examples of topics each campus could address through this administration and student partnership model.

First, Andre, the LPU participant had noted his concerns about the administration not actively working with him to resolve his financial concerns. He explained that he attempted to renew his financial aid only to hear "oh, well you're just not going to get it, and I'm like 'no, there's a solution besides that.'" Toward this end, Andre suggested that

the campus should invest more time in talking about their processes and in seeking input from students. He commented that student leadership or the administration have “never given... sent us anything saying hey this is what’s going on. I would like your input.” Overall, Andre believed “it’s the administration [that is primarily bad], but it’s also the students who have put themselves in power to attempt to make change who don’t listen to their fellow students.” Andre credited higher-level administrators as much more successful in meeting his needs. He suggested that more time should be devoted to helping students than in bureaucratic, impersonal processes. Andre said he wanted the administrators in the financial offices to not only “fix the issues, but also teach people how to work on them, then they don’t stress out as much as when they come up against whatever issue it is.”

Second, Bahula commented that she would like more of an opportunity to interact with the dean on the campus. When asked what the university could do to better integrate students into the campus community, she suggested more time with the Dean of Students. Bahula:

I think the Dean could be more accessible. Like they could have office hours which the president does once in a while, but the [Dean of Students] doesn’t. And he’s really cool. So I want to talk to him more.

Facilitation of Help-Seeking on Campus

Findings from the interview data suggest many ways campuses can facilitate student help-seeking. Students indicated some steps are reported as underway and others are interviewee suggestions for new, inventive ways to foster more access to counselors. Themes are presented in the following section.

Role of the University to Facilitate Help-Seeking. The following section offers findings related to the campus environment and its influence on help-seeking. Some findings are noted in both campuses and others are specific to one campus. First, findings are presented for ways students can foster help-seeking within the campus environment. Second, interviewees present steps campuses should take.

Students encourage friends to access professional help. Facilitating other student's help-seeking is a finding across both campuses. One LPU participant noted this was one of the responsibilities students should take seriously. Fundamentally, having a sense of awareness is the first step someone needs to take to begin the process of seeking help. Beatrice from MPU stated that she "can just mention it in front of other people that I've gotten help and it's amazing that maybe someone else can get relief."

Two interviewees explained that helping friends was part of their role on the MPU campus. Both individuals stated that they are sounding boards for friends and classmates. They consider themselves to be highly mature when it comes to handling issues for peers including being a sounding board. Bahula shared that, "because my average Friday night is at least like two hours of listening to someone... Yeah, most of them forget I'm a freshman. They're like you're not a freshman." Bahula also gave a specific example of an instance in which she helped a friend:

[My friend] was dealing... was in 20 credit hours which is crazy. And she, um, she was also dealing with another person on my floor and they got into kind of a fight, and my friend is very non-confrontational. So she just needed to vent mostly about it and help someone figure out what to do."

Andre from LPU also shared that he helped a classmate who had missed some classes because of a death in the family. He talked about how he told his friend he “notice[d] you’re like having these issues going on and you haven’t been able to get them resolved, you might go check out the counselor and see if they can help you like with whatever is going on.”

Learn to accept imperfection. A finding specific to MPU was related to accepting imperfection. An interviewee commented on how students at MPU need to learn how to manage mistakes and adjust to being imperfect. Beatrice commented that students should be able to embrace the reality that “it is perfectly natural for you to be struggling at this institution. Just because you made it here doesn’t mean you’re going to be perfect all four years that you are here.”

Address students’ basic needs first. Findings primarily from LPU suggested that the campus should take action to support students’ basic needs. Andre shared about his negative perceptions from working with the administration and his perception of many financial aid officers, and administrators in general, shirking responsibility. When asked what he was involved with in the campus, part of his response included:

I was fighting with the administration here to get me my financial aid, and so half my time... over half my time was spent... So I was doing school full time, work full time, and arguing with them full time, trying to get my money.

Andre credited his financial difficulties to the administration refusing to adequately work on his case. Therefore, Andre’s sense of belonging is accounted for through the lens of frustration for how he was treated. Overall, he felt as though the campus was not a good

place to be, “so oftentimes we were just leaving school and going and doing stuff with friends.”

Counseling resources also help students with strong personal networks.

Although the general consensus is that students at LPU and MPU are supported by family, friends, and other individuals in their personal life, the institution can still inform students that counseling can also assist them. Counseling is for all students. As Brayden at MPU commented, there is a need to educate students about the value of talking to a professional. He stated that “[MPU] does do a lot to educate on the value of seeking help for mental health issues and things like that.” Beatrice also shared her efforts to talk about her own experiences in counseling as a way to help others in their decision making process about seeking help. Benefits of this type of counseling relationship should be communicated so students understand this is simply another form of advice, and one that can be utilized in addition to, or in place of the recommendations offered by family and friends.

Increase accessibility and visibility of counseling center

Findings across both campuses suggested that counseling centers should enhance accessibility and visibility of the counseling center. Numerous ideas were shared to enhance knowledge about counseling services and make the information more readily known on the campus. One idea for LPU involved having information booths set up outside the library at particularly stressful times during the academic year. Annette talked about noticing that LPU’s counseling center hosts a booth called:

Stress free finals or something. And I think they’re really good at that because it’s not... they don’t take a lot of your time. They really don’t. Most of what I’ve seen

them do takes maybe less than 30 minutes. A lot of it's just, 'hey we're here, let me give you this cool stress ball,' like you know.

Bahula at MPU made another suggestion when she commented that the university could encourage help-seeking by:

Maybe giving examples when it helped, obviously not like, they can't tell us all the details because of confidentiality, but just a general estimate of how many people, and how they feel after would be useful. Just seeing statistics makes people think it's more valid for some reason.

Similarly, Bryce at MPU suggested there are students whose needs are not being discussed by counselors. He commented that the marketing efforts are too narrowly formulated. "I do notice like posters about like suicide hotlines and whatnot. And those are fine too, but there is sort of an area between being stressed out and being suicidal that they're not really...." Bryce:

There's a whole bunch of people in between that aren't really being talked to at all. So I mean instead of just stress they could talk about if you're having a hard time socializing or you know, if you're having family problems or if you're having money problems, right.

Gain students' trust by increasing personal communication efforts. Across both campuses findings suggested that more personal communication would work to enhance students' trust of counselors. Another element to increasing help-seeking is making counselors or someone from the department more known to students. Brittney at MPU suggested that someone from the counseling office make an in-person appearance at an orientation presentation to say something to students:

They go and they say ‘look I’m here to help you’. If you ever need help, go to the [Wellness Services Office] and ask for me. So that’s kind of nice because they see your face, and it’s not so much the idea of a Wellness [Services] Office but the idea of the specific person and the Wellness [Services] Office willing to help me. Having face-to-face interaction with the professional staff member is a key step toward increasing awareness. MPU students were aware about counseling services and felt as though the university was doing a fair job at communicating this information to students.

Bahula from MPU also noted that the counselors seemed to be accessible to her because:

There was an incident that happened like two weekends ago, and it kind of stressed me out and somehow the counseling center heard about it. And they sent me emails within 24 hours, so like hey we’re here. Just call us, email us...

Annette brought up another idea for the LPU campus, and that was for counseling staff members to make announcements in first-year student academic classes, or any classes, during the semester. She suggested someone from the counseling services area could come to classes “we had someone... we had a speaker come in and let us know about a community agency... like just feeling like someone else had gone through it and had these thoughts.”

Bryce commented that the communication efforts should be regular and intentionally cover periods of time in which a student may be experiencing some kind of transition in their life. Bryce:

So I mean that’s just sort of target people who are maybe jumping into a new schedule, um, maybe people have graduated, maybe their friends are all gone,

maybe they're getting acclimated to something new. So I mean after some big change like a new semester I feel like maybe they should sort of announce the presence more.

Finally, Adeline from LPU commented on how useful she felt an advising meeting with career services was for her in terms of problem solving. Adeline described that she was:

Getting very stressed out with what I wanted my major to be. So one of my friends told me like, you should go see these people at [Student Affairs Services]. You can go and talk and then, and then I looked up [Student Affairs Services] and saw the different departments they had.

The meeting was more of an advising session and Adeline stated that "it helped a lot actually."

Reframe conversations happening on campus to include self-care. Many MPU students referenced the concept of a "culture of care" on their campus. For MPU students this phrase was constantly used and it perpetuated a community of individuals who look out for others. Brittney indicated that the campus community exhibits care for students in many ways. She noted that "[MPU] is very involved in its students and it cares about its students a lot. I mean we preach a culture of care here incessantly through your four years." However, there was little discussion about the culture as it relates to taking care of yourself.

Bryce from MPU also suggested that encouragement to go to counseling be broadened to more than something to do if you are feeling stressed. He emphasized that counseling is something for people who want to take care of themselves. He encouraged

the counselors to “[find] a way to announce their presence around these sort of key times of the semester when people are more likely to be a little stressed out and having a hard time coping.”

Annette at LPU supported this plan to increase knowledge of and appreciation for self-care. Her preeminent viewpoint on seeking help had to do with students needing to seek help early and often. She indicated that this effort to increase access to counseling services was something in which she has been intensely involved. Annette:

Like there’s no in between this time. With my boyfriend it was straight to [counseling services on campus], like we’ll talk about it for a day. I don’t think you’re going to do something, but you’re going there. Like, I’m not making that mistake of thinking it’s okay, let’s go tomorrow morning and meet there.

On both campuses, students talked regularly about the steps they take to look out for friends. The lengths they go to support friends are remarkable. Students should consider how much they do for friends and learn to recognize they could not take these steps to support their friends if they themselves were not well.

Strategies for handling negative reputation issues. Students on both campuses expressed concern that many students may have heard negative perspectives about the general administration or directly about counseling services. Students suggested steps the universities could take to work toward ameliorating these fears. At LPU, Andre indicated that students who have had poor interactions with administrators may then also lump the counseling services professionals in a group with ineffective, troubling individuals.

Andre:

So I can see them getting a negative image based off of how the rest of the administration does. And um, that would be the only thing like as the [counseling services at LPU], that would be my biggest concern is that... if they like... even if they... they look neutral because people don't know much about them, but then there's the rest of it which looks slightly bad or looks bad which makes them look slightly bad. So that makes people less likely to want to go with... deal with them.

At MPU, Beatrice and Brayden both talked about the imperfect perception of administrators and counseling services. Primarily, the apprehension was described as a concern that students seeking help will be asked to leave the University. Brayden:

You know, you do hear kind of horror stories of the people who go and then are asked to leave, and there are so many sides of that that I don't know if MPU is... I think and I like to think that MPU is very supportive. Um, uh, but I don't know if the general perception is that it's very supportive. You know honestly I have to admit that that drags down my own perception, even though I know it shouldn't, but just being a member of the student body it does to some degree.

Even Brayden, who was a student with high levels of access to prominent administrators, based on his position as a student leader, he struggled with making sense of this issue in his own mind.

Beatrice discussed a perception issue some students have because of a well-known story that a student was asked to leave the campus during a critical event.

Beatrice:

that turned a lot of people against [MPU] administration in terms of getting help...but I think for the most part I think [MPU] does a decent job of, you know,

project an image that like, you know, it's not life altering to go talk to someone at the counseling center. But I do think they're earning their reputation back from that incident from two years ago.

Awareness of counseling services increases when living in residence. Many LPU participants discussed the extent to which a student's residence, whether it is on or off campus, impacts students' sense of belonging. Furthermore, there is an intersection between students' residence and their awareness of counseling resources. For example, Andre believed that with increases to the residential population then students would be more exposed to these resources if they resided on the campus. Furthermore, Andre believed that students living on campus would have a difficult time not making themselves aware of the counseling services office. Andre:

The majority of people on campus it's like right next to their dorms. So like I don't see them not knowing, um, I mean like I've also explored... like part of who I am like I like know where everything is and who things are.

Enhancements for students in residence. The general expectation that comes with living on campus is that students' basic needs will be met. At LPU, the basic needs that are not currently being met are associated with perceived reasonably priced food options and general safety while on campus. Participants referenced many instances of needing to go off campus to find something to eat after a certain time of day. Additionally, Andre commented that the price of food on campus was notably higher than off campus options. Additionally, from a safety perspective, the LPU campus is somewhere students do not feel comfortable being out after hours, which is a particular challenge for students. Aaron noted the following about LPU:

Its location since it's known to be in kind of dangerous area. So a lot of people don't feel safe when they're going outside and stuff like that. And there are lots of times where I don't feel safe either and it makes me not as prideful as I could be in a lot of situations.

On the MPU campus, the type of concerns were different, yet there were still based in fundamental needs students felt were not being adequately addressed. First, as noted previously, there was concern that students may not feel socially connected, even if they live on the campus because there is a great deal of constraint around what social activities individuals should be a part of at MPU. Second, if students are going to live on campus then students need to consider their campus as a source of help for themselves and their friends. Beatrice said there was a disconnect between attributing the campus as a place to get their social needs met, albeit not perfectly, and that the campus is not a place to get assistance if you need something. Beatrice commented:

If you're encouraging a culture where on campus is where students want to be, if that's where they're living 24/7, then you need to encourage a culture of if something happens while you're here we can help you. And I think [MPU] has not been particularly strong in that suit.

At MPU, Beatrice offered a suggestion that may help by making students cognizant that the campus is their community and they should and need to use the services within their communities when there are problems.

Summary of Findings

Findings in this chapter presented a mixed methodological approach and provided a more thorough understanding of the impact individual differences and environment

factors are associated with likelihood to seek help at the university counseling center. The site campuses, Large Public University and Medium Private University, offer two different contexts for examining help-seeking and the influence of institutional factors. Each methodological approach resulted in many findings that were consistently supported across both methodologies and both campuses. Additionally, some findings could only be specifically drawn from one methodology and one site campus.

Survey findings about the influence of institutional factors suggest there are differences between campuses, on certain variables, related to likelihood to seek help. Although the variable “campus,” with LPU as the reference variable, was not significantly different in the combined regression, students with higher grade point averages were less likely to seek help on the LPU campus and students previously and currently engaged in counseling were more likely to seek help on the LPU campus.

Qualitative findings suggested there is little difference between campuses as it relates to students’ likelihood to seek help. There are many help-seeking deterrents and influences in common across the LPU and MPU campuses. Interviewees at both campuses noted there was a desire to keep things private and that concealing problems from oneself and others was commonplace. Some unique findings emerged at MPU and interviewees suggested that personal pride and comparison-making among peers were deterrents to seeking help on the MPU campus.

Sense of belonging on both campuses, from a social and academic standpoint, was highly, personally individualized on both campuses and students felt positively toward both facets of sense of belonging. Meaning, students discussed how they made choices about their level and type of involvement and, generally, felt connected socially and

academically on their campuses. Connectedness in these two categories was instrumental in students' feelings of satisfaction with themselves and with the campus. MPU students also shared there were high, specific expectations related to being involved in particular activities on the campus. This expectation fostered some disillusionment on the part of MPU students.

Findings across campuses also suggested there are particular roles the university should serve to foster an increase student help-seeking. Participants from both campuses referenced that where students lived made a difference in terms of students' sense of belonging and their awareness of the help sources on the campus. Academically, students from both campuses referred to feeling as though asking for help for academic problems was practical and feasible. Students at LPU and MPU also discussed feeling connected to faculty members, and the steps the campus should take to adequately provide an opportunity for students to meet their needs while on campus, which interviewees suggested would enhance positive sense of belonging and may encourage help-seeking.

Together, findings from the two research questions across and within site campuses lead to several conclusions. First, individual differences and demographics influence are significant influences to help-seeking across both campuses and explaining the benefits of counseling through marketing would improve help-seeking behaviors. Second, across campuses, responsibility for feelings of connected is related to the individual student and structural and cultural aspects of the campus environment. Third, within Medium Private University, campus expectations, external to individual students are associated with a greater tendency to compare across many dimensions, such as levels of overall achievement, extent and type of social involvement and some aspects of

academic stress. Fourth, across campuses, establishing regular opportunities for personal communication among students and counseling professionals will help enhance students' likelihood to seek help on campus because counselors become known to students as individuals.

In the following chapter, Chapter V, these findings in relationship to the literature will be presented. Implications will also be discussed in relation to practice and future research.

Chapter V

Conclusions and Limitations

Introduction

This chapter addresses conclusions and next steps in research. In particular the chapter provides information about the interpretations of study findings for two site campuses, describes findings in relation to both research questions across campuses, accounts for limitations and explains potential future research and opportunities to implement findings through practice.

Summary of Findings

The purpose of the study was focused on better understanding predictive factors related to students' likelihood to seek at the university counseling center. Furthermore, the study was also related to the campus environment, sense of belonging to the campus, the degree of connection to others on campus, and the ways in which the campus culture and environment interact with students likelihood to seek help on campus. This study intended to establish a better understanding of demographic and psychological-related factors associated with the help-seeking intention of college students, what factors may predict students' decision to seek help at the campus counseling center, and how these factors may differ at two different campus environments. Additionally, the study was meant to expand the literature in the area of mental health help-seeking as it relates the impact of students' sense of belonging, interaction with the campus environment and how these relate to MHHS.

The findings provide greater understanding about likelihood to seek help on campus; they offer explanations of demographic features and particular aspects of help-

seeking such as mental distress severity, attitude toward counseling, social support availability and self-concealment contribute to willingness to seek help (Cramer, 1999), and, also offers insight into how sense of belonging and the campus environment contribute to MHHS on two site campuses.

Findings answer the following research questions:

- 1) What individual influences affect undergraduate likelihood to seek help from the university counseling center for a personal or emotional problem? How does that influence vary across campuses?
- 2) How do institutional factors relate to undergraduates' likelihood to seek help from the university counseling center?

The following sections will address each component of the research questions and offer explanations for findings.

Explanation of Findings for Research Question One, Part One

The following section provides context for findings in relation to the first part research question one: What individual influences affect undergraduate likelihood to seek help from the university counseling center for a personal or emotional problem?

Information from the existent literature provides support or contradiction of findings.

Findings for each campus are also noted through the following section, first for demographic and counseling variables, then for psychological variables.

Demographic and counseling experience variables. In the full, block-run regressions for LPU and MPU, there were a number of significant findings associated with demographics. Considering ethnicity, LPU and MPU findings suggested in comparison with White students Asian American students had a significant positive

relationship with likelihood to seek psychological assistance on campus, suggesting that Asian American students were more likely to seek help on the LPU campus. Asian ethnicity was not significant for MPU. Qualitative data did not support this finding.

This finding is inconsistent with Sheu and Sedlack's (2004) study that suggests there is no significant difference among Asian and Caucasian students' willingness to seek help. Additionally, findings from Maki and Kitano (2002) suggested that Asian American students are less likely to be willing to seek assistance. Inconsistent findings with the literature suggest there may be more factors involved with Asian student help-seeking at LPU, such as greater social cohesion on the campus among Asian students or greater previous exposure to help-seeking during high school. These attributes may lend themselves to greater willingness to seeking help from a counselor.

LPU findings suggested that, in comparison to White students, African Americans, had a significant negative relationship with likelihood to seek psychological assistance on campus, suggesting that African American students were less likely to seek help on the LPU campus. However, MPU findings suggested in comparison to White students African Americans had a significant positive relationship with likelihood to seek psychological assistance on campus, suggesting that African American students were more likely to seek help on the MPU campus.

MPU findings align with Gonzales et al. (2005) and Sheu and Sedlacek (2004) in which studies suggest that African American students have a more positive attitude toward help-seeking. However, in terms of LPU findings, it is possible students felt a more negative attitude toward seeking counseling after having initial contact with a mental health professional (Diala et al., 2000). LPU findings are also supported by

Thompson's (2012) work, which suggested that although students of color were more likely to seek help, that sense of belonging did not significantly predict students' likelihood to seek help from the counseling center on campus during their enrollment. Divergent findings across the two campuses for African American help-seeking may be because students at LPU are not as aware of counseling or the benefits of the counseling process or they may feel more connected to their social networks, therefore not feel counseling is as needed.

Findings from LPU and MPU, independently, suggested that, in comparison to White students, Hispanic students had a significant positive relationship with likelihood to seek psychological assistance, on each campus, suggesting that Hispanic students were more likely to seek help on the campus. This was supported by qualitative findings, where one of the interview participants at MPU had sought assistance from a counselor at times throughout her time on campus.

Although findings in this study are significant, literature suggests there may be no significant difference between White and Hispanic students as it relates to help-seeking (Gonzales et al., 2005). It may also be useful to have more information about other aspects of Hispanic student perceptions of help-seeking. It is possible that Hispanic students on the campuses are influenced by some attributes of the campus in terms of their belief about help-seeking. These students may also come to campus with particular perceptions in mind about asking for help.

At MPU, Non-residents as compared with White students had a significant positive relationship with likelihood to seek help on the MPU campus. Findings sit in contrast with findings from Liao et al.'s (2005) work related to help-seeking for Asian

and Asian International students suggested significant predictive findings were related to psychological variables (Cramer, 1999), not citizenship status. Qualitative data supported this finding in that, at MPU, there was one Non-resident, Asian student participant who had positive perceptions of seeking help.

Furthermore, in contrast with existing literature, Chen and Mak (2008) suggested that as compared with Asian American students, International Asian students are less likely to seek help. Therefore, it is possible that citizenship status and students experience on the MPU campus has an influence on students' help-seeking. International students may experience challenges during their time at MPU, which they prefer to address in a confidential meeting, rather than disclose to their personal network of individuals on the campus.

In terms of gender, the LPU regression identified a significant negative relationship with likelihood to seek help on campus, suggesting that men were less likely to seek help on the LPU campus as compared to women. Survey findings were not significant at MPU in relation to gender and this may be related to other factors being more predictive for the population at the MPU campus. In terms of qualitative findings, however, Bryce at MPU commented that women "have friends that they can talk about things on an emotional level with or go seek help." He noted that men "don't talk feelings quite frequently." Findings are consistent with Rickwood and Braithwaite (1994), indicating that help-seeking styles are different for men and women. Additionally, Gonzales et al. (2005) found that women were more likely to seek help than men.

Across both campuses, current counseling had a significant positive relationship with likelihood to seek help on campus, suggesting that students were more likely to seek

help on their respective campus. Qualitative findings indicate “I think my decision to go before was influential on my decision to go this time” (Bryce from MPU). Komiya and Eells (2001) and Halgin et al.’s work (1987) suggest that previous counseling experience indicates increased likelihood to have a positive attitude toward seeking help. These findings may be useful in understanding the significance of current counseling experience and likelihood to seek help in the future. Students who have accessed counseling in the past may be more likely to see that help out going forward. Determining more ways to encourage initial exposure to counseling may be a valuable step to enhance willingness to seek help in the future.

Academic components of help-seeking were found to be significant on both campuses. For LPU, hours enrolled had a significant positive relationship with likelihood to seek help on campus, suggesting that students enrolled in more credit hours were more likely to seek help on the LPU campus. In general, qualitative findings related to resolving academic problems suggested students are inclined to take action to address academic issues, but not personal or emotional issues. For example, Adam stated that he would quickly try to resolve an academic issue by “try[ing] to get tutoring or try to seek help from the professor or just try different methods of studying.” However, for MPU, hours enrolled made a significant negative contribution on likelihood to seek help on campus, suggesting that students enrolling in more credit hours were less likely to seek help on the MPU campus. Bahula stated, “I’m less likely to go to the counseling center because I just have so much work to do.”

This difference between the campuses may be related to student perception at MPU that they are expected to enroll in a high number of credits to demonstrate success

as a student. This perception may potentially be related to students' focus on high academic achievement while managing a challenging number of courses. In fact, 46% of MPU respondents were enrolled in seventeen or more credit hours. At LPU, students may be more inclined to seek help when enrolled in more credit hours because they need to access help to manage their academic load and other student responsibilities.

In the literature, Lee et al. (2009) suggests that participation in counseling is correlated with greater likelihood to remain enrolled and perform better academically, however no studies were found that specifically looked at the number of hours enrolled and the predictive nature of help-seeking. Additionally, Sheu and Sedlacek (2004) indicated that help-seeking due to academic difficulties is more common because individuals are more inclined to access help for a concern other than a psychological concern. Similarly, according to Thompson (2012), students of color are more likely to seek help for academic difficulties from support services on the campus than from the counseling center for personal issues. Students may be less reluctant to seek help for practical issues such as academic challenges.

For MPU, in terms of grade point average, results suggested a significant positive relationship with high grade point averages and greater likelihood to seek help on the MPU campus. LPU findings were not significant related to grade point average and likelihood to seek help. This may be due to the fact that LPU students are more inclined to seek assistance when experiencing an academic problem (Sheu & Sedlack, 2004), as noted above. Students, as Thompson (2012) as also noted, may be less reluctant to access services for assistance in resolving an academic issue than an emotional or mental health problem.

Burris et al. (2009) also talk about the magnitude of responsibility facing college students in terms of their academic and personal duties. However, for some students, those responsibilities may lead to feelings of distress. Therefore, it is important for higher education administrators to facilitate student help-seeking, in particular as it relates to students who may be academically at risk.

Psychological variables. There were a number of significant findings associated with psychological variables in the block-run regressions for each campus and in qualitative data. An explanation of findings is presented below.

Feelings of distress. Findings from both LPU and MPU, block-run regressions suggest level of distress had a significant positive relationship with likelihood to seek help on the students' respective campus, meaning students are more likely to seek help when their feelings of distress are high. Qualitative findings suggest when students feeling a certain level of distress would be inclined to seek out assistance on campus, however it is worth noting that the threshold for needing to seek help is relatively high based on students' explanations. Often students are more inclined to lean toward inaction rather than asking for help when they feel distressed. For Beatrice at MPU:

I finally just kind of cracked and was like, I have to talk to someone about this [who] isn't also eighteen. And so I just kind of forced myself to go, even though I wasn't entirely comfortable with the idea.

Overall, findings align with Cramer's work (1999) that distress is likely a predictor of willingness to seek help. However, in terms of distress not having predictive value when considered alone, findings align with Vogel et al.'s (2005) findings that distress alone does not generally predict help-seeking because there are other factors

typically involved. Distress alone, although it is uncomfortable, may not predict help-seeking because even distressful feelings may not elicit action to resolve the problem. As the literature suggests, examining distress along with other psychological factors suggests greater willingness to seek help.

General attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance. Findings suggested there was a significant positive relationship between perceived attitude and intention to seek help in the respective, block-run regressions for both LPU and MPU. Attitude is a positive predictor of the likelihood to seek help at the counseling center on campus for both institutions. Additionally, qualitative findings suggest students from both campuses have a positive attitude toward seeking help and would be willing to seek assistance. Bahula from MPU commented that she “tend[s] to consult other people regarding [emotional and academic issues]...quite often” and “you need someone who can empathize with you when it comes to the emotions.”

Like many existent studies, findings suggest that attitude toward help seeking is a positive predictor of likelihood to seek assistance for a personal or emotional concern. Cramer (1999) and Vogel et al. (2003) provide a foundation for the integration of help-seeking intention with attitudes toward seeking counseling services. Additionally, Vogel et al. (2005) suggest that if there is a perceived positive outcome that will be derived from a particular activity then the individual will have a positive attitude associated with the action. In this case, students believe there are benefits to be gained from talking to a counselor on campus.

Preference to use personal networks for assistance. The analysis of the block-run regressions at both LPU and MPU, suggested that social support was significantly

negatively related to likelihood to access help on the respective campus. Qualitative findings suggested that students preferred utilizing a personal network, even though there were general parameters around how and to what extent the student would choose to talk to someone in their personal life. Andre, from LPU, stated that his family is “invested in his life,” so he would utilize them when he needed help.

This is supported by Cramer’s model (1999), which discussed a negative relationship between one’s social network and accessing psychological counseling and the finding may be attributed to such an inverse relationship. Similarly, Rickwood et al. (2005) and Miville and Constantine (2006) discuss that availability of social support is related to less access to professional help-seeking when individuals feel their social support systems are adequate. In addition, students may be disinclined to disclose to someone they are not familiar with (Koydemir et al., 2010). Students who feel as though they are supported by friends and others in their informal network may not feel seeking help from a counselor is necessary because their needs are already being addressed.

Familial influences on help-seeking. Qualitative findings suggest there are influences from family and others in their life that model how to seek help for concerns in one’s life. Brittney at MPU shared that she “know[s] people in [her] own family who should have gone to counseling years ago for certain things and never [did].” Family perceptions of help-seeking may make a difference in students’ decisions about seeking assistance. Downs and Eisenberg (2012) claim that individuals’ who are part of one’s social network serve as supports and may also help facilitate an individuals’ help-seeking. Students’ preexisting perception of seeking help from a counselor may be related to what their family has indicated is helpful and, in certain cases, appropriate.

Open with personal network, but closed off to everyone at a certain point.

Another qualitative finding suggested that there are instances when social provisions are not sufficient, meaning students should contact professionals to assist a friend. Findings from each campus' regressions suggested a significant negative relationship between perceived self-concealment and likelihood to seek help on the respective campus. For instance, although Andre talked about being willing to talk to friends and family, he said: "I don't want people to know I'm failing. So therefore I'm not going to share with you that I'm doing bad. I'm just going to say I'm doing fine. I'm good."

Both the qualitative and quantitative findings align with Kelly and Achter's (1995) work that individuals who are more likely to conceal emotionally distressing information are less likely to be inclined to work with a counselor. Overall the finding is in support of Cramer's study (1999) and Kelly and Achter's (1995) work around self-concealment as a significant negative predictor of willingness to seek help. Findings may also suggest that students who are less inclined to contact a counselor may be more likely to handle difficult situations on their own. Self-concealment, therefore, may be a deterrent to broadening one's support system to include professional help when something critical is taking place.

Helping friends involves listening, not a mental health referral. Across both campuses, a few interviewees stated they had a role in supporting their friends. Bahula indicated that her "average Friday night is at least like two hours of listening to someone." Aaron also felt that for "emotional issues more people are willing to go to close friends." Although not significant in the full, block-run regression for LPU, the Block 1 regression suggested there was a significant positive relationship with likelihood to seek help with

peer referrals. Meaning, other students would be more likely to access help from a counselor if a friend encouraged them to do so. Ender and Newton (2010) also have studied students' work to help another student address low-level personal concerns. Students may be a crucial referral source for their classmates to gain quicker access to counseling services.

Sometimes contacting the professionals is the best way to help a friend.

Although talking informally with friends is something many students are inclined to do, certain situations require more action than offering the support of another peer.

Qualitative findings suggest there are two reasons for this. First, after an intense crisis situation Annette (LPU student) decided she was “not making that mistake of thinking it’s okay, let’s go tomorrow morning and meet [at counseling office]...” Second, for Brayden at MPU, he’d “been meaning to go to the counseling center just to ask that question in terms of what I should do [to help his friend].”

These findings are supported in the literature. According to Yorgazon et al. (2008) students are most likely to become aware of mental health services available on campus from another student. Additional research should happen to better prepare students to connect friends to counselors, when that is needed. As noted above in the peer referral section, students generally want to help their friends and giving them skills to employ to connect friends to counseling services may be a crucial step in improving students' access to help sources.

Explanation of Findings for Research Question One, Part Two

Findings in the following section address part two of the first research question: “How does that influence (individual influences) vary across campuses?” Overall, the

campus variable was not significant in the combined LPU and MPU regression, suggesting that considering campus alone did not have predictive value in terms of likelihood to seek help. However, there were significant findings related to demographic, counseling experience, and psychological factors. Qualitative findings also support that, generally, there is no difference between campuses as it relates to individual influences toward help-seeking. Differences between campuses exist in terms of academic and personal, emotional problem-solving.

Demographic and counseling experience variables. In the full, combined campus regression, grade point average had a significant negative relationship with likelihood to seek help, suggesting that students with higher grade point averages were less likely to seek help on the LPU campus. Beatrice from MPU state, “I’m less likely to go to the counseling center because I just have so much work to do.” Qualitative findings indicate students at MPU are less likely to seek help because of the time it takes away from academic work. There is a difference between LPU and MPU students in terms of academic performance and seeking help, in that MPU students are more likely to seek help for academic concerns than emotional concerns. There are, however, less likely to seek help for emotional concerns because academic pressure may intervene.

Regression findings align with Sheu and Sedlack’s (2004) study, which suggests that students are more likely to seek help for an academic-related concern than anything else. Students may be less concerned about their grades therefore less inclined to want to seek assistance. If students had lower grades, based on findings, they would be more inclined to access assistance, which is consistent with the literature.

Additionally, previous access to counseling, as well as current counseling, both

had significant positive relationships with likelihood to seek help, suggesting that engagement in counseling in the past or present was related with greater likelihood to seek help on campus in the future. There was no variance noted across LPU and MPU in relation to help-seeking based on previous or current counseling experience. Bryce at MPU shared that he thinks his “decision to go [to counseling] was influential on [his] decision to go this time. Before I was very opposed to the idea.”

Findings align with work by Komiya and Eells (2001) and Halgin et al.’s (1987) suggest that previous counseling experience indicates increased likelihood to have a positive attitude toward seeking help. These findings may be useful in understanding the significance of counseling experience in general and likelihood to seek help in the future. Additionally, students who have sought help in the past or currently are in counseling may be advocates of help-seeking for their peers. Although counseling center staff cannot ask students if they are willing to talk about their experiences, these conversations may be likely to happen organically with students (Ender & Newton, 2010).

Psychological factors. In the combined, dummy variable regression with LPU and MPU, there were two significant findings related to psychological variables. An explanation of findings is presented below.

General attitude toward seeking help. Attitude toward seeking psychological assistance had a significant positive relationship with likelihood to seek help. It is noted that qualitative data do not present findings related to attitude toward help-seeking.

This finding is supported by Vogel et al.’s (2005) around positive attitude being a strong predictor of help-seeking. Students’ attitudes in the combined regression were positive toward seeking help. Findings contrast, however, with Cramer’s work (1999) of

significant of distress, attitude toward seeking help, social-provisions and self-concealment. In this case only attitude and self-concealment are significant predictors of help-seeking. Attitude toward seeking help is an important variable and is something worth focusing on in terms of improving students' perceptions toward counseling over time. In other words, because attitude toward seeking help is not fixed, campuses may be able to work on strategies to improve students' attitudes toward seeking help throughout their time at the institution.

Self-concealment inhibits help-seeking. Additionally, self-concealment had a significant negative relationship with likelihood to seek help on campus. Findings suggest that students who have higher levels of self-concealment are less likely to utilize counseling services and this varies across campuses. Qualitative data suggest self-concealment influences help-seeking across campuses, however, it does not vary by campus in this study. For instance, Adam explained that there are students who “might be quiet and not want to talk their problems with someone” and this would effect their inclination to seek help going forward. Self-concealment is a strong negative predictor toward help-seeking and may present barriers in the help-seeking process for many individuals.

This finding is supported by Kelly and Achter's (1995) work that suggests that individuals who are more likely to self-conceal are less inclined to want to access counseling services for assistance. Findings also align with Self-Concealment, which is more associated with active concealment of personal information (Larson & Chastain, 1990). Findings are associated with this construct and align with the concepts related to Self-Concealment (Larson & Chastain, 1990).

Findings suggest self-concealment may especially serve as an active deterrent of help-seeking. The desire to keep information private and approach of keeping it from anyone, especially counselors, is worth examining going forward. Pennebaker (1985) suggested self-concealment has unfavorable effects on the individual, perhaps even more than the distressing event itself. Additional research may enable researchers to better understand the variable, which may have additional negative effects on an individual (Pennebaker, 1985), in relationship to other predictive factors influencing help-seeking.

Qualitative Findings from Large Public University and Medium Private University

Qualitative findings related to the second part of research question one provide context for deterrents and influences of help-seeking across and within the site campuses. First, an explanation of findings associated with help-seeking deterrents is outlined and then, second, influences toward help-seeking are outlined.

Help-seeking deterrents

First, findings across campuses suggest that self-concealment can be a deterrent for students to seek help on the campus. An explanation of findings for self-concealment is addressed in the previous section because of connection with findings from the combined regression. Other deterrents toward help-seeking are explained in the following section.

Reservations about talking about personal or emotional problems. Findings across both campuses suggested that students were more likely to feel less inclined to talk about something they considered to be personal or emotional in nature. This finding was consistent with other findings associated with students' inclination to shy away from talking about their concerns with others. Brayden at MPU noted that students "de-stress

by commiserating,” which is a more common way for students to address concerns that talking about it openly. Adeline at LPU also commented that she has her “own internal flaws... which everybody does, but [she] like[s] to keep those quiet.”

As suggested in the literature, willingness is more about openness toward asking for help rather than deliberative planning (Hammer & Vogel, 2013). Additionally, Deane et al.’s (2001) findings suggested that many young adults prefer to not seek help from anyone for personal-emotional and suicidal problems. Findings suggest there is more to know about why individuals have reservations about help-seeking, in particular more should be examined about this in the context of a college student population. It would also warrant further research to learn more about what could be done to abate some of students’ reservations about seeking assistance.

Personal pride may get in the way of seeking help. MPU findings suggest that an individual’s sense of pride may inhibit help-seeking. For this finding, there was a difference noted between campuses. Findings at LPU were not consistent with this theme. Brittney shared that counselors need to “realize [students] are proud. We’re probably not going to want to admit things in our life.” Bahula also stated, “I’m less likely to go to the counseling center because I just have so much work to do.” There is an element of pride, particular associated with academics, which emerged in the study.

Students at MPU may be deterred by their pride due to an element of social stigma related to mental health issues. From an internal perspective, Karabenick (1998) explains that MHHS is a self-regulatory function, meaning individuals seek out help as a way to manage daily life. MPU students may hold the position that their pride is in the way. In other ways, this finding is supported by research related to external and internal

influences about seeking help. From an external standpoint, according to the research, reluctance to disclose mental health problems may be associated with social stigma (Quinn et al., 2009). There is a need to better understand this finding because the implications are great if students who need assistance are reluctant to seek help because of personal pride. Teaching students the other side of pride, associated with taking care of oneself may be another way to reach students to further their help-seeking.

Unhealthy, avoidant behaviors. Across both campuses, students claimed that unhealthy behaviors were sometimes utilized as ways to avoid problems. Aaron at LPU claimed there are a good number of students “that just try to shy away from the problem.” Adam also commented that he is aware that “alcohol helps [some students] get along with the problem.” Brittney from MPU also commented on the “work hard, play hard” culture of the MPU student body. There was an acknowledgment of unhealthy student behaviors on both campuses.

Although these kinds of behaviors may be associated with substance use or abuse, which are not elements examined in this study, interviewees are also referring to consuming excess amounts of alcohol as an avoidant factor rather an approach factor when it comes to help-seeking (Kushner & Sher, 1989; Vogel & Wester, 2003). Findings also align with Kelly and Achter’s (1995) findings that those inclined to be high self-concealers were more likely to avoid counseling rather than seek it out. Learning how to manage stress is something emerging adults may encounter for the first time in college (Dusselier et al., 2005). Those new stressors may present students with new challenges and drinking, drugs and other substances may be a means for some students to cope with these challenges.

Comparison-making affects help-seeking

This is a finding specific within MPU, so there was a difference between campuses in relation to this finding. According to Brayden, there is a perception that everyone “has it all together so well.” He also commented that: “I think just the exposure to so many people who are achieving things make people worried about their levels of achievement. And I think to some degree the rest of the stress kind of comes from that.” Findings suggest that MPU students are particularly attuned to what other students are doing and this may pose challenges. Students are inherently not going to be made aware of everyone’s entire situation, so they are exposed to others public portrayal of themselves. This sort of external checking should, ideally, be balanced with internal, personal observations. Understanding this finding from the perspective of the nature of the MPU campus and its culture is also something that should be considered.

The social support experienced by individuals through these kinds of interactions is worth examining. In terms of social support, Rickwood et al. (2005) and Miville and Constantine (2006) discuss the availability of social support in relation to less access to professional MHHS when individuals feel that their social support systems are sufficient. Findings, however, suggest that comparisons may make students feel a sense of self-doubt.

Fostering More Interaction with Mental Health Professionals to Help with Problem-solving

There are many influences that were shared across both campuses. Findings presented themselves in both campuses, except for coordinating efforts through student

leaders, which was a finding applicable to MPU alone. Findings are explained in the following section.

It helps to not feel alone. Across both campuses, findings suggest students prefer to not feel alone. Annette at LPU stated, “It’s easier to talk about when you don’t feel so alone or you know. I think, I think about, um, my ex-boyfriend who... he felt isolated.” Beatrice at MPU stated she now feels she “could definitely go in [to her counselor’s office] and tell her anything, and I’m much more comfortable with it than I was the first time I walked in. Overall, students want to feel as though they have a connection with someone who can assist them. These findings are particularly relevant for individuals who may feel disconnected to others. If individuals are motivated to not feel alone, this in and of itself may be an initial step that for individuals to start the help-seeking process. Research should further examine how the affects of not feeling alone influence seeking help.

Findings are supported in the literature by a few studies. First, according to Rickwood et al. (2005) and Miville and Constantine (2006) the availability of social support is related to less access to professional counselors when individuals feel that their social support systems are adequate. Ultimately, engaging with a help-seeking source, such as a professional resource or someone with a personal connection, empowers the individual toward a more active resolution process (Rickwood et al., 2005; Vogel et al., 2007). Students may be less inclined to feel self-doubt if they are getting some kind of external support.

Reaching out for assistance as a preventative measure. Findings across both campuses suggest that students decide to seek out help as a preventative measure. For

Annette at LPU, she stated that someone's family is not equipped with the skills needed to help. Annette:

There are a lot of things that, you know, your family and your friends aren't trained how to handle a lot of. Even like daily stress, they don't know how to help you through those things, not professionally.

Bryce at MPU stated, "You need to be able to recognize when things have changed beyond an acceptable level." There is a need to coordinate timely access to counseling resources. Teaching students about signs a friend may need assistance may be a good step in facilitating help-seeking. This may be due to students perceptions that faculty have an expertise that their peers do not have (Karabenick, 2003). There is, however, an ease of access that exists with informal sources, particularly as it relates to accessing other students (Knapp & Karabenick, 1988).

Findings across campuses align with the literature as it relates to the nature of help-seeking willingness and intention and in how some individuals may prefer formal help sources. First, the difference between willingness and intention is related to whether or not conscious planning is involved. Intention involves reasoned planning (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) and willingness is more about openness toward asking for help rather than deliberative planning (Hammer & Vogel, 2013). Second, according to Karabenick (2004) students may prefer formal sources rather than informal sources. Although students, in general, may prefer utilizing informal sources of help, there are some exceptions to this as it relates to students feeling as though professional assistance may become warranted.

Equate help-seeking with problem-solving and more informal interactions.

Findings across both campuses suggest help-seeking should be considered more through the lens of helping someone solve problems through less formal interactions with counselors. Annette an LPU student stated:

...just getting some kind of like face contact, knowing, you know, get the word out, you would maybe feel a little bit more comfortable. That did make a big difference because as soon as I could connect with an actual person, not a flyer or an email or whatever, I was like okay. I know where that is, I can go.

Beatrice at MPU stated, “It’s just very... it’s more relaxing than sitting in like somewhere with bright lights and having to talk to like your pediatrician or something.

Findings are supported in the literature related to the influence of informal social provisions. According to Rickwood et al. (2005) individuals know many help sources because of a personal connection or relationship with others. These individuals often serve as first points of contact and can also reassure students about seeking professional help. These individuals can also be critical referral sources to encourage students to seek help from a counselor.

Intentionally inform student leadership about counseling services. There was a difference between campuses, in that LPU did not present this theme. Findings on the MPU campus, however, suggest that students functioning in a leadership capacity on the campus are uniquely primed to tell other students about the option of counseling. It would be beneficial to the study body for information about the counseling process to be delivered during established student-level conversations. According to Bahula, this could be in the form of announcements in residential community student government meetings. She referred to her community’s president and said he will make announcements about

counseling services in those meetings. It is effective because, as she says, he “is also a student, will remind us [about counseling resources]. Like, hey, they’re still there.”

This sort of organic dissemination of information to students will prove beneficial in terms of increasing the general accessibility of counseling services. This finding aligns with research associated with students’ involvement in assisting their peers. Students are influenced by “expectations, attitudes, and behaviors of their peer group” (Ender & Newton, 2010, p. 9). Furthermore, Yorgazon et al. (2008) found that students are most likely to become aware of mental health services available on campus from another student. These interactions with peers about counseling may enable more students to access care.

Explanation of Findings for Research Question Two

An explanation of findings for research question two are provided below. The second research question is: How do institutional factors relate to undergraduates’ likelihood to seek help from the university counseling center? Findings will first be explained across campuses related to sense of belonging associated with social involvement. Second, findings will address academic components of sense of belonging. Third, findings associated with the role of the university and ways in which help-seeking can be facilitated on campus are addressed. An explanation of findings are described in the following section.

Sense of Belonging and Social Integration

Generally, findings across campuses are associated with positive perceptions of sense of belonging related to social involvement. Overall, findings suggest students are involved socially. However, findings suggest some students at MPU are not satisfied with

the extent to which they were involved or the nature of their particular involvement on the campus. More explanation of these findings are noted in the following section.

Friendly and supportive nature of campuses. Findings suggest both campuses are considered friendly places for students and there was an ease in which students were able to establish relationships on campus. Findings, however, were presented in different ways on the LPU and MPU campuses. For LPU, an interviewee noted there was a sense of friendliness and togetherness espoused among the student body: “Here it’s more supportive, let’s work together to achieve something other than the individual goals. I feel that’s an environment that can help all of us.” Work by Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) supported this finding as student engagement and involvement on campus is connected to more positive sense of belonging.

From a different perspective, MPU interviewees commented more about the external notions of happiness, more from a campus culture level. One interviewee noted that the campus’ high ranking for having happy students made him feel, “I’m going to be happy too. But also at the same time can be a big source of stress because if you think, you know, oh everyone around is so happy, why am I not as happy?” The sense of pressure associated with being happy at MPU was notable across two of the interviews. Although the literature supports the extent to which students feel a sense of personal respect and value from the educational environment influences sense of belonging (Goodenow, 1993), there is more to examine as it relates to the finding at MPU. This finding indicates campuses may need to consider campus culture implications as it relates to feelings of belonging on the campus.

Individual decision-making related to involvement on campus. Across both campuses, individuals are involved in a particular way on campus based on their own choices. Annette from LPU stated that she made a different decision this year in terms of her involvement. “This year I kind of wanted to go back home and just kind of focus on finishing out with a really good GPA.” Other interviewees suggested personal choice largely formed their decisions around social involvement on their respective campuses.

Findings are supported by the literature around sense of belonging. According to Pascarella and Terenzini (2005), level of individual connectedness is a salient aspect of feeling connected on the campus. Goodneow (1993) also stated that the extent to which students feel a sense of personal respect and value from the educational environment impacts sense of belonging. Functioning as an individual and making decisions based on personal choice and value support more positive sense of belonging.

Satisfaction with level of social involvement. Findings suggest LPU students were generally satisfied with their own level of involvement. Participants described their general involvement and Adam talked specifically about being a member of four pre-medical school organizations. Adam commented on how “everyone had the same mentality kind of, to go to medical school and to help everyone else get there as well.” Brittney from MPU was part of a “Christian organization, a Hispanic Student Association, a Pre-Medical Society, and Medical Service Club.” However at MPU, findings suggest some students’ felt as though something was lacking in terms of their level of involvement. More about this finding for MPU is noted in the following section.

Satisfaction with extent and level of involvement on campus was supported in the literature in terms of the importance of students’ sense of personal respect and value from

the educational environment impacts sense of belonging (Goodenow, 1993).

Additionally, Hoffman et al. (2002-2003) also suggest that how a student feels as though they are part of the campus and the value of their involvement is a key component to sense of belonging. In this case, LPU findings suggest that students feel as though they are satisfied with their level of involvement on the campus. This is a key component to overall feelings about the campus environment at LPU.

Disillusionment with level of social involvement. At MPU findings also suggest a certain amount of disillusionment associated with external expectations of the general student body as it relates to involvement. Findings suggest that MPU students, even the most involved of MPU students, believed their involvement was not consistent in comparison to expectations of involvement for students at MPU. Bryce commented that although he was involved in a club on campus, which demanded a lot of his time, when asked what he was involved in on the campus he stated, “I mean nothing really. I mean I participated for two years on the Engineering and Design team. Um, and that was a big sort of time sync for me. I put a lot of my time into that.” Bryce also commented that he would want to see more emphasis on the individual and “individual contribution over just sort of group identification” when he thinks about his experience during orientation week and beyond.

These findings at MPU are inconsistent with Hurtado and Carter’s (1997) work associated with belonging as something that accounted for difference within groups and was “without adopting a single or predominant set of norms” (p. 327). However, findings are consistent with Hausmann et al.’s (2007) work which suggested that students’ social experiences early on in their college career have are more likely to be better factors of

initial levels of sense of belonging than other experiences. For Bryce, this is consistent with how he described the start of his MPU career. Overall, some students may feel as though they are not meeting externally perpetuated expectations for the type and extent of their involvement on the campus. This may have negative effects on students' sense of belonging, from a social standpoint, at their institution.

Cultural diversity and sense of belonging. Notions of culture and diversity were experienced in different ways across the two campuses. At LPU, cultural elements contribute to the ways in which students interact with each other and other members of the campus. For instance, Andre described LPU "It's in a large metropolitan area. It's in a very diverse area." At MPU, campus culture and expectations about students' engagement with the campus was the primary theme presented in the findings. For instance, Brayden indicated that helping students feel like they belong is "so much dependent on the culture, and the culture is constantly fluctuating, that I don't know if it's really something that [MPU] as an institution can do or... I mean I'm sure that there are ways to affect it."

For LPU, findings are consistent with the literature in terms of Goodenow (1993) and sense of belonging as something that "involves support and respect for personal autonomy and for the student as an individual" (1993, p. 25). For MPU, Pederson, and Allen (1996) purported that student perception of institutional climate as it relates to diversity may influence student's social and academic lives on the campus. Findings associated with MPU are inconsistent with the literature. For MPU, the campus culture is espoused as a strong, and potential reasons for this heightened level of connectedness for

some students could be attributed to the residential community structure and an overall expectation of a great deal of involvement on the campus.

Living on campus increases one's sense of belonging. Most students across campuses felt as though living on campus facilitated greater sense of belonging. This was stated more directly for LPU students, however an MPU student also made this comment. At LPU, for instance, Adeline stated that students who commute may be isolated to one academic building during the day, for instance, “because most people they stay where their major is... Like my sister literally goes into her building and leaves.” At MPU, Bahula noted how she “immediately start[ed] feeling part of [her] residential community.” Overall, across both campuses findings suggest students attribute feelings of social connectedness to their respective campus.

The study's findings align with Osterman and Osterman's (2000) findings related to sense of belonging which indicated that those who experience sense of belonging in educational environments are likely to be more motivated, more actively involved in campus and classroom activities, and, overall, more committed to their classwork. Additionally, Ackermann and Morrow (2007-2008) found, academic and social integration on the campus are associated with feelings of belonging. Social involvement is associated with feelings of connectedness, particularly because of campus living. Designing ways to meet the social and academic connectedness needs of commuter and on-campus students is a challenge for student affairs professionals in the field. Additional research is needed to better understand the impact more commuter-oriented campuses have on students' sense of belonging.

Sense of Belonging and Academic Integration

Findings across campuses are generally associated with positive perceptions of sense of belonging related to academic involvement. Overall, students are inclined to ask for help for an academic type concern and feel connected to their campus through academic-related networks. Findings also suggest some MPU students perceive there to be some particular elements of academic pressure associated with their academic life on campus.

Performance-based pressure with academics and other activities. For students at MPU, there was an element of academic pressure. LPU interviewees did not reference this pressure during interviews. At MPU, students indicated that academic tasks were often considered duties, of the utmost importance even, at times, at the expense of one's wellbeing. Brayden commented, that this was the case particularly "in an environment that's moving at such a fast pace and where you always feel like you are keeping up."

Findings are consistent with Collier and Morgan's (2008) work related to sense of belonging from an academic perspective that students need to understand the academic expectations and enable themselves to apply those abilities effectively to be successful. Thompson (2012) also suggested that students with more positive sense of belonging at their HBI institution, were more likely to feel comfortable and willing to seek out help from academic resources at their campus. However, from a social involvement standpoint, findings are inconsistent with literature because there is not an element of pressure involved with feelings of connectedness. Goodenow (1993) commented that, students' personal respect and value from the educational environment impacts sense of belonging.

Therefore, it is important to consider how pressures and expectations detract from personal respect and value.

Relationships with faculty foster feelings of connectedness. From the perspective of both campuses, there were positive feelings associated with sense of belonging related to academics. In particular, connectedness with faculty was instrumental for students on both campuses. Annette from LPU shared that her professors would frequently tell her “‘I’m usually here, just drop by and let me know.’ They want you to do well. They really do.” Bahula at MPU commented that her residential community was small enough for “every student [to get] a good amount of attention from our [faculty living in residence].”

According to Ackermann and Morrow (2007-2008, p.136), student participation in the “academic and social committees” may connect to students’ sense of belonging in college. Findings are consistent with the literature. Additionally, O’Keefe’s (2013) work was associated with establishing faculty-student advising models, and faculty-in-residence are some common faculty-student engagement systems in place on many campuses. Both campuses have faculty-in-residence programs, MPU’s is a long standing program and LPU’s is more newly established. Such programs may foster a sense of connectedness amongst students and faculty, which may positively contribute to students’ sense of belonging from an academic perspective.

Feasibility and practicality of seeking help for academic problems. Data across campuses suggests students are more likely to take concrete, practical steps toward resolving academic –related concerns. Bahula, from MPU, stated that she “tend[s] to think of academic issues more practically than [she does] about emotions.” Aaron, from

LPU, commented that he would "...come in for tutoring or something or try to contact the teacher to see if there is anything that can be done." Overall, students were focused on taking swift action to address academic problems, and there was an emphasis on accessing other individuals for assistance.

Findings are consistent with the literature, as Hausmann et al. (2007) note, academic adjustment is crucial to a students' experience in an ongoing way and students' sense of belonging may become less strong if students' academic involvement diminishes. From the perspective of Hausmann et al. (2007), this study's findings suggest students may be in a position to foster a positive sense of belonging over time by taking active steps to resolve academic concerns. Additionally, findings suggest there is a threshold at which students decide to take action. The threshold for addressing academic-related concerns is lower and more quickly reached for students. A study by Dusselier et al. (2005) provided context for the manner in which college students learn how to manage stress during a time of great transition. The findings suggest students on the LPU and MPU campuses are at least primed to work toward effective stress management strategies.

Timing in the semester and problem solving. On the LPU and MPU campus, students indicated they act differently in terms of the timing for taking action to address emotional or academic concerns. Andre at LPU commented that there is a "time management" element that strongly influences students' decision to seek help. Except in the case of Annette, taking action for academic-related matters falls much earlier in the list of taking action than emotional issues. Bahula also realized that "I'm less likely to go to the counseling center because I just have so much work to do."

Rickwood and Briathwaite's (1994) work was related to developing ways to better reach male students when they have high levels of willingness to seek help. Although findings were not directly supported in the literature in terms of the specific impact on seeking help, Rickwood and Briathwaite's (1994) work suggests more can be done to encourage MHHS when students are already willing to seek help for an academic problem. Students may be more inclined to accept mental health services when they initiate a resource for an academic-type problem

Role of the University to Support Campus Connectedness

Findings across both campuses suggested the institution has an obligation to provide general support for its students beyond above and beyond academic support. There is a need for campuses to work to frame the setting to be conducive to academic, personal and overall development. This finding sheds light on the importance of the work of student affairs professionals. Additional explanations of findings related to the role of the campus in support student connectedness are presented below.

Myth of universal connectedness to the campus. Findings suggest that students on both campuses have a general perception that students, in general, may not be as connected as expected. Beatrice at MPU talked about “this weird disconnect that I have [to my residential community].” After spending more time on the campus, she's realized that “a lot of people don't... it's 50/50 on whether these people have these deep connections with their dorm.” Annette at LPU commented that she has realized that students at LPU “don't talk to each other. We don't. I mean it's like, you're on your phone...you cannot make eye contact with anybody. You don't do it.”

According to Ackermann and Morrow (2007-2008, p.136), student participation in the “academic and social committees” may connect to students’ sense of belonging in college. Students may perceive that other students on the campus are full integrated into the social and academic fabric of the campus. Although, no specific findings in the literature were found about how other students perceive involvement, Rickwood et al. (2005) provide context about the influence of one’s personal network. Perceptions of this network’s involvement on the campus may be noted through these interactions.

Institutional duty to provide a level of support beyond academic assistance.

Institutions need to support the whole student. Bahula from MPU stated that the campus needs to “...[give] us a healthy foundation to pursue our academic goals is partly the university’s responsibility.” There is also an obligation of the campus to redirect students when they lose sight of what is important. Andre at LPU noted that administrators should “teach [students] how to work” through problems.

Tinto’s (1996) work focused on the time of college as a critical time in undergraduate development. Emerging adults also may identify with a variety of developmental levels (Arnett, 2000), and higher education officials are well-positioned to assist students in their development during college. Students may be more open to assistance when the support comes from administrators servicing students from across various departments at the campus.

Foster regular dialogue between administrators and students. More regular discussion between students and administrators should take place to engender more connectedness among students and campus officials. From Andre’s perspective at LPU, neither the administration nor student leadership have ever asked him for his input. Andre

asserted that they have “never given... sent us anything saying hey this is what’s going on. I would like your input.” At MPU, Bahula requested more interaction with the dean of Students. She commented that the dean could be more accessible, like the president of the university “... I think the dean could be more accessible...he’s really cool. So I want to talk to him more.” Findings are supported by implications of student affairs professionals working in many capacities, venues and functions across campuses (Dungby, as cited in Komives, Woodward, & Associates et al., 2003). Student affairs professionals are responsible for working in a highly collaborative fashion, especially with enrolled students.

Facilitation of Help-Seeking on Campus

Findings across campuses related to enhancing sense of belonging from a social involvement perspective. There were two primary aspects of this theme. The first is related to institutional duty to provide general structure in which students can feel a sense of connection. Second, findings at both campuses support regular, ongoing dialogue between administrators and students to facilitate institutional changes. More information about these findings is presented below.

Role of the University to Facilitate Help-Seeking. Administrators working at the university can play an integral role in facilitating student help-seeking. As decision-makers for structural, financial and other elements of the campus’ infrastructure and general approach, there is a need for student affairs professionals to work with counselors and students to facilitate help-seeking for students in need.

Overall, findings across and within campuses suggested there is more that can be done to facilitate help-seeking on campus. There are two primary facets associated with

findings in this area. First, both campuses students identified some roles they could serve in fostering help-seeking for their friends. Second, institutional duties associated with furthering help-seeking as also presented.

Students encourage friends to access professional help. Findings across both campuses suggested students have a role to play in terms of connecting their friends to the professionals. At MPU, Beatrice commented, that she “can just mention [seeing a counselor] in front of other people that I’ve gotten help and it’s amazing that maybe someone else can get relief.” Ender and Newton (2010) found that students are generally influenced by perceived expectations of their peers. Additionally, Yorgazon et al. (2008) noted that students are most likely to become aware of mental health services available on campus from another student. This is a key developmental message for students to learn and they may be more receptive to it if it is couched in the notion that they need to consider themselves before they assist a friend.

Learn to accept imperfection. Another finding supporting the responsibility of students is related to the need of students to accept imperfection. Within the MPU campus, findings suggested students need to learn how to accept imperfection, and this is a key area of growth for students, in general, during college. Beatrice stated that she wants more students to understand “it is perfectly natural for you to be struggling at this institution. Just because you made it here doesn’t mean you’re going to be perfect all four years that you are here.”

Although this study was not focused on areas of growth and development for college students, there is an abundance of literature related to the challenges faced by many students during college. For instance, researchers indicate that the stress of facing

personal concerns while addressing academic responsibilities may become distressing for students (Burris et al., 2009). Through this students should recognize that dealing with imperfection is inherent in dealing with problems during college. Additionally, many students in college are increasingly faced with intense burdens to balance their academic load as well as personal, family, employment or other duties (Burris et al., 2009). The finding, specific to the MPU campus, may also be associated with the high achieving nature of students at MPU. It is possible that personal expectations and external pressure related to academic performance are associated with being a member of that environment contributes to the findings.

Address students' basic needs first. Additionally, for the LPU campus in particular, findings suggest the campus system provides services for students to help them in addressing their basic needs. From Andre's perspective, "I was doing school full time, work full time, and arguing with them full time." Andre's connectedness on the campus was severely tainted by his experience trying to navigate difficult, bureaucratic terrain with administrators.

From the standpoint of enabling students to feel a sense of personal respect and value from their educational environment (Goodenow, 1993), there is a need to consider ways to engrain in students the benefits of using support services on the campus. Handling challenges without assistance is not something that fosters growth or development in college students. Burris et al. (2009) indicated that there are unique challenges facing college students, however there is more to investigate as it relates to working with students to reframe their perspectives on utilizing the resources early and often.

Counseling resources also help students with strong personal networks.

Findings across campuses suggest there is a need to educate students about the benefits of counseling. Counseling is something available and appropriate for all students, including those who have established personal networks. Brayden indicated that “[MPU] does do a lot to educate on the value of seeking help for mental health issues and things like that.” There is a need to continue, and even expand, this kind of education about the purpose and benefits of counseling. According to Rickwood et al. (2005) and Vogel et al. (2007) engaging with a help-seeking source, such as a professional resource or someone with a personal connection, empowers the individual toward a more active resolution process. More can also be done on the part of administrators working with students to encourage students to recognize the value of accessing a mental health professional when they need assistance. The challenge is in generating an understanding among students that social networks cannot and should not serve the same function as professional counselors. Even those with robust social networks should consider counseling a viable and valuable option.

Increase Accessibility and Visibility of Counseling Center

Findings across both campuses suggest there should be a regular, ongoing marketing effort in place to communicate to students. Findings from LPU and MPU also suggest the marketing initiatives should come from a student perspective and communicate through a student voice. Annette from LPU suggested volunteers for the counseling services office could pass along the message: “hey, we’re here” and give out a “stress ball.” Bahula from MPU suggested that aggregate information about “how many

people, and how they feel after would be useful. Just seeing statistics makes people think it's more valid for some reason.”

In a study by Kaplan et al. (2012), the researchers' findings suggested that attitudes toward seeking help may be positively affected by an intervention strategy using videos. Although this study did not specifically account for video-based interventions, findings suggest students' attitudes may be influenced by such marketing strategies. An implication for practice is related to determining the most effective message(s) to reach students is a core part of the work for counseling center professionals and student affairs practitioners.

Gain students' trust by increasing personal communication efforts

counselors. Across both campuses, there was an overwhelming perception that students contact a counselor for one of two reasons; either they either have no one else with whom to speak in their personal life or they are hesitant to share information with others in their personal life. Brittney at MPU talked about how counseling professionals made an in-person appearance during orientation week and said, “Look I’m here to help you.’ If you ever need help, go to the [Wellness Services Office] and ask for me.” Findings further support work by Vogel et al. (2005) that those who need psychological support are not likely to access resources. There is a need for campus counseling centers to market their services for students who just need help managing problems with an expert problem solver who will listen to their needs. Determining ways to make counseling professionals more accessible is an important next step in the work and student affairs professionals, who work across and within various functional areas at the institution (Dungy as cited by

Komives, Woodward, & Associates et al., 2003), can make impactful contributions to this effort.

Reframe conversations happening on campus to include self-care. Across both campuses findings suggest students understand and regularly talk about the need to look out for others. However, findings suggest the general discussions happening on the campus around well-being should also include a discussion about seeking help for oneself. Reluctance to discuss mental health problems may be associated with social stigma (Quinn et al., 2009). Findings in this study suggest there is general reluctance associated with seeking help and it may be due, at least in part, to feeling there is social stigma involved. Furthermore, according to Rickwood et al. (2005), help-seeking is described as the intersection of something personal and bringing that to an interpersonal level by having a conversation about it. Additional research may provide additional understanding about the reflective and active process involved in seeking assistance. Facilitating conversations about self-care may serve as a step toward encouraging help-seeking.

Strategies for handling negative reputation issues. Findings on both campuses suggest that there is work to be done to improve the reputation of administration and counseling services. At LPU, Andre suggested the counseling services office may “look neutral because people don’t know much about them, but then there’s the rest of [the administration] which looks slightly bad or looks bad which makes them look slightly bad. So that makes people less likely to want to go with... deal with them.” At MPU, a highly involved student leader, commented, “Honestly, I have to admit that that drags down my own perception, even though I know it shouldn’t, but just being a member of the student body it does to some degree.”

Vogel et al. (2007) indicate that accurate information about mental health concerns and treatment should be communicated. This may help provide information to clear up reputational issues associated with misinformation. Additional studies, however, are needed as it relates to communicating with students about what is involved in the counseling process and specific ways to correct misperceptions and deescalate negativity around counseling. Furthermore, student affairs professionals may, again, be useful in providing clarifying information due to misperceptions. Brack et al. (2012) indicated that professionals, faculty and others working on the campus can play a critical role in facilitating help-seeking through their connections with students.

Awareness of counseling services increases when living in residence. Findings specific to LPU suggest that students' residence, whether it is on or off campus, impacts students' sense of belonging. Andre indicated, that for "the majority of people on campus it's like right next to their dorms. So like I don't see them not knowing [about the counseling services office]." Based on a dearth of information in the literature, more research is needed to determine how and to what extent students' place of residence influences awareness of counseling services at their institution.

Sense of belonging and social integration accounted for students living in residence as something that contributed to connectedness on campus. In particular, findings suggest students are more likely to feel connected to the campus if they reside on campus. Baumeister and Leary's (1995) work also suggests that the desire to belong is defined by a need for ongoing contact and acceptance from others.

Enhancements for students in residence. Another finding across campuses suggest the institution needs to consider how and the extent to which systems on the

campus contribute to students' ability to meet their basic needs. Findings in this area should be considered differently across campuses. For LPU, findings suggest the campus is not adequately providing for the needs of students. According to Aaron the campus is: "known to be in kind of dangerous area. So a lot of people don't feel safe when they're going outside and stuff like that." Differently, at MPU, students did not discuss feeling unsafe, however Beatrice commented that MPU needs to "encourage a culture of if something happens while you're here we can help you."

Overall, the issue of meeting students' basic needs is an issue that may be associated to students' sense of belonging to the institution. Hoffman et al. (2002-2003) suggest that sense of belonging is the foundation from which many in higher education begin to understand multifaceted issues such as engagement on campus, student persistence, initiatives to help foster academic success and integration, and many other elements of the student experience. Working to set up structures and initiatives that allow students to better meet their needs is a necessary enhancement to student life on campus.

Limitations

Although the study offered many findings, there are some limitations to consider when interpreting conclusions. There were design limitations, response rate limitations for one campus, and some data were insufficient to meet expected statistical tests. Interpretation of the findings of this study should be done knowing the following limitations.

One design limitation was data was self-reported by the individual student. Self-report data is often times necessary in social science research, however it should be considered as a limitation of the methods of the study.

An additional design limitation had to do with utilizing two different interviewers. The researcher was an MPU employee during the time of the study; therefore another graduate student from LPU was trained to interview MPU participants. Although this was a necessary step to eliminate bias because of the researcher's position at MPU, it is a limitation that the same individual did not conduct interviews across campuses.

In terms of response rates, the small sample size for MPU, which was 18%, should be noted in reviewing the statistical testing. Increasing the sample size to enhance statistical power is necessary going forward for future studies. It may be useful to consider incentives for participation in future studies.

Another limitation had to do with the methodology of measuring likelihood of seeking help on campus. The dependent variable was measured by Likert scale. A stronger measurement technique could have been employed, such as combining the Likert scale into indexes to add values and variability to the data. Future studies about the dependent variable should consider this approach.

Additionally, for MPU, Levene's test of homogeneity of variance did not meet the assumption of homogeneity in the case of one of the ethnicity variables and three of the psychological factors. For LPU, the proportion of women completing the survey was significantly different in this sample than in the population and the ethnic breakdown of respondents was significantly different than the campus population. Additionally, for the LPU block-run regression, the interaction effect of Attitude and Age was dropped from the regression due to low tolerance.

Lastly, the research site sustained an organizational and programmatic shift as it relates to how mental health services are provided. At the time of the study the campus

started providing more expansive community level social services and educational programming. The campus expects that over time more students will be exposed to help sources at an earlier and more frequent rate. The counseling center will continue to perform its core functions. Yet how and when students are connected to the counseling center may look different as a result of these other changes. Creating a more coordinated model of serving students' mental health needs may be impactful on the site campus over time. Future researchers should consider this area of growth in the delivery of mental health services on the site campus.

Contributions to Future Research and Practice

Despite the above noted limitations, there are a number of implications that can contribute to future research and applicable practices associated with enhancing likelihood of undergraduate help-seeking. Additionally, together, student affairs professionals and counseling center clinicians may be able to partner to facilitate help-seeking taking into consider students' sense of belonging and other institutional factors.

Implications for Future Research

Psychological factors. A critical aspect of potential future research is associated with how college students perceive their emotions as it relates to the help-seeking process. The results of this study suggested that many psychological factors contributed to student intention to ask for help from a counselor. As the Rickwood et al. (2005) framework indicates, seeking help is a progression from awareness to expression and availability to willingness. It is possible that some respondents were at a more basic level of identifying their emotional needs and in terms of reflecting on acting by asking for help. One explanation for this may be that students in the study were marginally older than the

general campus population. Vogel et al. (2005) also explain that individual's attitudes change over time based on where they are in their decision making process. Campus officials should be aware of the implications of students' likelihood to seek help because how and when students are choosing to connect to counseling services on the campus are important pieces of information. There are potential implications for how higher education officials approach their work as it relates to the access points to and models of help-seeking on campuses. More about structures in higher education are addressed in a following section.

Although the findings of this study suggested psychological factors had a significant relationship with likelihood to seek psychological assistance on campus, there is more to examine to improve understanding students who are not likely to seek help. For instance, the study suggested that considering demographic, counseling experience, and psychological factors alone, perceived distress does not significantly predict likelihood to access help. Levels of distress and likelihood to access help are critical issues for campuses and more should be done to understand student distress and help-seeking. Students at both campuses may be individuals who are driven by strong personal responsibility and are inclined to resolve their problems on their own. Future research should perhaps consider other psychological factors and demographic information to further understanding of student help-seeking for those who need it the most.

Timing in semester and problem solving. Future research should examine steps students can take to address problems they encounter during college. More research should be done to examine factors involved in this aspect of help-seeking and existing

structures in place through student affairs work to devise new strategies related to the cycle of when students seek academic assistance.

As qualitative findings suggest, there is much to be gained from grappling with mistakes and learning to work with imperfection. Ultimately, the outcome is a better-prepared and more adaptable individual. This is a critical developmental lesson to learn in college (Tinto, 1996). Many students are faced with intense responsibilities during college and the adjustments that are necessary during this time period may make this more difficult (Dusselier et al., 2005). Additional research is needed to examine how students handle imperfection as an area of growth during their time in college. Research in this area may explore how students from different campuses problem-solve through the lens of recognizing imperfection.

Enabling informal help sources to make referrals to counseling services.

Qualitative findings across campuses, as well as from Block 1 regression at LPU, suggest students rely on their peers for general support and are likely to at least initially speak with them when they are faced with a problem (Ender & Newton, 2010). Research also suggests students are likely to learn about the existence of counseling services from another student (Yorgazon et al., 2008). Future research is warranted to understand how campuses can foster these interactions to enhance help-seeking. Ender and Newton (2010) suggest training peer educators to serve in this capacity is an effective model.

There is also a need to consider how likely students are to access those identified, trained peers. Future research can further explore the predictive nature of peer interactions on help-seeking. It is also worthwhile to study interactions students may have with trained student leaders. Additionally, research should explore student-to-student

interactions through more informal networks. Meaning, students are likely going to have more frequent and ongoing contact with their own friend groups, so considering how students in general may be able to contribute to assisting friends make connections with counseling services is a need for the campus. Students who have sought help in the past or are currently in counseling may be help-seeking advocates for their peers. Considering this approach through the lens of the campus environment is also essential and future research can explore approaches to accomplish this.

Findings also suggest that students believe institutions have a set of responsibilities outside of educating students. According to McEwen (2003), research may examine how student affairs work grounded in student development theory (as cited in Komives & Woodard, et al., 2003), may also foster students' access to help sources on the campus. In terms of understanding other aspects of the campus environment on help-seeking the study assessed faculty/staff referrals and peer referrals to the counseling center. Findings suggested that referrals from these individuals, other than peer referrals in Block 1 at LPU, did not significantly predict help-seeking. Therefore, it would be informative for higher education officials to gain additional insight into the nature of these interactions as it relates to asking for assistance for an emotional concern.

According to Vogel et al. (2003), the organization of campus resources have tremendous impact on how students interface with services and seek help. Therefore results of this study suggested that higher education officials and counseling staff have work to be done to possible better equip faculty, staff and students to successfully connect a student in need with counseling resources.

Fostering more interaction with mental health professionals to help with problem-solving. Future research should also expand to learn more about student perceptions about the integration of counseling centers into the support network on campus. Additional contributions could be made into how the counseling center aligns with other resources, how referral agents and students themselves perceive usefulness and effectiveness of counseling, and how individuals identify signs that counseling may be a good step in resolving a problem. Brack et al. (2012) indicated that professionals, faculty and others working on the campus can play a critical role in facilitating help-seeking through their connections with students. Further research into the area of student affairs functions and the manner in which the systems are designed to meet students' overall needs, especially well-being related needs, is warranted. Especially, as Winston stated, "the helping process seeks to create conditions where helpers can learn how to solve their present and future problems using their own resources," and this is a key lesson for students to learn while enrolled in college (as cited in Komives, Woodard & Associates et al., 2003, p. 486). Student affairs professionals are well-positioned on campuses to teach students the importance of this life-lesson about their capabilities to problem-solve.

Furthermore, considering particular aspects of student success in context of psychological help-seeking would provide broader input into the work of higher education practitioners. Learning more about the factors involved in students' decisions to seek help may enable individuals in formal and informal help-seeking roles to aid students in more effective ways. This may allow higher education officials and counseling professionals to be better prepared to help students in need devise effective support systems on campus.

Implications for Practice

In terms of practice, findings offer many opportunities to implement initiatives in student affairs practice. Ultimately, student affairs work is the vehicle through which coordination of student life decisions and conversations are fostered (McEwen as cited by Komives, Woodward, & Associates et al., 2003). Qualitative findings across campuses indicated that students are likely to reach out to individuals in their personal network as a means of accessing help. Student affairs professionals, according to Dungy (2003), are positioned in various locations across the campus (as cited in Komives, Woodward, & Associates et al., 2003), serve in an advising capacity to students in leadership positions, interact with students seeking assistance for many types of problems, and are instrumental in helping students access many services on the campus. These professionals, widely and dispersed on the campus can serve in a key role in facilitating greater help-seeking.

There are a number of specific areas in which student affairs practitioners can work to implement findings. First, sense of belonging and academic help-seeking will be explored. Second, ways to establish more informal interactions with counseling and student affairs professionals will be explained. Third, ways to foster more individualized notions of social involvement on campus will be discussed. Fourth, ways to gain students' trust about accessing resources will be explored. Fifth, techniques to handle counseling services reputational issues will be discussed. More about each of these areas will be noted in the following section.

Sense of Belonging and Academic Integration. First, qualitative findings suggest students are likely to reach out for help for academic problems and concerns on a

regular basis. In terms of feeling academically connected to the campus, which is a core element to students' sense of belonging (Ackermann & Morrow, 2007-2008), faculty and student affairs professionals serving as academic advisors may be able to facilitate students getting connected to mental health resources on the campus. Across both campuses, findings suggest students believe faculty care about students' success and overall experience on the campus.

Faculty and student interactions may also directly contribute to students remaining enrolled and persisting toward graduation (O'Keeffe, 2013). Thompson (2012) work also suggests that due to students' willingness to seek help from academic resources as compared with contacting the counseling center for support, campuses may best serve students by collapsing academic services into counseling departments. This may help enable students to get counseling support when they seek out academic services on the campus (Thompson, 2012).

Ultimately, if students are inclined to reach out to faculty, in particular, for support as they work through academic difficulties, there is an opportunity for faculty to support students in making contact with a counselor. Faculty should be trained to recognize their role as referral agents and to view their conversations with students as an opportunity to help them address their academic difficulties, and as a chance to foster willingness to access counseling for additional assistance. Granted, some faculty may be disinclined to assist students in this way, however calling attention to these interactions with students as, potentially, a critical moment to support the overall success of students may elicit collaboration on the part of many faculty members.

Increasing informal interactions with counselors. Second, another component of enhancing students' interaction with informal help sources, to encourage more MHHS, can be done through informal interactions with counseling professionals in various settings and meetings on the campus. Findings also suggest that having personal conversations between students and campus officials about counseling services may foster greater awareness and trust in these campus resources. Qualitative findings across both campuses suggest that it would be effective if counselors made announcements in classes, meetings and other venues. Having face-to-face contact with students, to a certain extent, may help foster greater visibility of these staff and, more importantly, enable students to view these professionals as people who want to help them. To minimize concerns about counselor confidentiality (Winston as cited in Komives, Woodard, & Associates, et al., 2003), student affairs professionals can fulfill these outreach duties around the campus.

Disillusionment with level of social involvement. Third, qualitative findings suggest at MPU there is a pervasive expectation that students engage with the campus in very particular ways. From the standpoint of enabling students to make their own decisions about how they social integrate on the campus, there is a need for practitioners to have conversations with individual students and groups of students from various populations across the campus. Student affairs professionals can help reinforce the ability of students to engage as individuals and, to the extent it is possible generate discussions on campus about the value in individuation in terms of social involvement. Student affairs professionals can also help shift the conversation about involvement on campus.

Gain students' trust by increasing personal communication efforts. Fourth, student affairs professionals are also well-positioned to assist with this task of talking to students, in general terms, about support services available on campus. According to Dungy (2003), as cited in Komives, Woodward, and Associates et al. (2003), student affairs professionals are involved in many functions on the campus and have an expansive presence in terms of being represented in various departments across campuses. Due to the broad representation across campuses, student affairs staff to help students in many facets of their college experience. These staff members are also more likely to be known and trusted members of the campus' administrative team.

Qualitative findings suggest these conversations can take place in student leadership meetings, in classes, and in many other venues. Therefore, student affairs staff can be trained by counseling professionals to facilitate these informal discussions, which would enable a broader reach when it comes to informing students about counseling resources. Additionally, these conversations would be able to take place through pre-existing meetings and these conversations could, therefore, unfold organically as student affairs professionals perform their day-to-day duties with students on the campus.

Strategies for handling negative reputation issues. Fifth, qualitative findings across both campuses suggest students may have misperceptions about the counseling process. Counseling professionals can partner with other student affairs professionals to communicate an accurate, coordinated message about the counseling process. Through this work, student affairs professionals may be able to help students gain clarity around the counseling approach and, just as important, these professionals can be informed about the counseling process to address questions and concerns students may bring to their

attention. As Thompson's (2012) findings also suggest, professionals working in academic areas on the campus should work closely with counseling center professionals to "demystify and de-stigmatize" the counseling for students with whom they work (p. 65). Student affairs professionals, therefore, should be provided information to dissuade any of their own misunderstandings about the counseling process. By working with partners in student affairs offices, more students will be become more informed about the services available on the campus and, ultimately, facilitate more students seeking help when they need assistance.

Summary

Conclusions drawn from the study suggest that across campuses, some demographic and psychological factors, informal social networks, level of social and academic integration on the campus, and methods of enabling visibility of counseling influence likelihood to seek help. While there are generally consistent findings across campuses, meaning likelihood to seek help and campus factors do not vary, there are some findings specific to one site campus. There are also many implications for future research and practice.

There are also many implications for practices associated with considering academic and personal problem-solving, and key opportunities for assisting students with accessing help during interactions with faculty and student affairs professionals. There is a need for practitioners to foster a greater sense of individual difference associated with making personal decisions about involvement on the campus. Students need to feel empowered to make and feel secure in their decision-making around engagement on the campus, which is an important factor to sense of belonging. Student affairs practitioners

are critical in helping students gain understanding and trust in the mental health resources on the campus. There is a strong desire on the part of students to have greater accessibility and visibility of information about counseling, particularly in the form of personal interactions with professionals. Based on their scope and various responsibilities on campuses (Dungy as cited in Komives, Woodard, & Associates, et al., 2003), student affairs professionals are key partners in this work with clinicians. Practitioners also need to work to dispel misperceptions and correct misinformation about counseling services. These challenges may discourage students from seeking help and will assist practitioners in feeling more confident in their work as referral sources to counseling.

Researchers should focus on ways to continually examine demographics and psychological predictors of help-seeking because there are many unanswered questions related particular aspects of willingness to seek help. Specifically, research should consider other psychological factors and demographic information to further understanding of student help-seeking for those who need it the most. There is also a need to consider factors related to when students may be more inclined to seek help on the campus. Timing initiatives to remind students about services and foster help-seeking should be considered. Additionally, further examination of ways informal help-seeking sources can be involved in furthering help-seeking for students is essential.

There are still many unanswered questions in the field of help-seeking and the influence of campus environment, but conclusions suggest that individual differences are critical factors in help-seeking and there are elements of the campus environment that foster help-seeking behavior. There is work student affairs professionals and practitioners, together, can do to enhance students' awareness of, knowledge about and trust in

counseling as an option. Additional commitments from institutions to foster responsibility in student affairs professionals, student leaders, and others in students' informal networks to foster help-seeking for students in need will advance this work in the field of higher education.

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Appendix A

Hopkins Symptom Checklist- 21

Instructions: How have you felt during the past seven days including today? Use the Hopkins Symptom Checklist - 21 following scale to describe how distressing you have found these things over time.

Not at All	A little	Quite a bit	Extremely
1	2	3	4

1. Difficulty in speaking when you are excited. ____
2. Trouble remembering things. ____
3. Worried about sloppiness or carelessness. ____
4. Blaming yourself for things. ____
5. Pains in the lower part of your back. ____
6. Feeling lonely. ____
7. Feeling blue. ____
8. Your feeling being easily hurt. ____
9. Feeling others do not understand you or are unsympathetic. ____
10. Feeling that people are unfriendly or dislike you. ____
11. Having to do things very slowly in order to be sure you are doing them right. ____
12. Feeling inferior to others. ____
13. Soreness of your muscles. ____
14. Having to check and double-check what you do. ____
15. Hot or cold spells. ____
16. Your mind going blank. ____
17. Numbness or tingling in parts of your body. ____
18. A lump in your throat. ____
19. Trouble concentrating. ____
20. Weakness in parts of your body. ____
21. Heavy feelings in your arms and legs. ____

Appendix B

Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale

Instructions: Please read the following statements and rate them using the scale provide. Rate each question while considering the university's counseling center as the source of professional psychological help. Indicate the rating that most accurately reflects your agreement or disagreement for the following items. There are no "wrong" answers, just rate the statements as you honestly feel or believe. It is important that you answer every item.

Disagree			Agree
1	2	3	4

1. If I believed I was having a mental breakdown, my first inclination would be to get professional help. _____
2. The idea of talking about problems with a psychologist strikes me as a poor way to get rid of emotional conflicts. _____
3. If I were experiencing a serious emotional crisis at this point in my life, I would be confident that I could find relief in psychotherapy. _____
4. There is something admirable in the attitude of a person who is willing to cope with his or her conflicts and fears without resorting to help. _____
5. I would want to get psychological help if I were worried or upset for a long period of time. _____
6. I might want to have psychological counseling in the future. _____
7. A person with an emotional problem is not likely to solve it alone; he or she is likely to solve it with professional help. _____
8. Considering the time and expense involved in psychotherapy, it would have doubtful value for a person like me. _____
9. A person should work out his or her own problems; getting psychological counseling would be a last resort. _____
10. Personal and emotional troubles, like many things, tend to work out by themselves

Appendix C

Social Provisions Scale

Instructions: In answering the following questions, think about your current relationships with friends, family members, co-workers, community members, and so on. Please indicate to what extent each statement describes your current relationships with other people. Use the following scale to indicate your opinion.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4

1. There are people I can depend on to help me if I really need it. ____
2. I feel that I do not have close personal relationships with other people. ____
3. There is no one I can turn to for guidance in times of stress. ____
4. There are people who depend on me for help. ____
5. There are people who enjoy the same social activities I do. ____
6. Other people do not view me as competent. ____
7. I feel personally responsible for the well-being of another person. ____
8. I feel part of a group of people who share my attitudes and beliefs. ____
9. I do not think other people respect my skills and abilities. ____
10. If something went wrong, no one would come to my assistance. ____
11. I have close relationships that provide me with a sense of emotional security and well-being. ____
12. There is someone I could talk to about important decisions in my life. ____
13. I have relationships where my competence and skill are recognized. ____
14. There is no one who shares my interests and concerns. ____

Appendix D

Self-Concealment Scale

Instructions: Please rate the degree to which you agree with each statement.

Strongly Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly Agree

5

1. I have an important secret that I haven't shared with anyone. _____
2. If I shared all my secrets with my friends, they'd like me less. _____
3. There are a lot of things about me that I keep to myself. _____
4. Some of my secrets have really tormented me. _____
5. When something bad happens to me, I tend to keep it to myself. _____
6. I'm often afraid I'll reveal something I don't want to. _____
7. Telling a secret often backfires and I wish I hadn't told it. _____
8. I have a secret that is so private I would like if anybody asked me about it. _____
9. My secrets are too embarrassing to share with others. _____
10. I have negative thoughts about myself that I never share with anyone. _____

Appendix E

Demographic inventory

Instructions: Please answer each question as completely and honestly as possible. All information collected will be confidential and anonymous.

1. What is your age? _____
2. What is your sex? _____
3. What is your race/ethnicity? _____
4. Are you a United States citizen? Yes _____ No _____
5. What is your year in school based on the year you matriculated, not credit hours completed?
Freshman _____ Sophomore _____ Junior _____ Senior _____ Fifth year _____
Sixth year _____
6. What is your declared major or anticipated major? _____
7. If you are a returning student, what is your institutional cumulative G.P.A? _____. Or, if you are a new student, please provide high school G.P.A. at graduation _____ including high school G.P.A. scale _____
8. Have you ever sought psychological counseling prior to your enrollment in college?
Yes _____ No _____
10. If you answered yes, to number 9 above, how many times did you seek psychological counseling (not number of sessions, but number of times you initiated contact with a counselor for a particular problem)? _____
11. Have you ever sought services at the Campus Counseling Center during your enrollment for a personal or emotional problem?
Yes _____ No _____
12. Are you currently seeking services at the counseling center for a personal or emotional problem?
Yes _____ No _____
13. If you answered yes, to number 12 above, how many times did you seek counseling (not number of sessions, but number of times you initiated contact with the counseling center for a particular problem)? _____
14. Has a campus official (professor, faculty advisor, faculty master in residence, resident associate, staff member) ever encouraged you to attend a counseling session at the counseling center?
Yes _____ No _____
15. If you answered yes to number 14 above, which individual(s) encouraged you to attend a counseling session at the counseling center (indicate role or position on campus)? _____
16. Has another peer or classmate ever encouraged you to attend a counseling assessment at the counseling center?
Yes _____ No _____
17. Have you ever been required to attend a counseling assessment by a campus official at the counseling center during your enrollment?
Yes _____ No _____

18. What is the extent to which you are likely to access professional psychological help on campus if you have an emotional or personal problem during your enrollment?

Not likely _____ Somewhat likely _____ Likely _____ Extremely likely _____

19. What is the extent to which you are likely to access professional psychological help from an off campus provider if you have an emotional or personal problem during your enrollment?

Not likely _____ Somewhat likely _____ Likely _____ Extremely likely _____

Appendix F
Screening Questionnaire

If you are willing to potentially participate in the individual interview component of this research study, please complete this brief form. After selecting a sample of interview participants, the researcher will contact you to ask if you would be willing to meet for an individual interview.

Thank you for your interest. If you have any questions, you may contact the researcher at XXX-XXX-XXXX. You may also contact the faculty sponsor at XXX-XXX-XXXX (Names and phone numbers removed to protect anonymity of the site campuses).

1. What year and semester did you start college?

(For example, please indicate "Fall 2014" if you started college in Fall 2014, regardless of how many credit hours you entered college having already completed.)

Please note that participants must be 18 years-of-age or older to participate in the individual interview, which the researcher will contact you about if you are interested.

2. What University do you attend?

☐ MPU

☐ LPU

Please read the following two statements and rate them using the scale provided.

3. I feel I am a member of the campus community.

☐ Strongly disagree

☐ Disagree

☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree

☐ Agree

☐ Strongly Agree

4. I would want to get psychological help if I were worried or upset for a long period of time.

☐ Strongly disagree

☐ Disagree

☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree

☐ Agree

☐ Strongly Agree

5. Did you previously participate in the on-line survey associated with this study? The same researcher conducted the survey this semester and the survey invitation was entitled: "Opportunity to Participate in Research: SURVEY about Undergraduate Student Help Seeking at the University Counseling Center" Potential answer: "Yes"; "No"; or "Don't know".

6. If you would be willing to potentially participate in an individual interview, please provide an email address you can be reached to schedule a meeting.

Or, if you are not interested in participating in the interview, please type "No thanks" in the text box provided.

☐ Yes. Please contact me at this e-mail address:

☐ No, not at this time. Please type "No thanks" in text box

Appendix G

Intake Form

Please answer the questions to the best of your ability by circling the item, checking the most applicable item, or writing in your response. You may skip questions or refuse to answer any questions. Feel free to ask the researcher any questions if you are unsure about what the item is asking.

General Demographic Information

1. What is your age? _____
2. What is your sex? _____
3. What is your race/ethnicity?

4. Are you a United States citizen? Yes No
5. Where do you reside? **Please circle your answer.**
On campus Off-campus on my own/with roommate(s) Off-campus with
my family
6. What is your year in school based on the year you matriculated, not credit hours completed? **Please circle your answer.**
Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior Fifth year Sixth year
Other
7. What is your declared major or anticipated major(s)?

8. How many credit hours are you enrolled in this semester?

9. If you are a LPU student, did you also complete the survey in Sona about
Likelihood to Seek Help from A Campus Counseling Center? Yes No
10. If you are a returning student, what is your institutional cumulative G.P.A.? _____
Or, if you are a new student, please provide high school G.P.A. at graduation
_____ including high school G.P.A. scale _____

Please go to next page.

Background Information about Perceptions of Your Institution

Instructions: How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

Please circle one answer for each statement.

11. I see myself as part of the campus community.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly agree

12. I feel that I am a member of the campus community.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly agree

13. I feel a sense of belonging to my campus.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly agree

Background Information about Attitudes about Seeking Psychological Help

Instructions: Please read the following statements and rate them using the scale provide. Rate each question while considering the university's counseling center as the source of professional psychological help. Indicate the rating that most accurately reflects your agreement or disagreement for the following items. There are no "wrong" answers, just rate the statements as you honestly feel or believe.

Please circle one answer for each statement.

14. If I believed I was having a mental breakdown, my first inclination would be to get professional help.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly agree

15. The idea of talking about problems with a psychologist strikes me as a poor way to get rid of emotional conflicts.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly agree

16. If I were experiencing a serious emotional crisis at this point in my life, I would be confident that I could find relief in psychotherapy.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly agree

17. There is something admirable in the attitude of a person who is willing to cope with his or her conflicts and fears without resorting to help.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly agree

Please go to next page.

18. I would want to get psychological help if I were worried or upset for a long period of time.

1 2 3 4 5
Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree Strongly agree

19. I might want to have psychological counseling in the future.

1 2 3 4 5
Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree Strongly agree

20. A person with an emotional problem is not likely to solve it alone; he or she is likely to solve it with professional help.

1 2 3 4 5
Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree Strongly agree

21. Considering the time and expense involved in psychotherapy, it would have doubtful value for a person like me.

1 2 3 4 5
Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree Strongly agree

22. A person should work out his or her own problems; getting psychological counseling would be a last resort.

1 2 3 4 5
Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree Strongly agree

23. Personal and emotional troubles, like many things, tend to work out by themselves.

1 2 3 4 5
Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree Strongly agree

Background Information about Accessing Counseling Services on Campus

Instructions: Please read the following statements and provide the most accurate answer you can.

Please circle one answer for each statement.

24. Are you aware that enrolled students have counseling services available to them?

Yes No

25. Have you ever contacted your campus's counseling to ask for help?

Yes No

26. Have you ever contacted your campus's counseling center to ask for help for a friend of yours?

Yes No

Please go to next page.

27. Have you ever sought services as a client your campus's counseling during your enrollment for a personal or emotional problem?

Yes No

28. To what extent are you likely to access professional psychological help on campus if you have an emotional or personal problem during your enrollment?

1	2	3	4
Not likely	Somewhat likely	Likely	Extremely likely

Last page.

Appendix H
Interview Protocol

Domain 1: Sense of belonging at the University

Lead-off question:

1. Please think about your experiences at the institution since becoming a student at the University. Could you give me an idea about the kinds of things you've done or participated in at the University? This could be attending social events, taking part in optional academic workshops or research, working on the campus, being involved in student leadership organizations, or many other things.

(NOTE: If participant says they have not been involved in any activities or used to be involved but no longer is, then the researcher will ask: Any other big responsibilities or commitments you have right now, outside of academic obligations?)

Follow up question:

2. On your Intake Form you said you feel close (or not so close) to other members of the University. Can you talk more about who some of those people generally are for you? When you think about this, what are the top reasons why you feel that way?

(NOTE: If Intake Form indicates they do not feel close to others on campus, researcher will ask them: Are there are other groups you feel like you are a part of outside campus? Why do you think you feel like you belong to that group?

3. Do you think you feel similarly to other students at your campus in terms of feeling like a part of the University? Any examples of this you can think of to share?

4. Are there things the institution has done, or not done, which contribute to or detract from how you feel about your sense of belonging on the campus? Anything the University could do differently to help you with this or anything else that might help others who maybe feel more disconnected to the University?

Domain 2: Accessing support for problem solving

Lead-off question:

5. In general, are some things you think cause stress for college students? What are some things you think college students generally do to try to address those things?

Follow-up questions:

6. What are some problems you think college students find easier to ask for help from other people? Any types of problems do you think college students may be willing to talk to a counselor about?

7. What are some types of issues or problems that may make college students more reluctant to seek help and why do you think that may be? Anything the campus counseling department can do to help when students may be reluctant to ask for help?

8. Have you ever been in a situation where you had a friend (ideally a friend at the University) who really needed help? What happened to him/her? Tell me a little about it. (NOTE: Researcher will remind participant not to share name or identifying information about the other person(s).)

(NOTE: If participants states the individual is a friend from the University, researcher will ask: Do you know if the friend was aware there was help available on the campus? Could the institution have done anything differently to help the friend?)

9. Would you approach an academic issue in the same manner you would something that feels more like a wellbeing or emotional concern? What are the similarities or differences that come to mind about your approach to these different sets of problems?

10. Sometimes people think that asking for help from a counselor is just not an option for them. People feel this way even if someone is feeling a great deal of discomfort for quite a long period of time. How would you describe your own attitudes about seeking help when things are difficult for extended periods of time? What do you think other students at your University think about this? Anything the University counseling department can do to help in instances like this?

Domain 3: Campus environment and experience connecting with the campus counseling department

Lead-off question:

11. How supportive do you think your University is in general of its students? What are some of the things you've noticed that your campus does that are helpful for students? Anything not so helpful? What do you think is the role of the University in helping students with nonacademic issues?

Follow-up questions:

12. On your Intake Form you mentioned that you were (or were not) aware that students at the University could access counseling services on campus. If you are aware of the department, what do you know about the services they offer students? Are there things about the structure of how support is provided on the campus that is helpful in terms of getting the word out about the resources available on the campus? Anything about how the University is structured or organized that detracts from students' awareness of these resources?

(NOTE: If participant states they are unaware of the department, then researcher will ask for ideas about ways the University and/or counseling department can work to get the word out to students about services.)

13. How aware do you think other students of the existence of the campus counseling department? Has anyone ever talked to you about the department being a resource for students? Have you ever talked to another student on campus about the department being a resource for them?

(NOTE: Regardless of participant answer to the second question, researcher will provide participant list of resources available on and off the campus to inform them about options for services.)

14. So you mentioned on your Intake Form that you would/would not be willing to seek help from the campus counseling center. Can you tell me more about that? What comes

to mind when you think about the counseling process? What seems appealing? Anything not so good?

15. We're getting closer to the end of the semester now, would you say timing in the semester plays a role in your thinking about students being willing or unwilling to seek help from the counseling department? Any other factors you think that may be involved in someone's willingness to ask for help at the campus counseling department?

Closing

16. Is there anything else that our conversation we did not cover that you're thinking about in regards to asking for help from the campus counseling department? Anything else the University can or should do to encourage students to seek help when they need it?

17. Do you have any questions for me? Thank you for your time.

Appendix I

Training Outline for MPU Graduate Student Interviewer

Prior to conducting interviews at MPU, the researcher trained the graduate student interviewer by reviewing the following items and procedures. The graduate student has experience facilitating interviews with participants and has knowledge of Carspecken's (1996) general analysis process. Detailed training procedures are noted below:

Overview of study

1. The graduate student was provided an overview of the study. Specifically, the researcher explained:
 - a. An overview of the mental health help-seeking; sense of belonging and mental health help-seeking literature; and student affairs and clinicians working together to provide counseling services;
 - b. The research questions;
 - c. The research methodology; and
 - d. Sampling and data collection procedures
2. The graduate student was provided a copy of each of each of the qualitative instruments and each instrument was explained. In particular, the researcher discussed the rationale behind each component and talked about each element of the instrumentation. The instruments discussed included:
 - a. Invitation e-mail to participate in the study
 - b. Screening Questionnaire in Qualtrics
 - c. Consent to participate in study
 - d. Intake Form
 - e. Interview protocol
 - f. Campus resources list
3. Overview of Carspecken's (1996) methodology including information about:
 - a. Multiple realities of qualitative research according to our beliefs and what we experience (constructionist perspective);
 - b. The nature of social and other power differentials in qualitative research;
 - c. Creation of the primary record; and
 - d. Observational and interview-based studies
4. The researcher asked the graduate student if they have any questions about the study or feel as though they needed additional information about the study.

Interview implementation planning

5. Explanation of how to handle the logistics of arranging for and meeting with participants on the MPU campus
6. Information about coding interviews transcripts and limited access to those pieces of information
7. Step-by-step process to employ during the interview such as:
 - a. Discussion about consent;
 - b. How to handle audio-recording (contingent upon a signed release or transcribing notes if individual does not agree to audio-recording);

- c. Intake form (Paying close attention to response to numbers: 13, 23 and 26 and 27 prior to leading into the interview. Knowing the participant's responses to these questions will help facilitate the interview); and
 - d. Interview protocol
- 8. Detailed information about interview strategies and when to employ them. This information was discussed by using the Interview Protocol as a guide and example for how to handle responses.
 - a. Explanation of a semi-structured interview and goal of maximizing flexibility in the interview (Carspecken, 1996)
 - i. Lead-off questions
 - ii. Nature of the questions to gather perceptions of students in general, not personal, private experiences
 - iii. Reality that those being interviewed may expect to not be listened to and may approach the interview in a particularly formal way
 - b. Goal of "democratiz[ing]" the research approach through the interviews (Carspecken, 1996, p. 155) and the desire to equalize any power imbalance (Carspecken, 1996)-- (Part of subjective validity process)
 - i. Role of facilitator and guide and what this means during the interview itself to create an environment that is as normative and supportive as possible (Carspecken, 1996)
 - ii. Encourage participants to use terms in most natural way
 - iii. Using non-leading questions
 - c. Response to interviewees, based on Carspecken's (1996) explanation of interview responses
 - i. "Bland encouragement:" Overall goal of being non-leading and ways to accomplish this by non-verbals and one-word statements (Carspecken, 1996, p. 159). This sort of response should be used frequently, especially at the beginning of the interview to establish a neutral and interested foundation for the interview (Carspecken, 1996).
 - ii. "Low-inference paraphrasing:" Create a rhythm of responses by incorporating some restatements of the information (Carspecken, 1996, p. 159). This can be used when the participant seems to expect some sort of reaction from the interviewer and when mostly bland encouragement has been used (Carspecken, 1996).
 - iii. "Nonleading leads:" Indicates interest or attention to what the participant is saying without communicating an opinion about what the participant has stated (Carspecken, 1996, p. 160). This can be used often throughout the interview and can alternate this type of response with low-inference paraphrasing.
 - iv. "Active listening:" The interviewer can use this build greater rapport (Carspecken, 1996). However, it is important to note that it is somewhat risky to utilize this approach because the rapport may not yet be strong. Therefore researchers should use it sparingly and it should not appear early in the interview (Carspecken, 1996).

- v. “Medium-inference paraphrasing.” This is something that communicates a slight reference to something the researcher noted in the background (Carspecken, 1996, p. 160). Medium-interference paraphrasing is best used toward the middle to the end of the interview and it should be used interchangeably throughout this section (Carspecken, 1996).
 - vi. “High-inference paraphrases.” Communicates a message about suspected background beliefs and it is more direct in nature than the response examples noted above (Carspecken, 1996, p. 161). It is essential this response is reserved for the end of the interview, so as not to derail the remainder of the conversation if an assumption is not well received by the participant (Carspecken, 1996).
- 9. The researcher will ask the graduate student to pick a domain area and practice asking the researcher those questions
- 10. Although not anticipated, the researcher will discuss plans for how to handle any student concerns that arise during the interview
 - a. Discussion about campus and emergency resources available for students at MPU and providing that information to students
- 11. Overview of the member checking and peer debriefing process to take place after interviews.
- 12. Discussed plan to have graduate student provide a write-up of the interview interpretations after conducting the interviews
 - a. For each of the five interviews, the graduate student will document observations, perspectives and questions from each interview
 - b. These notes will help enable the researcher to gain perspective about the interview from the graduate student
 - c. The interpretations will also serve as a reference for researcher during data analysis
- 13. The researcher will ask the graduate student if there are any unanswered questions or if additional information is needed to conduct the interviews

Appendix J

Institutional Review Board Approval Document

UNIVERSITY of HOUSTON

DIVISION OF RESEARCH

November 14, 2014

Kathleen Noonan
c/o Dr. Catherine Horn
Dean, Education

Dear Kathleen Noonan,

The University of Houston Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects (1) reviewed your research proposal entitled "Likelihood of Undergraduate Student Help Seeking at the University Counseling Center and Influence of Institutional Factors" on November 7, 2014, according to institutional guidelines.

The Committee has given your project approval pending clarification of the stipulations listed below:

- The response to question 6.01 should indicate the number of participants from the University of Houston.

You must submit evidence of compliance with the above stipulations online via the Research Administration Management Portal (RAMP), by December 14, 2014. The material you submit to meet these contingencies must be certified by the Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects as acceptable before you may begin data collection. If you fail to respond by this date, your approval may be revoked. This would necessitate your reapplying to the Committee prior to initiation of your research project. Research without the Committee's sanction could result in an administrative block to the receipt of your degree.

In order to expedite review, please prepare a cover letter that explains the response to each item. Once you met these requirements, this project must be reviewed annually, or prior to any change approved procedures.

If you have any questions, please contact Samoya Copeland at (713) 743-9534.

Sincerely yours,



Dr. Daniel O'Connor, Chair
Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects (1)

Protocol Number: 13398-01

Full Review: ____ Expedited Review: X

316 E. Cullen Building Houston, TX 77204-2015 (713) 743-9204 Fax: (713) 743-9577

COMMITTEES FOR THE PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS.

