THE EFFECTS OF ATHLETIC PARTICIPATION, EXPECTATIONS ABOUT COUNSELING AND GENDER ON ATTITUDES TOWARD HELP SEEKING BEHAVIORS AMONG COMMUNITY COLLEGE STUDENTS

by

JOSE I. FERNANDEZ

B.S. University of Florida, 1996
M.E.S.S. University of Florida, 1998

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Education
in the Department of Educational Research, Technology, and Leadership
in the College of Education
at the University of Central Florida
Orlando, Florida

Spring Term
2005

Major Professor: Dr. William C. Bozeman

© Jose Fernandez

ABSTRACT

Researchers have determined that college student-athletes are an underrepresented population when it comes to utilizing college counseling services. Traditional students have appeared for counseling services more so than student-athletes. The primary purpose of this study was to assess the relationships between attitudes toward help seeking behavior and (a) expectations about counseling, (b) athlete status, and (c) gender of respondent among community college students. The study included 195 students at a central Florida community college, 74 student-athletes and 121 non-athlete students. The participants were asked to convey their counseling expectations by completing the Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form. Respondents were also asked to complete the Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale to measure their attitudes toward help seeking behavior. Further qualitative data was accumulated during an interview with one student-athlete from each of the five intercollegiate athletic teams.

For this study, two hypotheses were considered. First, it was hypothesized that a significant relationship existed between attitudes toward help seeking behavior and expectations about counseling and that expectations about counseling were expected to account for a significant amount of variance in attitudes toward help seeking behavior. Results of the data analyses revealed that respondents' attitudes toward help-seeking behavior correlated significantly with only two of the four counseling expectation factors. A positive correlation was

discovered for the factor of Personal Commitment and a negative correlation for the factor of Counselor Expertise. Linear regression analysis supported that expectations about counseling were expected to account for a significant amount of variance in attitudes toward help-seeking behavior.

The second hypothesis hypothesized that there would be no statistically significant difference in attitudes toward help-seeking behavior based on athletic participation (student-athlete versus non-athlete students) or gender of respondent. The results of a MANOVA indicated that gender of respondent did have a statistically significant effect on attitudes toward help-seeking behavior; therefore this hypothesis was only partially supported.

Based on these findings, implications for counseling student-athletes and non-athlete students are discussed. Interpretations of data analyses are included and study limitations and delimitations are identified. Finally, suggestions for future research are identified and discussed.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

It is with sincere appreciation and honor that I recognize my Doctoral Dissertation Committee Chair Dr. William C. Bozeman, and other Committee members, Dr. Charles Carroll, Dr. David Harrison, and Dr. Karl Mooney. I want to thank you for your time, effort, and patience as I worked through this difficult process. Your suggestions and guidance were critical ingredients in the successful completion of this project.

Additionally, a hearty thank you is owed to Dr. Kent Sharples for his extraordinary foresight in developing the Beacon Leadership program. You committed yourself to prepare tomorrow's leaders today and I can only hope that I live up to the lofty standards you have set forth. Without your financial and motivational support it would have been difficult to complete this program.

I would also like to thank my peers in the Beacon Leadership program. Without your support and encouragement this would have been a very difficult and lonely journey. A special thank you is owed to my supervisor Charlene Latimer who allowed me the flexibility to accomplish my goals. I would also like to extend my appreciation to Will Dunne. Without your initial encouragement I would not be in the position I am today.

Lastly, a special thank you is owed to Dr. Mary Ann Lynn. Your editorial assistance allowed me to sleep at night. Heaven only knows where I would be today without your dedication and knowledge.

I wish to thank my wife Kristen for her unwavering loyalty and patience during my doctoral studies, my children Briana, Armand, and Carlo who served as my inspiration, and my parents Emilio and Emilia who have sacrificed so much on my behalf. I could not have done this without all of your support.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES x

CHAPTER 1 THE PROBLEM AND ITS CLARIFYING COMPONENTS 1

Introduction 1
Unique Challenges Faced by College Student-Athletes 6
Social Challenges 7
Managing Athletic Successes and Failures 9
Physical Injury 10
Separation Anxiety 10
Substance Abuse Issues 11
Weight Management and Eating Disorders 12
Statement of the Problem 13
Conceptual Framework 14
Research Questions 15
Definition of Key Terms 15
Design of the Study 16
Study Population 17
Significance of the Study 18
Delimitations and Limitations 19
Delimitations 19
Limitations 19
Organization of the Study 20

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE 21

Challenges Encountered by College Students 21
Appropriate Developmental Issues of College Students 22
College Student-Athletes 26
Unique Challenges Faced by Student-Athletes 27
College and University Counseling Service 38
Expectations About Counseling 40
Expectations Defined 41
Theoretical Foundations of Counseling Expectations 41
Categories of Counseling Expectations Research 42
Expectations About Counseling 45
Expectations and Respondent Ethnicity 45
Expectations and Client Stages of Change 47

Expectations and Counselor and Client Gender ... 48
Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior ... 49
Internal Barriers ... 49
External Barriers ... 52
Student-Athlete Attitudes Toward Help Seeking Behavior ... 53
Barriers to the Utilization of Counseling Services ... 54
Internal Barriers ... 55
External Barriers ... 56

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY ... 61

Research Questions and Hypotheses ... 61
Participants ... 62
Instrumentation ... 63
Expectations About Counseling--Brief Form ... 63
Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale (ATSPPHS) ... 64
Reliability Analyses ... 66
Instrument Reliability ... 67
Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale ... 67
Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form ... 67
Demographic Questionnaire ... 68
Procedure ... 69
Data Analysis ... 70
Student-Athlete Interviews ... 72

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS ... 74

Preliminary Data Analyses ... 74
Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables ... 76
Testing of Research Hypotheses ... 77
Hypothesis 1 ... 77
Hypothesis 2 ... 79
Additional Analyses ... 82
Results of Student-Athlete Interviews ... 84

CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS ... 87

Description of Sample ... 87
Description of Study Variables ... 88
Research Analysis of Research Hypotheses and Open Ended Questions ... 89
Hypothesis 1 ... 89
Research Hypothesis 2 ... 92
Qualitative Question 1 ... 94
Qualitative Question 2 ... 95
Implications for Counseling ... 97
Counseling Student-Athletes ... 97

Counseling Non-Athletes ... 100
Recommendations for Future Research ... 101
Limitations of the Current Study ... 102
A Priori Group Differences ... 102
Sampling Methods ... 103
Generalizability ... 103
Conclusions ... 104

APPENDIX A ATTITUDES TOWARD SEEKING PROFESSIONAL PSYCHOLOGICAL HELP SCALE ... 106

APPENDIX B EXPECTATIONS ABOUT COUNSELING (FORM B) ... 110

APPENDIX C DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE ... 116

APPENDIX D IRB APPROVAL LETTER ... 119

APPENDIX E CONSENT INFORMATION SHEET ... 121

LIST OF REFERENCES ... 123

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients for the Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale (ATSPPHS) and the Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form (EAC-B) Factors of Personal Commitment, Facilitative Conditions, Counselor Expertise, and Nurturance............6868

Table 2 Frequencies and Percentages of Responses to Demographic Questions 75

Table 3 Means and Standard Deviations for the Factors of Personal Commitment, Facilitative Conditions, Counselor Expertise, and Nurturance.................7676

Table 4 Mean and Standard Deviation for the Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale (ATSPPHS) Score..................77

Table 5 Intercorrelations Between Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior, Personal Commitment, Facilitative Conditions, Counselor Expertise, and Nurturance................788

Table 6 Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior (N = 195) 79

Table 7 Multivariate Analysis of Variance and Univariate F Tests for Athlete Status and Gender..................80

Table 8 Means and Standard Deviations of the Study Variables by Gender and Athlete Status..................81

Table 10 Reasons Why Respondents Might Seek the Assistance of a Professional Counselor 83

Table 11 Reasons Why Respondents Might Choose Not to Seek Counseling.................84

CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM AND ITS CLARIFYING COMPONENTS

Introduction

The majority of four year institutions that have athletic programs are members of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA). The NCAA, the governing board for collegiate athletics, requires institutions that are members of the association to obey very specific policies, procedures, and bylaws. The NCAA is organized into five divisions: Division I-A (schools that have major football programs), Division I-AA (schools whose football programs are smaller than those in Division I-A and whose programs are classified by stadium size and average paid attendance), Division I-AAA (schools that do not have football programs), Division II, and Division III (http://www.ncaa.org). Divisions share some guidelines such as athlete eligibility, but they also have individually unique policies. For example, whereas Division I, I-AA, I-AAA, and Division II athletes are eligible for athletic scholarships, Division III athletes can not receive athletic scholarships (http://www.ncaa.org).

The National Junior College Athletic Association (NJCAA), the governing body for junior college athletics, shares the same blueprint as the NCAA in regards to division classifications. In addition to institutional requirements, the NCAA and NJCAA have numerous requirements for student-athletes. For example, student-athletes must maintain full time student status (enrolled in a minimum of 12 credit hours per semester), earn a

minimum grade point average (2.0 per semester), and pass 12 credit hours per semester. In most circumstances, student-athletes are prohibited from seeking outside employment to assist with their college expenses. Such restrictions or requirements often differ from requirements for students who are not athletes (Fletcher, Benshoff, & Richburg, 2003).

In addition to NCAA and NJCAA requirements, each college or university may develop and adopt their own policies, procedures, and philosophies for student-athletes. These may be complicated by conflicting messages about university policies that student-athletes may receive. For example, student-athletes must frequently miss classes in order to travel to scheduled sports events and typically are required to make up missed material, assignments, and exams. However, some institutions do not have policies to protect their student-athletes from being penalized for missing class, although their participation in athletics necessitates their absence (Fletcher, Benshoff, & Richburg, 2003).

The NCAA and NJCAA have defined a student-athlete as any student that participates in a sanctioned intercollegiate athletic event under the jurisdiction of the department of intercollegiate athletics (NCAA, 2004; NJCAA, 2004). Student-athletes are recruited by coaches and other members of university athletic programs with the hope of utilizing their athletic abilities for the benefit of the institution's intercollegiate athletics program. This group of student-athletes will be awarded scholarships in an effort to persuade them to attend the institution that is soliciting their services. Some student-athletes are not recruited and choose to join the team on their own accord. These

student-athletes are known as "walk-ons" and do not receive athletic scholarships (NCAA, 2004).

Due to the large number of NCAA and NJCAA institutions offering intercollegiate athletic scholarships, there exists substantial opportunities for student-athletes to participate in collegiate athletics (Watson, 2003). Recent NCAA statistics (http://www.ncaa.org/membership/membership_svcs/membership_breakdown.html) revealed that approximately 361,175 college student-athletes competed in 2000. The NJCAA reported that during the 2003-2004 academic year approximately 47,200 student-athletes participated in sanctioned intercollegiate events (Wayne Baker, personal communication, November 18, 2004). Thus, student-athletes represent a substantial amount of college students (Watson, 2003).

Participation in intercollegiate athletics has been a positive experience for student-athletes. This experience has allowed individuals to develop a sense of team unity and has also permitted them to enjoy academic and athletic success. However, for many student-athletes, competitive athletics has been a source of anxiety. Researchers have discovered that numerous student-athletes appear to have an unusual collegiate experience both in the number and type of influences on their development (Etzel, Ferrante, & Pinkney, 1991).

According to Parham (1993), "…when viewed within the context of the developmental life cycle, inter-collegiate athletes and their non-athlete peers share very similar profiles" (p. 411). Parham suggested that traditional college students and student-athletes encountered the same age and stage appropriate developmental tasks of

individualization, autonomy, and self-exploration. Chickering (1969) proposed that the additional demands of being a student-athlete could make it more difficult to successfully manage the normal development of tasks. The demands of being a successful student and athlete have caused difficulties that have been shown to hinder personal development (Blann, 1985; Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Chickering, 1969; Nelson, 1983). In addition to satisfying the academic requirements compulsory of other students, student-athletes must also maintain equilibrium between the requirements of their coaches and respective teams.

One issue confronted by all student-athletes is how to prioritize their dual roles. Whether student-athletes are students first or an athlete first has been a long standing controversy within collegiate athletics. Even when the institution's policy clearly states that they are students first and athletes second, trickle down effects can create a sense of inconsistency that affects the teams and the individual athletes (Ferrante, Etzel, & Lantz, 1996). Athletes are often given mixed signals when team priorities are set, and academic studies are actually expected to take a back seat to practices and competitions. Also, athletes lacking in academic preparation may have difficulty balancing team requirements and schoolwork, and may be forced to take lighter course loads in order to comply with minimum NCAA or institutional standards. Either situation would make it difficult for these athletes to graduate in four years, the amount of athletic eligibility allowed by the NCAA (Fletcher, Benshoff, & Richburg, 2003).

The challenges confronted by student-athletes are substantial. Among the complex demands student-athletes must face are balancing athletic and academic

concerns, dealing with injuries, separation anxiety, and managing conflicting roles (Baillie, 1993; Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Parham, 1993; Pearson & Petitpas, 1990). Pinkerton, Hinz, and Barrow (1989) suggested that student-athletes form a special at-risk group that is more susceptible to experiencing psychological distress due to the unique factors associated with athletic participation. Valentine and Haub (1999) have contended that student-athletes have long been the most recognized, yet unofficial, special population on our nation's campuses. Although student-athletes face an abundance of academic and athletic stress during their collegiate careers, they are a traditionally underrepresented population in counseling service settings (Murray, 1997).

When combined, over 408,000 college student-athletes compete on an annual basis for NCAA and NJCAA institutions in the United States. It is crucial for counselors, advisors, and other professionals to understand how to successfully work with the student-athlete population. Unfortunately, research on college student-athletes has lagged when compared to the amount of research produced on behalf of traditional students.

Student-athletes have habitually been socialized in a separate environment than their traditional student peers. Characterized by unique challenges and demands not encountered by traditional students, counselors that work with student-athletes should be prepared to confront a wide array of concerns (Ferrante & Etzel, 1991; Heyman, 1986; Nelson, 1983).

Unique Challenges Faced by College Student-Athletes

The unique challenges endured by student-athletes can be classified into seven areas of concern: (a) balancing athletics and academics, (b) adapting to social challenges, (c) managing athletic successes and failures, (d) minimizing physical injury, (e) separation anxiety, caused by early career termination, (f) substance abuse issues, and (g) weight management issues, including eating disorders. These areas have been identified from sport psychology literature and the personal experiences of sport psychology professionals working with an intercollegiate athletic population (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Ferrante & Etzel, 1991; Parham, 1993; Valentine & Taub, 1999).

Student-athletes are often forced to make difficult decisions regarding their time allocation to athletic and academic interests (Ferrante & Etzel, 1991) and must find a way to make the most of their performance in both areas (Parham, 1993). In addition to overcoming time constraints, other academic concerns for student-athletes include mandatory class attendance, study halls, and tutoring sessions, successfully passing all coursework, maintaining athletic eligibility, and strict guidelines that measure matriculation towards graduation.

Athletic duties encompass attending practices, competitions, travel, strength and conditioning programs, post-game sessions, media events, and off-season training programs. It is not uncommon for student-athletes to be required to dedicate more than 25 hours per week toward team practices and competitions when their sport is in season, miss significant amounts of classes due to sanctioned athletic competitions, and deal with fatigue and injuries as a result of their athletic participation (Simons, Van Rheenen, &

Covington, 1999). Student-athletes are rarely afforded the option to be dismissed from practice (except due to an injury). These endeavors absorb a considerable amount of a student-athlete's time and as a result of this situation, student-athletes have less time and opportunity to devote toward their academic success. The expectations and demands from both the athletic department and academic officials may be responsible for time management and stress-related problems of student-athletes.

Social Challenges

Student-athletes represent a unique population on many college and university campuses. They are frequently portrayed as a coddled group of individuals having extraordinary personal privileges that include special admissions criteria, separate living and dining facilities, and preferential class scheduling (Ferrante & Etzel, 1991). Sellers (1992) noted that at large universities especially, student-athletes are viewed as socially incompetent individuals who do not perform well in the classroom. Student-athletes have consistently been plagued by the stereotype of lacking intellectual abilities and possessing diminished academic motivation. A study by Engstrom, Sedlacek, and McEwen (1995) discovered that faculty members perceived student-athletes' academic abilities more negatively than they did the abilities of other traditional students. Even when student-athletes earned an A grade in class, when compared to other students, faculty members expressed more feelings of surprise and skepticism.

Engstrom and Sedlacek (1991) discovered sentiments among traditional college students about student-athletes were the same as those held by the faculty, especially in

areas related to academic performance. Their findings suggested that traditional students viewed student-athletes negatively and were very skeptical of a student-athlete that received an A grade in a class. Traditional students also indicated that they would be concerned and worried about having a student-athlete assigned as a possible lab partner. Unfortunately, this mode of reasoning supports the "dumb jock" syndrome, which is a stereotype associated with many student-athletes and furthermore presumes their lack of intelligence and that they are only attending college because of their athletic ability (Edwards, 1984). Stereotypes such as these negatively portray student-athletes and do not take into consideration the special challenges and concerns that they encounter during their academic career.

Due to the enormous amount of time student-athletes devote to the pursuit of academic and athletic demands, they are often forced to sacrifice time that could have been utilized to cultivate social relationships or pursue their needs for leisure (Harris, Altekruse, & Engels, 2003; Murray, 1997; Nelson, 1983; Riemer, Beal, & Schroeder, 2000).

Depending on their sport and the competitive level of the institution they are attending, it is not uncommon for student-athletes to devote as much time during the academic year in sport related activities (e.g., games, practices, travel, team meetings, and training) as an individual performing a full-time job (American Institute for Research, 1988). Thus, student-athletes are usually socially isolated from other students. The time student-athletes invest into their athletic endeavors means that they spend a majority of their time with teammates and other members of the athletic staff, leaving

them with little time to develop lasting and meaningful relationships with other college students (Harris, Altekruse, & Engels, 2003). Due to this circumstance, a division between student-athletes and other students often exists. When student-athletes are incapable of interacting with other students, stereotypes of athletes are promulgated. The lack of time to develop social relationships with peers and the resulting stereotyping is often troublesome for some student-athletes (Parham, 1993).

Managing Athletic Successes and Failures

College athletes might form an ego identity based on how successful they are in a particular sport (Harris, 1993). Student-athletes' success in college and their emotional well-being are linked intimately with success, or lack thereof, in their sport. Thus, success is often defined as winning and playing at a consistently high level (Fletcher, Benshoff, & Richburg, 2003). Student-athletes experience significant disappointments and fears when their team suffers a key loss or when they perform poorly; among the athlete's fears is the fear of losing the opportunity to compete because of injury, fear of being cut from the team, or fear of being forced to retire from sport (Baillie, 1993). Coping with these fears is a formidable challenge that all student-athletes must confront (Cavenar & Werman, 1981). Student-athletes compete in public arenas, exposing themselves to scrutiny, and allowing people to constantly evaluate their athletic performance (Etzel, Ferrante, & Pinkney, 1991). As a result, student-athletes have often encountered pressure to succeed and perform in their respective sports. For many of the athletes, athletic success has led to praise from coaches, teammates, fans, university

officials, other students, and the media (Watson, 2003). Athletic failure, or even the fear of athletic failure, has caused stress and anxiety as the student-athlete fears losing his or her reputation and status within the university (Parham, 1993).

Physical Injury

A study conducted by the American Institute for Research (1988) revealed that 50% of Division I student-athletes suffered an injury as a result of their involvement in intercollegiate competition. There are a variety of reasons why injuries are stressful to student-athletes. Injuries are unexpected, unplanned, and unwanted occurrences that alter student-athletes behaviors and schedules. Regardless of the severity of the injury, student-athletes that suffer an injury often feel disabled because they may be sidelined from competitions. It is not uncommon for injured student-athletes to suffer bouts of depression because he or she may feel that their absence from competition, due to their injury, was detrimental to the success of the team (Danish, 1984).

Separation Anxiety

Undoubtedly, one of the most challenging periods of a student-athlete's life is when the athlete was confronted with the end of his/her athletic career (Cogan & Petrie, 1996; Kleiber & Brock, 1992; Ogilvie & Howe, 1986; Pinkerton, Hinz, & Barrow, 1989; Riemer, Beal, & Schroeder, 2000; Valentine & Taub, 1999). In the past, separation anxiety was predominately a concern for male student-athletes that competed in the big revenue producing sports (i.e. football, basketball, and baseball) that offered an

opportunity for athletes to continue their athletic career's as professionals. With the increase in popularity of women's basketball, softball, golf, and tennis, this phenomenon has transcended the boundary of male sports (Riemer, Beal, & Schroeder, 2000).

Many collegiate student-athletes believe their identity was forged by their athletic accomplishments and the thought of facing life without athletics can be very frightening (Pinkerton, Hinz, & Barrow, 1989). Many student-athletes have developed symptoms of fear and anxiety when confronted with the end of their athletic careers (Parham, 1993). Nelson (1983) discovered that participating in career and vocational counseling early in their collegiate career better prepared student-athletes to face the transition of life without sport. Hence, these are important issues for counselors to have considered when working with student-athletes.

Substance Abuse Issues

In a recent study, researchers discovered that student-athletes drink alcohol more frequently and in larger quantities than their traditional student peers (Wilson, Pritchard, & Schaffer, 2004). A 1985 study conducted by the NCAA discovered that 88% of the student-athletes surveyed had used alcohol in the past year, 37% had used marijuana, and 17% had used cocaine (National Collegiate Athletic Association Drug Education Committee, 1985). However, a study conducted by the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism (1995) revealed that 88% of non-athlete students had consumed alcohol within the last year. Though athletic status alone may have been found to be inconclusive, both studies agreed that males were more apt to abuse alcohol than females.

The recreational use of drugs can be attributed to two social factors: peer pressure and sensation seeking (Heyman, 1986).

During the developmental stages of adolescence and early adulthood, it has been common for student-athletes to receive pressure from their peers to experiment with illegal drugs. These pressures may be experienced and exerted on a larger level within groups associated with sports (Heyman, 1986). Some examples pinpointed by researchers are male student-athletes that engage in high risk drinking behaviors such as binge drinking, chugging beers, or having contests to see who can consume the most quantity of alcohol within a certain period of time (Carr, Kennedy, & Dimick, 1990; Carr & Murphy, 1995).

During a sports competition it would not be uncommon for student-athletes to stretch the boundaries of their own physical limitations of endurance. This has lead to surges in adrenaline, creating a positive rush for many athletes. These sensations obtained by student-athletes during athletic competition may be sought in analogous everyday behaviors (Heyman, 1986).These behaviors that seek to mimic the same sensations acquired through competition may lead to the illicit use of illegal stimulants as a manner to heighten stimulation and sensory input (Wilson, Pritchard, & Schaffer, 2004).

Weight Management and Eating Disorders

Because both male and female student-athletes have faced pressure to maintain an ideal weight or competitive body shape, weight management has been a prevalent issue in

sports. At one time or another, numerous student-athletes have been confronted with weight management issues such as maintaining a specific weight in order to compete in a certain weight class, optimizing their performance, or appearing attractive for judges (Swoap & Murphy, 1995). For many student-athletes, the continuous focus on their weight has led to the development of obsessive and compulsive eating disorders. Swoap and Murphy (1995) discovered that women appear to be the population most affected by weight management issues and eating disorders.

Student-athletes are forced to confront an abundance of stressors in their development as students and athletes such as social concerns, performance issues, developing an autonomous identity separate from sport, substance abuse concerns, and coping with possible eating disorders. Despite these stressors, student-athletes have remained an underrepresented population when it approaches time to seek professional counseling help (Murray, 1997). Student-athletes that have decided not to seek professional counseling help may be influenced by numerous internal and external barriers. Counselors that have been familiarized with these barriers may be better equipped to understand and assist student-athletes with their needs.

Statement of the Problem

Researchers have suggested that between 10% -15% of American collegiate student-athletes are coping with issues significant enough to justify the need for professional counseling services (Ferrante, Etzel, & Lantz, 1996; Parham 1993). NCAA statistics have approximated that nearly 361,000 student-athletes are participating in

intercollegiate sports. Consequently, approximately 35,000-50,000 student-athletes may have demonstrated needs in their lives that warranted some type of counseling assistance (Watson, 2003). Despite this fact, researchers have suggested that most student-athletes do not use available professional counseling services (Bergandi & Wittig, 1984; Murray, 1997; Pinkerton, Hinz, & Barrow, 1989). Counselors employed to serve college populations need to be made aware of why this large portion of their target population did not use their counseling services.

This study sought to identify the attitudes toward help seeking behaviors prevalent among community college student-athletes. A thorough understanding of how these attitudes were affected by expectations about counseling may assist counselors responsible for preparing future generations of mental health practioners properly meet the psychological needs of student-athletes.

Conceptual Framework

The Expectations about Counseling-Brief Form (EAC-B) instrument developed by Tinsley (1982) and the Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale (ATSPPHS) developed by Fischer and Turner (1970) served as the foundation and framework for assessing the attitudes and expectations of counseling by traditional students and student-athletes. The results of these instruments have indicated that several variables may be responsible for the attitudes held by students and student-athletes in regard to their seeking professional psychological help and their expected satisfaction in a counseling session.

Overall, four predictors were used in this analysis. The four predictors used to measure expectations about counseling represent the four factors of the EAC-B form: commitment, facilitative conditions, counselor expertise, and nurturance (Tinsley, 1982). The dependent variable, attitudes toward help seeking behavior, was measured by an overall score on the ATSPPHS (Fischer & Turner, 1970). The status variables of athletic participation and gender were also used.

Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between attitudes toward help seeking behavior and expectations about counseling, and what amount of variance in attitudes toward help seeking behavior can be accounted for by expectations about counseling?
2. What effect do gender and athletic participation have on expectations about counseling and attitudes toward help seeking behavior?

Definition of Key Terms

Counseling- a helping relationship in which at least one of the parties has the intent of promoting growth, development, maturity, improved functioning, and improved coping with life through changes in behavior, increased awareness and insight, relief from suffering, and changes in thought and self perceptions (Brammer, 1993).

College counseling- the delivery of counseling services by trained counseling professionals in a postsecondary educational setting.

College Student-Athlete- students who are either solicited or not solicited by coaches and athletic department personnel for intercollegiate athletic participation under the jurisdiction of the department of intercollegiate athletics (NJCAA Manual, 2004).

Community College- any publicly supported institution of higher education that offers the first two years of a baccalaureate degree, vocational education, and adult continuing education.

Expectations about counseling- an individual's understanding of what counseling will be like, how the role of client and counselor will be enacted, and the probability that an event will occur in the counseling session (Tinsley & Westcot, 1990).

Help-seeking behavior- an individual's desire to request professional psychological counseling and help during an emotional crisis that he or she may be experiencing.

Design of the Study

For this study, quantitative and qualitative data were collected to address the research questions. Two questionnaires were developed and tested using the variables of expectations about counseling and attitudes toward help-seeking behavior. The data was gathered by mailing questionnaires to a random sample of students (non-athletes), and administering the questionnaires in a class room setting to the student-athlete population at a mid-sized central Florida community college. Qualitative data was collected by interviewing one representative from each athletic team. Information on the survey

would help with the need to better understand the factors that account for variance in attitudes toward help seeking behaviors.

Study Population

Participants included in the study consisted of the entire student-athlete population (74 community college student-athletes) and a sample of 200 community college non-athletes. The group of student-athlete participants was composed of five intercollegiate athletic teams (baseball, men's basketball, women's basketball, women's golf, women's softball). The sample of non-athletes was comprised of 200 randomly selected community college students, who were surveyed to determine if athletic participation influenced expectations about counseling and help seeking behavior. In order to insure a similar number of questionnaires have been returned by both groups of participants, additional non-athlete students were surveyed if necessary.

It was hypothesized that the predictor values (athletic participation and gender) would account for a significant portion of the variance found in the attitudes toward help seeking behavior. Descriptive statistics were calculated separately for the ATSPPHS and EAC-B subscales across the dimensions of athletic participation and gender. Tests of mean differences between the two populations (student-athletes and non-athletes) were also examined.

Significance of the Study

Despite the fact that the majority of the literature on student-athletes and their counseling needs is based on opinion, sufficient quantitative data have not been collected to validate claims made by counselors and sport psychologists (Etzel, Pinkney, & Hinkle, 1994). There is a dearth of studies that have empirically examined the trends in help seeking behavior for community college student-athletes. Therefore, more research needs to be conducted in this area in order to fully understand the expectations about counseling and the general attitudes towards help seeking behavior held by student-athletes.

According to Murray (1997), the amount of counseling services offered to student-athletes has increased but student-athlete receptiveness has not matched this growth. Researchers have discovered that student-athletes are not only hesitant to seek psychological assistance from counselors, but they are also disinclined to use sport psychology services (Brewer, Van Raalte, Petitpas, Bachman, & Weinhold, 1998). According to Selby, Weinstein, and Bird (1990), student-athletes that have experienced a traumatic event have traditionally preferred to seek help from other sources such as coaches, teammates, family, and friends. Many student-athletes view counselors and licensed mental health professionals with a healthy dose of skepticism and were worried of being labeled by coaches, teammates, and fans as having mental deficiencies and psychological problems (Martin, Wrisberg, Beitel, & Lounsbury, 1997).

For most student-athletes requiring psychological assistance, anonymity has been a problem (Watson, 2003). The celebrity status heaped on today's student-athlete has

prevented many from attending appropriate counseling sessions for fear that being seen at a counseling center would jeopardize their public image (Etzel, Ferrante, Pinkney, 1991). A study conducted by Linder, Pillow, and Reno (1989) revealed that student-athletes perceived other student-athletes that attended counseling services as weak and held them with less regard. It is important for counselors and college administrators to fully understand how student-athletes have arrived at such conclusions if they are to overcome this barrier and meet the needs of the student-athlete population.

Delimitations and Limitations

Delimitations

1. Only student-athletes and non-athlete students from a central Florida community college were included in this study.
2. This study relied solely on the data gathered from the administered surveys and interviews.
3. All survey responses were assumed to be honest and accurate.

Limitations

1. The results of this study were generalized to the central Florida community college from which the data was gathered. An attempt was not made to generalize findings to any other population.
2. All information and data obtained was dependent on the accuracy of the data provided by the participants on the survey questionnaire.

3. Data was analyzed based on the return rate of the received responses.

Organization of the Study

The five chapters in this dissertation are comprised of the introduction to the problem, a review of the current literature surrounding the problem, the study methodology, study results, and a discussion of the findings. Chapter two includes: (a) an overview of college students, (b) a review of specific challenges faced by collegiate student-athletes, (c) a review of attitudes toward help seeking behavior, (d) an examination of expectations about counseling and the factors that may influence student expectations, and (e) a review of studies related to this study. The third chapter reviews the methodology used in this study, including participants, instrumentation, procedures, and statistical analyses. Chapter four presents the results of the study. The last chapter provides a discussion of the results, including implications for counselors and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Challenges Encountered by College Students

Today's college students, in general, have been confronted by circumstances that are new to prior generations of students. These issues may include limited meaningful employment opportunities due to corporations outsourcing jobs to third world countries, reduced benefits, such as the possible absence of social security, and an increasingly more competitive workforce. To make matters more difficult, students have been attending institutions of higher education that are themselves enduring significant transformative changes (Schroeder, 1996).

Due to an incomparable amount of violence, present day college students may have been exposed to symptoms of post-traumatic stress. These symptoms of post-traumatic stress can develop in students who have either experienced or witnessed sexual, emotional, or psychological abuse (Stone & Archer, 1990). Today's cohort of college students have also been exposed to other pertinent societal issues such as sexism, racism, and heterosexism (Archer & Cooper, 1998). Students must also face several challenges that have become increasingly prevalent in today's society, such as drug and alcohol abuse, sexual issues, and family issues. These changes have pinpointed the need for students to focus on developing a clear identity and sense of ethics and social responsibility (Archer & Cooper, 1998). As a part of their development within this new

and changing society, students may have been forced to address several issues if they are to develop into mature competent adults.

Appropriate Developmental Issues of College Students

The college experience has typically been a time for growth where students began to strengthen their identities and develop the skills and competencies that are necessary for success. Similar to other developmental stages in their lives it has been marked with developmental milestones. Chickering and Reisser (1993) applied Erikson's (1966) developmental stages to college students and established a set of vectors, or major developmental landmarks, that individual's strive to accomplish during their lives. This work represented a follow-up on Chickering's (1969) earlier work on student development theory. The researchers listed seven vectors that can apply to both early adulthood and adults: competency, development, managing emotions, moving through autonomy toward interdependence, developing mature interpersonal relationships, establishing identity, developing purpose, and developing integrity. Each of these vectors is addressed in the following sections.

Competency Development

Chickering and Reisser (1993) described competence as having three major components: intellectual, physical and manual, and interpersonal. In addition, mastery of all three components led to the development of an overall sense of competence. According to Chickering and Reisser (1993), it is important for college students to have

developed and strengthened their own personal competencies in order to enable them to have control over their environment. This vector has focused on skill development; the skills to succeed academically, the skills to accomplish physical and manual tasks effectively, and the skills to work successfully in a group (Valentine & Taub, 1999). As reported by Valentine and Taub (1999), Argyris stated college students that had acquired competence were more likely to take on responsibility, had an increased sense of openness, and were more willing to take risks with their self esteem.

Managing Emotions

This vector is concerned with the recognition of negative emotions and the ability to control, express, and integrate them (Valentine & Taub, 1999). In Chickering's (1969) original version of this model, he focused on two topics: aggression and sexuality. The revised theory put forth by Chickering and Reisser (1993) included a more extensive array of emotions, including anxiety, depression, fear, guilt, and shame. College students that have experienced negative emotions need to learn how to control these emotions so that self-control and self-expression can exist (Watson, 2003).

Moving Through Autonomy Toward Interdependence

The autonomy vector has three components: emotional autonomy, instrumental autonomy, and interdependence. In this vector, individuals realized how to function with self-sufficiency and how to assume responsibility for pursuing self-chosen goals (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Additionally, individuals that have learned how to be

emotionally independent are free from the need for excessive reassurance and approval by others (Valentine & Taub, 1999). According to Chickering (1969), the culmination of development in this vector was the recognition and acceptance of interdependence, which thus led to greater autonomy.

Developing Mature Interpersonal Relationships

For mature relationships to develop, it is necessary for individuals to have developed tolerance and appreciation for differences and a capacity for intimacy (Watson, 2003). The development of a relationship characterized by interdependence involves greater trust, stability, independence, and individuality (Valentine & Taub, 1999). Increased tolerance can be attained when individuals respect and appreciate a diversity of backgrounds, habits, values, and appearance as well as an appreciation for cultural diversity (Chickering, 1969).

Establishing Identity

This vector served as the turning point in Chickering's (1969) model and entailed numerous tasks. Creating an identity involved the following: (a) confident of one's body type and appearance, (b) comfort with gender and sexual orientation, (c) sense of one's self in relation to social and cultural context, (d) clarification of self through roles and lifestyles, (e) sense of self in response to feedback from others, (f) self-acceptance and esteem, and (g) personal stability and integration (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

According to Chickering (1969), establishing an identity was a process rather than an event. For college students to establish an identity, they must have first separated themselves from their family and community and become productive members of society. After a college student has achieved some modicum of success in his or her life, he or she must use that success to construct and develop their identity.

Developing Purpose

In this vector college students would attempt to develop life plans that balance vocational interests, personal interests, and interpersonal and family commitments (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Developing purpose would include the ability to intentionally assess interests, create clear goals, make plans, and persevere when confronted by challenges that might arise (Watson, 2003). Developing purpose would also involve learning how to arrange several smaller goals into the framework of larger life goals (Valentine & Taub. 1999).

Developing Integrity

The developing integrity component would be characterized by three components: (a) humanizing values, (b) personalizing values, (c) developing congruence between values and behavior (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). In this vector students would begin to scrutinize and implement the values that are most meaningful to them.

Humanizing values are accompanied by a shift from a literal belief in the absoluteness of rules to a more comparative view (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

Personalizing values referred to a set of core values or beliefs that an individual deemed to be true. Congruence was established when a similarity existed between an individual's personal values and socially responsible behavior (Watson, 2003).

Chickering's (1969; Chickering & Reisser, 1993) psychosocial theory of student development has provided a solid foundation on which to build practical solutions for students. These seven vectors illustrated the major developmental milestones for college students. When compared with past generations of students, the students of today arrive on campus with more problems as a result of dysfunctional family situations, with more worries and anxieties about the future and about serious problems they will confront in today's society, with an increased awareness for the expedited need for their own personal development, and with a greater willingness to seek counseling help (Archer & Cooper, 1998). These additional pressures have made it difficult to focus on the normal developmental challenges. One sub-group that has experienced unique challenges and difficulties has been college student-athletes.

College Student-Athletes

According to the current by-laws of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), an individual became a student-athlete after he or she has enrolled in a full time (minimum of 12 credit hours) university program of study with a view toward ultimate participation in the intercollegiate athletics program. The same guidelines have been applied by the National Junior College Athletic Association (NJCAA) to define student-athletes at the junior college level. All potential student-athletes must participate in an

intercollegiate squad practice or contest that is officially sanctioned and approved under the jurisdiction of their respective athletics department (NCAA Manual, 2004; NJCAA Manual, 2004). Students who compete on the intramural, recreational, or club level are not considered college student-athletes. Using these guidelines as parameters, there are approximately 361,500 current college students competing in 22 NCAA sanctioned sports at both the men's and women's level (http://www.ncaa.org/membership/membership_breakdown.html). The NJCAA determined that during the 2003-2004 academic year approximately 47,200 student-athletes participated in sanctioned intercollegiate events (Wayne Baker, personal communication, November 18, 2004).

In addition to being athletes, these individuals must also satisfy the responsibilities associated with being a full time college student. Student-athletes have confronted the same traditional, age-specific developmental tasks of their college counterparts while enduring with increased stressors and pressures associated with these developmental tasks (Coakley, 1998).

Unique Challenges Faced by Student-Athletes

The responsibilities faced by student-athletes are atypical when compared to their traditional student peers. Many student-athletes struggle with their dual roles and the pressures exerted on them to be successful both academically and athletically. Some of the specific challenges confronted by student-athletes are: (a) academic difficulties, (b) role conflict, (c) social and leisure challenges, (d) separation anxiety due to athletic career

retirement, (e) substance abuse issues, and (f) weight management/eating disorders (Watson, 2003).

Academic Challenges

During the 1970s, advising and counseling for collegiate student-athletes concentrated on three main areas: class scheduling, academic tutoring, and time management (Shriberg & Brodzinski, 1984). For most universities their sole concern was to maintain the eligibility of their student-athletes rather than promote their academic success and individual career pursuits (Pinkerton, Hinz, & Barrow, 1989). In the early 1980s, athletic administrators and student affairs professionals began to view student-athletes as a unique population with special concerns and issues (Shriberg & Brodzinski, 1984).

In 1975, the National Association of Academic Advisors for Athletes (N4A) was founded to address the academic needs and personal issues of college student-athletes. At its inaugural meeting, the N4A suggested that athletic advisers maintain athletic eligibility and graduate more student-athletes (Petitpas, Buntrock, Van Raalte, & Brewer, 1995). In 1981, the NCAA implemented minimum academic requirements for Division I and Division II members. After these standards were adopted, student-athletes were required to earn satisfactory completion ratings in their majors in order to remain eligible to compete athletically. Before this legislation was enacted, student-athletes dedicated a greater amount of time to their athletic interests rather than their academic requirements (American Institute for Research, 1988). The implementation of these new regulations

obligated student-athletes to dedicate more time toward their academic pursuits. Some student-athletes found it difficult to sustain this dual focus.

According to several researchers, learning the proper balance between academic and athletic interests is perhaps one of the most difficult lessons student-athletes are required to understand (Lanning, 1982; Pinkney, 1991; Remer, Tongate, & Watson, 1978; Simons, Van Rheenen, & Covington, 1999). For many student-athletes, a morning of classes may be preceded by a predawn workout, with an afternoon filled with athletic requirements, such as practice and conditioning, followed by an evening of academic requirements (Gabbard & Halischak, 1993). NCAA regulations allow up to 20 hours per week for sport related activities. In addition to the hectic academic demands placed on student-athletes, they are unable to devote the appropriate time to seek help for personal problems and often turn to their coaches and teammates for the assistance they need (Watson, 2003).

Role Conflict

Researchers have determined that participation in sports at the collegiate level may cause student-athletes to become confused regarding their role in life. Student-athlete's identities are so often inter-twined with their athletic persona, thus resulting in a negative college experience (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Danish, Petitpas, & Hale, 1993). This trend has been most damaging for freshmen student-athletes who were often admired and accepted for their athletic abilities alone in high school (Nelson, 1983). For most student-athletes, their entire identity has been comprised of being an athlete first,

thus preventing them from being accepted by their traditional college peers and restricting their role as a college student (Nelson, 1983).

Pinkerton, Hinz, and Barrow (1989) reported that male student-athletes that exhibited traditionally feminine characteristics, such as dependency, intimacy, tenderness, and compassion, are stigmatized by perceptions held by other students and athletic department personnel who view those sentiments as unrelated to being a male athlete. Male student-athletes often are forced to repress these qualities so their athletic image will not be damaged. However, female student-athletes are expected to exhibit both feminine and masculine characteristics (Heyman, 1986). During competition, female student-athletes are expected to convey traditionally masculine behaviors, yet return to more traditional feminine qualities upon completion of the competition. Often, female student-athletes are asked by their coaches not to keep their feminine traits, such as equity and teamwork, during competition (Lantz & Schroeder, 1999). Teammates and coaches would view such behavior as unacceptable (Pinkerton, Hinz, & Barrow, 1989).

Social and Leisure Challenges

Due to the enormous time commitment involved in pursuing both academic and athletic goals, student-athletes are often forced to sacrifice substantial amounts of their social and leisure time (Lanning, 1982; Masland, 1983; Nelson, 1983). Student-athletes, frequently, are not afforded the opportunities to develop hobbies, form friendships outside of their respective teams, or enhance other non-athletic interests. Given the time

restraints and the decreased attention to social and leisure activities, student-athletes often feel estranged from their peers and the surrounding campus community (Parham, 1993).

Student-athletes have traditionally spent most of their available social time with their teammates, who share similar interests and characteristics, thus limiting their exposure to diverse experiences and relationships (Heyman, 1986). Even when student-athletes have scheduled classes with other traditional students, they are inclined to segregate themselves and avoid participating in classroom discussions. This type of segregation is often magnified if the athlete is serious about their academic responsibilities. The majority of the time not spent on athletic requirements will be dedicated toward academics, leaving a limited amount of time for pursuing social needs (Pinkerton, Hinz, & Barrow, 1989).

According to Nelson (1983), another possible explanation as to why student-athletes are often segregated from college peers and activities may be that coaches and teammates do not favorably view these attempts of exploration outside of the student-athlete culture. This could possibly stem from the fear that student-athletes may become distracted by the new activity and, as a result, their athletic performance would suffer. Also, some student-athletes may have their campus identity, along with a hectic and regimented schedule, and may not feel the need to seek exploratory behavior.

Parham (1993) reported that student-athletes who lack the opportunity to interact with the greater college community are often forced to confront myths held by traditional students that student-athletes are lazy, pampered, privileged, and well supported individuals that do not hold their academic responsibilities with much esteem. Student-

athletes are distinguished from their traditional student peers because they possess athletic talent (Remer, Tongate, & Watson, 1978). While it is true that student-athletes receive special privileges and attention due to their athletic capabilities, they are also prevented from achieving normal development due to their constant segregation, thus, further alienating themselves from the traditional college population (Parham,1993).

The NCAA has instituted policies to reduce the isolation suffered by student-athletes from non-student athletes. In 1991, the Knight Foundation ordered that all athletic specific dorms be eliminated by requiring that student-athletes comprise no more than 49% of students in a residence hall. The commission also reduced the training table, an athletes only cafeteria, to one meal per day. Prior to the implementation of these changes, student-athletes were housed in separate dorms and received meals in cafeterias that were specified only for student-athletes. The intent of the NCAA policy was to assist student-athletes to feel more connected to the general student body population (Knight Foundation, 1991).

Separation Anxiety

Whether sudden (due to an injury), or as a result of the expiration of their athletic eligibility, one of the most difficult issues a student-athlete will be forced to confront is the termination of their athletic career (Ogilvie & Howe, 1986; Pinkerton, Hinz, & Barrow, 1989). Many student-athletes fallaciously believe they will have careers as professional athletes (Lee, 1983; Nelson, 1983; Remer, Tongate, & Watson, 1978). Even when the student-athlete recognized that a professional career in sports is no longer an

option, they may be reluctant to give up the identity of being an athlete (Spady, 1970). The termination of a student-athlete's career forced the student-athlete to reassess and, in many cases, redefine their identity.

For many college student-athletes whose identity has been exclusively forged from athletic participation, anticipating life after college athletics can be traumatic (Pinkerton, Hinz, & Barrow, 1989). It is not uncommon for athletes who have experienced the termination of their athletic careers to feel anxiety and fear (Parham, 1993). Ryan (1989) reported that student-athletes often feel an intense connection of ego and identity with their school, thus, making the termination of their athletic career a difficult issue. "It is the danger of over identification that necessitates specific support programs for athletes" (Petitpas & Champagne, 1988, p. 455).

Many athletes have been socialized into the world of athletics since an early age, and many have achieved praise, validation, and support for their athletic accomplishments (Ogilvie & Howe, 1986). Exposed to an environment where they are recruited and sought as a valuable commodity, student-athletes may turn to coaches, teammates, family members, or other athletic department personnel to solve their problems (Etzel, Pinkney, & Hinkle, 1994).

Less than 1% of collegiate student-athletes have enjoyed careers as professional athletes (NCAA, 2004). Many student-athletes have found it difficult to graduate (Hinkle, 1994). When confronted with the termination of their career, many student-athletes ponder the role, if any; their sport will have in their lives. For student-athletes, the transition to retirement has been likened to the loss of a significant relationship

(Baillie, 1993). According to Nelson (1983), intercollegiate athletes need to understand that it is possible to participate in sports and to also prepare for a suitable career based on their individual interests and abilities, and that career does not have to be limited to professional sports.

Kennedy and Dimick (1987) reported that student-athletes, when compared to non-student athletes, frequently lag behind in career development. Student-athletes have fewer opportunities to explore career options than their non-athlete peers due to the large amounts of time dedicated toward their athletic pursuits. Attaining a part-time job is nearly impossible and this lack of opportunity has deprived student-athletes from exploring career choices. Summer has been one of the few instances that has permitted student-athletes to seek employment and investigate possible career alternatives but this opportunity is quickly disappearing due to coaches encouraging student-athletes to compete in summer leagues or to train full time. Student-athletes that are unprepared to gain meaningful employment are often disappointed when they discover that their non-athlete peers have entered the workforce, and they are left without athletics or a career (Hinkle, 1994).

Substance Abuse Issues

The abuse of alcohol and other drugs has been a serious problem in the college age population (Coughlin, 1994). In a recent study, researchers discovered that a significant amount of college students use alcohol heavily and habitually. It was also discovered that male college students used alcohol more frequently and in greater

quantities than female students and that student-athletes drank alcohol more frequently and in larger quantities than their traditional student peers (Wilson, Pritchard, & Schaffer, 2004). A 1985 study conducted by the NCAA discovered that 88% of the student-athletes surveyed had used alcohol in the past year, 37% had used marijuana, and 17% had used cocaine (National Collegiate Athletic Association Drug Education Committee, 1985). The recreational use of drugs can be attributed to two social factors, peer pressure and sensation seeking (Heyman, 1986). Pleck (1981) suggested that the need for social approval was an inherent reason that led male college students to consume more alcohol than females.

During the developmental stages of adolescence and early adulthood, it has been common for student-athletes to receive pressure from their peers to experiment with illegal drugs. These pressures may be experienced and exerted on a larger level within groups associated with sports (Heyman, 1986). Some examples pinpointed by researchers are male student-athletes that engage in high risk drinking behaviors such as binge drinking, chugging beers, or having contests to see who can consume the most quantity of alcohol within a certain period of time (Carr, Kennedy, & Dimick, 1990; Carr & Murphy, 1995).

A 1993 and 1997 Harvard School of Public Health College Alcohol Study revealed that binge drinking (consuming more than five or more drinks in a row for men and four or more drinks in a row for women) was prevalent on college campuses (Wechsler, Dowdall, Maenner, Gledhill-Hoyt, & Lee, 1998). According to the Core Alcohol and Drug Survey, student-athletes consumed more alcohol per week and

participated in binge drinking more frequently than their non-athlete counterparts. Furthermore, the researchers found that student-athletes were more likely to suffer negative consequences from their substance abuse and that male student-athlete team leaders were found to be at greatest risk (Leichliter, Meilman, Presley, & Cashin, 1998). Significantly, one recent study reported that male athletes were more likely to participate in the type of social environment conducive to binge drinking than were non-athletes (Nelson & Weschler, 2001).

Another difference found to exist between student-athletes and non-athletes is in the use of anabolic steroids, which are used more often by student-athletes (Parham, 1993). Recent studies have revealed that nearly 17% of student-athletes competing on the collegiate level have admitted to using steroids and that rate increased to 30% among male football players (Millman & Ross, 2003).

During a sports competition it would not be uncommon for student-athletes to stretch the boundaries of their own physical limitations of endurance. This has lead to surges in adrenaline, creating a positive rush for many athletes. The sensations experienced by student-athletes during athletic competition may be sought in analogous everyday behaviors (Heyman, 1986).These behaviors that seek to mimic the same sensations acquired through competition may lead to the illicit use of illegal stimulants as a manner to heighten stimulation and sensory input (Wilson, Pritchard, & Schaffer, 2004).

Weight Management and Eating Disorders

Weight management has been a prevalent issue in competitive sport. Both male and female athletes have found themselves susceptible to acquiring eating disorders. Among the acutely at risk were wrestlers, gymnasts, swimmers, track and field athletes, and cheerleaders (Valentine & Taub, 1999). Individuals with eating disorders frequently did not realize they had a problem until it had become severe. Those close to them did not recognize the problem either (Thornton, 1990).

As reported by the American College of Sports Medicine (ACSM), female student-athletes may have the highest occurrence for a triad of health issues: eating disorders, amenorrhea, and osteoporosis (Yeager, Agostini, Nattiv, & Drinkwater, 1993). A 1986 survey by Rosen, McKeag, Hough, and Curley revealed that of 182 female collegiate student-athletes, 32% of the respondents revealed that they habitually employed at least one pathogenic form of weight control (e.g., self induced vomiting, laxatives, diet pills, or diuretics). Burckes-Miller and Black (1988) reported that 3% of the 695 collegiate student-athletes they surveyed qualified as having met the criteria for anorexia nervosa and 21% met the criteria for bulimia nervosa.

According to Dick (1993), a sport specific prevalence for eating disorders existed with swimmers, gymnasts, wrestlers, and track and field athletes comprising the most reported occurrences. Dick (1993) also mentioned that no sport or individual should be considered exempt from developing eating disorder conditions and that these behaviors can be developed by both male and female student-athletes.

These specific challenges have impacted the stress levels experienced by college student-athletes. The severity of these issues may be sufficient in nature to have required student-athletes to seek help through some form of professional counseling services. In the college and university setting, programs have been designed and implemented to address the counseling needs of collegiate students, including student-athletes (Watson, 2003). The services offered on college and university campuses will be described here in further detail.

College and University Counseling Service

The premise that colleges and universities should be concerned with their students' mental health needs is not new (Archer & Cooper, 1998). Previously, this was the responsibility of college and university faculty in the psychology department. As systems of higher education evolved, the functions traditionally performed by faculty were reassigned to departments of student affairs (Hodges, 2001).

Due to a heightened awareness of how counseling works, current needs for counseling and mental health services have increased among college students (Archer & Cooper, 1998). Colleges and universities have responded to this increase in demand by offering more services to their students and allocating additional funds to have sufficient resources for their student populations. Yet, some students do not believe institutions of higher education have done enough to meet the increase in demand (Archer, 1991). As student body populations continue to increase, student support service departments have found it difficult to match the growth. Current counselors can not handle the increased

caseloads and are overwhelmed by the demands for their time and expertise (Stone & Archer, 1990).

According to Archer and Cooper (1998), institutions that have invested in counseling services for their students have benefited by the increased cost efficiency and overall satisfaction of the students that use the services. Athletic administrators have monitored these events and given the complexity of the unique demands encountered by student-athletes throughout their college careers, more collegiate athletic departments have improved the quality of support services they offer (Harris, Altekruse, & Engels, 2003).

During the 1980s, a joint task force consisting of the American College Personnel Association, the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, and the National Association of Academic Advisors was established. This task force sponsored numerous national workshops that addressed the developmental needs of student-athletes (Petitpas, Buntrock, Van Raalte, & Brewer, 1995). According to Broughton and Neyer (2001), institutions have become more interested in addressing and satisfying both the academic and personal counseling needs of student-athletes. The increase in awareness by institutions is significant because it has led to the development of other areas of specialty such as sports psychology, which focuses on performance enhancement, and sports counseling, which is concerned with addressing student- athletes' academic, career, personal, and social needs (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Miller & Wooten, 1995).

The NCAA has also been a significant contributor toward the development of support programs for student-athletes. In 1991, the NCAA began the process of

developing a complete developmental life skills program for student-athletes called Challenging Athletic Mind for Personal Success (CHAMPS)/Life skills (NCAA, 1998). The CHAMPS/Life Skills Program was deigned to assist student-athletes (a) develop positive self-esteem and maximize intellectual development, (b) develop leadership skills, (c) develop a respect for diversity, (d) create meaningful interpersonal relationships, (e) promote community involvement, and (f) build partnerships between the NCAA, member institutions, and the communities for the purpose of supporting a full education for all college student-athletes (NCAA, 1998).

The CHAMPS program has been divided into five components, (a) the academic commitment, (b) the athletics commitment, (c) the personal development commitment, (d) the career development commitment, and (e) the service commitment (NCAA, 1998). The NCAA, in conjunction with athletic directors, is responsible for providing instructional manuals, teaching materials, videos, financial resources, training, and computer software for universities participating in the program (Carodine, Almond, & Gratto, 2001).

Expectations About Counseling

Researchers have suggested that client decisions to enter into counseling have been directly influenced by the expectations clients expect to receive. Additionally, client expectations appear to have diminished the quality and effectiveness of counseling (Tinsley, Bowman, & Ray, 1988). During the 1980s, researchers have attempted to either change or manipulate client expectations in order to assess the impact on counseling

effectiveness (Leong, Leong, & Hoffman, 1987; Tinsley & Westcott, 1990; Yanico & Hardin, 1985).

Expectations Defined

According to Tinsley, Bowman, and Ray (1988), expectations have been defined as probability statements that a condition exists, or will occur. Examples of counselor expectations clients would expect to exist are that the counselor would understand any problem presented by the client, and that the counselor would exhibit empathy toward the client. The terms "perceptions" and "expectations" have been synonymously used in place of one another inappropriately. Friedlander (1982) defined perceptions as how an individual symbolically represented past experiences within the environment, others, and self. In the past, researchers have not adequately differentiated between these two terms and, as a result, prior findings reported in literature have been inaccurate (Tinsley, 1982).

Theoretical Foundations of Counseling Expectations

Friedlander (1982) described counseling as a social system with specific, understood expectations and rules of behavior. Strong (1968) defined counseling as an interpersonal influence process and as a social learning relationship held on a one to one basis. Based on Strong's (1968) social learning theory, expectations have been defined as the cognitive structures or paradigms carried by clients into the counseling process (Bordin, 1955; Tinsley, 1982; Tinsley & Harris, 1976).

The attention given to client expectations has steadily increased, as has their role in deciding counseling effectiveness. Due to the increased attention, researchers needed an instrument to effectively measure and assess an individual's expectations (Bordin, 1955). This led to the development of the most widely used instrument, the Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form (EAC-B: Tinsley, 1982).

Categories of Counseling Expectations Research

Preliminary beliefs of counseling expectations revealed that an individual's expectation of the counseling session was the main factor that determined both within session behavior and the eventual effectiveness of the counseling session. The success of a counseling session relied on both the counselor and client's expectations for recovery (Frank, 1961). Other researchers believed that the client-counselor match was an important predictor of whether therapeutic relationships would be successful (Beutler, 1991; Reis & Brown, 1999). Beutler (1991) reviewed several variables that contributed to therapy outcomes and concluded that the therapist client match was the strongest predictor of outcome. Researchers have suggested that similarities between clients and counselors regarding attitudes, beliefs and personal values, expectations toward counseling, coping styles, and self-concept were also associated with positive treatment outcomes (Beutler, Crago, & Arizmendi, 1986; Nelson & Neufeldt, 1996; Reis & Brown, 1999; Talley, Strupp, & Morey, 1990).

During the 1970s and 1980s, as the amount of information regarding counseling expectations expanded, researchers studied which client and counselor variables had the

largest impact on counseling expectations. From this research, five categories of expectations surfaced, (a) counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness; (b) prognosis for therapy, (c) counselor behavior or type of treatment, (d) client behaviors and role expectations, and (e) general counseling procedures (Tinsley, Bowman, & Ray, 1988).

Social Influence Conditions

Among the social influence factors researchers studied were counselor expertness, attractiveness (i.e., compatibility between counselor and client), and trustworthiness (Bernstein & Figioli, 1983; Claiborn, 1979). In these studies, researchers presented clients with a counselor who was deemed to have either high or low credibility. Researchers concluded that counselors who were introduced to the client as highly credible were perceived as more attractive, trustworthy, and inspired more confidence than counselors who were presented with a low credibility introduction (Bernstein & Figioli, 1983). Thus, researchers suggested that a counselor's abilities were persuaded by the credibility introduction they received.

Counselor Behavior

As reported by Watson (2003), Kelly (1955) suggested that if a client's expectations are inconsistent with the counselor's behavior, the relationship between the client and counselor will suffer, as will the outcomes of the session. Friedlander and Peca-Baker (1987) reasoned that if a client expects the counselor to focus solely on him

or her, any disclosure by the counselor may be interpreted as inappropriate, distracting, or non-empathetic. Conversely, if the client expects the counselor to reveal personal information from time to time, the counselor's disclosures may be viewed as appropriate. VandeCreek and Angstadt (1985) established that counselors that disclosed information were viewed more favorably than non-disclosing counselors, regardless of the preferences or anticipations held by clients.

Researchers have consistently produced results that determined that prior knowledge of the counseling process led to enhanced expectations of client participation during the counseling process (Coughanour, 1977; Hardin & Yanico, 1983). Clients who had determined what they could expect in the counseling process were more likely to share personal information and be more engaged in their sessions than clients who had not received any prior information regarding what they were expected to experience during the counseling process (Hardin & Yanico, 1983).

Client Behaviors and Role Expectations

In 1983, Friedlander and Kaul conducted a study that informed clients of the participation level and responsibility they would experience during the counseling process. The researchers determined that role induction and client informed consent had positive consequences on both the quantity and quality of verbal client participation in counseling. Dies and Cohen (1976) determined that clients viewed counselors negatively if the counselor did not perform these two tasks. Friedlander and Peca-Baker (1987),

suggested that a client's expectations about their own personal role in the counseling process could have positive effects on the counseling relationship.

Expectations About Counseling

During the early stages of this research, researchers concentrated on expectations about counseling that were either too vague or too narrow in scope (Tinsley & Harris, 1976). Seeking a manner to assess counseling expectations, researchers examined client expectations of counseling. Among the first to examine the assessment of counseling expectations was Tinsley and Harris (1976). Their research led to the development of the Expectations About Counseling Questionnaire (EAC) (Tinsley, Workman, & Kass, 1980) which has assisted with expectations research.

The EAC questionnaire has been implemented in an effort to seek a relationship between counseling expectations and numerous other variables such as problem type, ethnicity, client stage of change, decision-making capabilities and styles, gender, and gender role orientation (Tinsley, Workman, & Kass, 1980). When amassed, the results of these studies have contributed to the understanding of counseling expectations and how they have impacted both counseling and outcomes.

Expectations and Respondent Ethnicity

There has been a limited amount of research conducted on the expectations about counseling and respondent race or ethnicity. The studies that have been conducted have produced interesting results. Watkins and Terrell (1988) investigated client-counselor

trust as a factor that would influence African-American students' expectations about counseling. The results of their study revealed that African-American students assigned to African-American counselors expected a more positive experience and better outcomes from their counseling experience than African-American students assigned to Anglo-American counselors.

A study conducted by Sanders-Thompson, Bazile, and Akbar (2004) revealed that less than 10% of African-Americans visited an African-American therapist, and of those who reported seeing an African-American therapist, only 22% expressed a preference for an African-American counselor. Preference for an African-American counselor did not have an impact on their willingness or desire to meet again with a mental health professional. Davis and Proctor (1989) revealed that although evidence suggested that race/ethnicity affected the counseling process, there was no evidence that differences in race affected treatment outcomes. Other researchers revealed that although African-Americans had lower rates of premature termination when an ethnic match existed, ethnic match did not have an affect on treatment outcome (Sue, Fujino, Hu, Takeuchi, & Zane, 1991).

Terrell and Terrell (1984) reported that African-American students who rated high in mistrust were more likely to end their therapy sessions prematurely. Other researchers reported that African-American students who rated high in cultural mistrust of White Americans were less likely to visit campus counseling centers. Hence, the issues of trust may be relevant to African-Americans' attitudes toward mental health and counseling services (Nickerson, Helms, & Terrell, 1994).

Kemp (1994) discovered that the type of university or institution (predominately Black versus predominately White) had a significant effect on the expectations held by African-American students regarding their counseling experiences. Students at predominately Black institutions expressed significantly higher expectations that the counseling process would be characterized by a more concrete and immediate experience than students at predominately White institutions (Kemp, 1994).

Expectations and Client Stages of Change

People often view counseling as a last resort, one to consider only after other options of support have been exhausted (Hinson & Swanson, 1993; Lin, 2002). Of those students who have sought assistance for their counseling needs, not all were prepared to change their unwanted behaviors. Researchers examined whether a relationship existed between client stages of change and client expectations about counseling. The researchers discovered that students who replied they were in the pre-contemplation stage had significantly lower expectations for a favorable counseling experiences than respondents who were already contemplating, involved in, or focused on maintaining change (Satterfield, Buelow, Lyddon, & Johnson, 1995).

Most of the prevalent research on this topic has been centered on the factors that would increase the likelihood of an individual to change their predetermined and unwanted behaviors. Recently, researchers have begun to focus on the factors that have prevented individuals from making the necessary changes that would result in successful counseling outcomes. These issues have been labeled as avoidance factors (Deane &

Chamberlain, 1994; Deane & Todd, 1996). These studies have included research on the impact of a client's fear of treatment, desire to conceal personal information that could cause distress, and the desire to avoid experiencing increased painful feelings during therapy (Cepeda-Benito, & Short, 1998; Kelly & Achter, 1995; Komiya, Good, & Sherrod, 2000). The data provided in these studies may support the notion that factors that inhibit help-seeking behaviors played an important role in clients' eventual decision to seek counseling (Deane & Todd, 1996).

Expectations and Counselor and Client Gender

The genders of both the counselor and the client have been deliberated by researchers during expectation studies (Johnson, 1978; Myhr, 1977). Subich (1983) determined that specification of the counselor's gender did not have any significant effect on the respondent's expectations regarding counseling and the counselor's ability to provide a meaningful session. However, respondent gender was a significant factor. Female respondents expected more personal involvement during their counseling session, along with more favorable facilitative conditions, and a more positive counseling outcome than males (Subich, 1983). In a similar study, Hardin and Yanico (1983), examined whether a correlation existed between expectations about counseling and respondent sex. They discovered that males expected their counseling session to focus on the advice given by the counselor, and females had greater expectations for a collaborative effort between client and counselor to work simultaneously toward a solution.

Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior

Based upon national and regional surveys, The President's Commission on Mental Health (1978) revealed that most of the public sector did not use mental health services. Researchers have attempted to identify the barriers in existence that has prevented the public from seeking psychological help (Komiya, Good, & Sherrod, 2000). Researchers have discovered that factors that may influence the public's attitudes toward help seeking behavior may stem from internal or external sources (Nadler, 1983). Some individuals may have internal barriers (interpersonal factors) which prevented them from seeking counseling. Others may have external barriers (societal factors) which prevented them from seeking assistance. Some individual may be influenced by a combination of both factors (Nadler, 1983).

Internal Barriers

According to Watson (2003), internal barriers refer to the intrapersonal factors that may have prevented an individual from seeking professional psychological help. Internal barriers can be largely determined by what an individual believes to be acceptable behavior. Some examples of internal barriers faced by individuals may include individualism, interpersonal dependency, self-disclosure, gender, and the desire to conceal negative experiences.

Individualism

Attitudes toward help seeking behavior were researched by Tata and Leong (1994) and they discovered that most individuals believe that their psychological issues are private and can be solved on their own without any intervention from outside. Others view seeking help as a sign of weakness. According to researchers, Americans were less likely to seek professional help and reported that they were uncomfortable discussing personal problems with a professional (Diala, Muntaner, Walrath, Nickerson, LaViest, & Leaf, 2000). Consequently, most people preferred to handle their private issues internally than visit with a qualified mental health professional.

Interpersonal Dependency

Individualism and interpersonal dependency are very similar concepts. Researchers have discovered that low interpersonal dependency was a considerable factor that prevented help seeking behaviors (Bornstein, Krukonis, Manning, Mastrosimone, & Rossner, 1993). People suffering from low interpersonal dependency have found it difficult to trust others and can not see themselves depending on others or seeking help from a counselor.

Self-Disclosure

Researchers have discovered that individuals reluctant to disclose information regarding their personal issues have encountered poor counseling relationships. Kelly and Achter (1995) reported that an individual's desire to conceal personal information

predicted one's help seeking intent and that individuals characterized as high concealers reported less positive attitudes about seeking help as well as lower intentions to seek counseling. Cepeda-Benito and Short (1998) revealed that self-concealers were three times more likely to have not sought counseling when they were experiencing a problem.

Gender and Gender Role

Gender may be viewed as a barrier towards help seeking behavior because it has been found to influence the willingness of an individual to seek counseling help. It has been suggested that women possess more favorable attitudes toward help seeking behavior and use counseling services more so than men (Fischer & Turner, 1970; Horowitz, 1977; Rule & Gandy, 1994). Due to this, researchers suggested that women have greater expectations about their counseling sessions and when these expectations are not satisfied, females become disengaged in the counseling process (Good & Wood, 1995; Robertson & Fitzgerald, 1992).

Desire to Conceal Negative Experiences

According to Kelly and Achter (1995), individuals that regularly concealed negative experiences from their counselor reported less positive attitudes about seeking help as well as lower intentions to seek counseling. According to Cepeda-Benito and Short (1998), "self concealment may be harmful in that it reduces the likelihood of recovery by deterring individuals from seeking treatment" (p.62).

External Barriers

According to Watson (2003), external barriers are social forces that may have averted people from seeking professional counseling services. Social barriers may have originated from others or from an individual's lack of resources. These barriers include social stigma, financial difficulties, and lack of awareness.

Social Stigma

Researchers have established that the presence of stigma has been cited as an influence on whether individuals seek to attain mental health services. Investigators have determined that if mental illness carries a strong stigma, it may have an adverse affect on the use of mental health services (Link & Phelan, 1999).

Financial Difficulties

Individuals who lack the financial capability to attend counseling sessions have reported more negative attitudes toward help seeking behavior (Stefl & Prosperi, 1985). Among African-Americans, economic issues have been found to have a significant impact regarding their ability to access mental health services. Due to the lack of access to health insurance, African-Americans interested in using mental health services are forced to utilize public programs (Muntaner & Parsons, 1996). Mutchler and Burr (1991) identified wealth as a factor in racial differences in the use of mental health services.

Lack of Awareness

Only 9% of the respondents surveyed by Jackson, Neighbors, and Gurin (1986) used the services of psychologists, psychiatrists, or community mental health facilities. Due to economic restraints, community mental health service facilities have not aggressively advertised their services, and, as a result, community members may be unaware of the counseling resources available to them (Loo, Tong, & True, 1989). Because individuals are unaware of the numerous options available to them, several people have been found to hold negative attitudes toward help seeking behavior because they do not view these services as accessible or beneficial (Loo, Tong, & True, 1989).

The review of the literature has provided evidence that both internal and external barriers affected individuals and their efforts to seek professional counseling. Besides these barriers, student-athletes are required to confront their own special set of barriers. Student-athletes are challenged to maintain the proper balance between their academic and athletic endeavors and their public images. These situation specific barriers may be responsible for preventing student-athletes from seeking help (Parham, 1993).

Student-Athlete Attitudes Toward Help Seeking Behavior

Researchers have suggested that student-athletes are generally reluctant to seek psychological help from a counselor and are also hesitant to utilize sport psychology services (Brewer, Van Raalte, Petitpas, Bachman, & Weinhold, 1998). Student-athletes that found themselves in traumatic situations predominately sought help from family, friends, and coaches, but rarely sought assistance from counselors (Selby, Weinstein, &

Bird, 1990). Other factors that may have prevented student-athletes from seeking professional psychological help were: (a) the help provider's professional title, (b) the student-athlete's previous experiences with counseling, and (c) socialization factors (Maniar, Curry, Sommers-Flanagan, & Walsh, 2001).

Ryan (1989) revealed that student-athletes have been found to lack autonomy and intraception. This characteristic has been cultivated over the span of the student-athlete's competitive career, and as a result, student-athletes have become accustomed to being coached, with the coaches authority perceived as absolute (Perry, 1968). Petitpas and Champagne (1988) stated that student-athletes, from an early age, learned that hard work and obedience will be remunerated, and that they will be more rewarded for following directives than engaging in independent thinking. Because of their experience of taking coaches' directions, student-athletes may respond differently in a counseling session than a student who is a member of the general college population that has been encouraged to make individual choices (Valentine & Taub, 1999).

Barriers to the Utilization of Counseling Services

Researchers have identified student-athletes as an at-risk group with special needs (Pinkerton, Hinz, & Barrow, 1989). According to Etzel, Ferrante, and Pinkney (1991) the challenges and demands connected to being a student-athlete made these individuals more prone to mental and physical distress. Student-athletes can benefit from the numerous mental health services provided by colleges and universities (Etzel, Ferrante, & Pinkney, 1991). A study conducted by Selby, Weinstein, and Bird (1990) revealed that

numerous coaches reported that student-athletes convey a need for counseling services and assistance, but according to Pinkerton, Hinz, and Barrow (1989) few student-athletes actually appear for their counseling session.

Internal Barriers

According to Etzel, Ferrante, and Pinkney (1991), student-athletes have been reared in an environment that stressed the importance of self-reliance and resiliency. Student-athletes have been taught from an early age that the good of the team or their overall athletic performance is more important than their personal problems (Etzel, 1999). This mentality has led to the development of barriers which have prevented student-athletes from seeking help. Included in these barriers are the win-at-all-cost mentalities held by coaches and alumni, and the social stigma associated with seeking help (Watson, 2003).

Win-At-All-Cost-Mentality

Throughout their athletic careers, student-athletes have operated under the premise that winning and peak performance were the ultimate goals of athletic competition (Watson, 2003). Student-athletes are cheered for their athletic accomplishments, leading to heightened notoriety on college campuses. Most student-athletes suffer from the perception that admitting they have personal needs could reduce their chances for success by weakening their self-efficacy, reducing playing time, or

reducing their coach's confidence in their ability to perform (Etzel, Pinkney, & Hinkle, 1994).

Social Stigma

For most non-student athletes, seeking psychological help is a relatively anonymous act. However, the same does not hold true for a highly recognized student-athlete (Etzel, Ferrante, & Pinkney, 1991). The celebrity status enjoyed by many student-athletes across college campuses can be detrimental when confronted with the reality of how they will be perceived by other teammates, students, and most importantly, their coaches (Etzel, Ferrante, & Pinkney, 1991). In a study conducted by Linder, Pillow, and Reno (1989), both male and female undergraduate students perceptions of athletes diminished when they discovered that the athlete had been seeking counseling services. Student-athletes may presume that the potential benefits of seeking help may be outweighed by the negative consequences of a flawed image and, subsequently, will not appear for counseling services (Watson, 2003).

External Barriers

Student-athletes are exposed to forces beyond their control, which may contribute to the underutilization of counseling services. Watson (2003) revealed that some of these external barriers to counseling services came from the athletic department personnel, university administrators, and from team commitments.

Barriers From the Athletic Department

Intercollegiate athletic departments have been portrayed as a closed system or within the university (Ferrante, Etzel, & Lantz, 1996). Many athletic departments operate as independent entities that are separate from the rest of the university, and connected only by name (Watson, 2003). Some of the larger Division I athletic programs have been likened to major corporations. Athletic departments such as these receive substantial funding from gate receipts, contributions from booster organizations, revenue generated from licensing of media rights and team logos, and corporate sponsors (Fletcher, Benshoff, & Richburg, 2003). Some people have suggested that athletic departments of this magnitude have little or no connection to the other functions and activities at their school (Watson, 2003). According to researchers, student-athletes may share the same independent view adopted by the athletic department, which in turn, may lead student-athletes to turn their back on counseling services offered by the institution and look instead to teammates and other athletic personnel for support and assistance (Ferrante, Etzel, & Lantz, 1996).

Frequently, athletic department personnel employed to assist student-athletes with their emotional needs have not been properly trained or equipped to handle the normal developmental issues that may arise. Most of the advisors assigned to help student-athletes have come from backgrounds in physical education, education, sports medicine, or business (Etzel, Pinkney, & Hinkle, 1994). These individuals have frequently lacked the appropriate training and credentials to assist student-athletes with their educational, social, and personal problems. The majority of professionals hired to work with student-

athletes were former student-athletes who were primarily responsible for maintaining student-athletes academically eligible and enhance student-athlete's athletic performance (Brooks, Etzel, & Ostrow, 1987).

Barriers From the University

The presence of some barriers at the institutional level may have prevented student-athletes from seeking the appropriate help they required. Fearful of NCAA sanctions, athletic departments may proceed cautiously or opt not to offer any additional support to student-athletes in need of counseling services (Etzel, Pinkney, & Hinkle, 1994). Student-athletes have not benefited from the perception held by the general student body population that most student-athletes are over-privileged and pampered. These same institutions are wary of being viewed as providing excessive benefits to student-athletes and neglecting the needs of traditional students (Remer, Tongate, & Watson, 1978).

Furthermore, university athletic programs that have enjoyed athletic success are often apprehensive when confronted with a student-athlete requiring personal, social, or emotional assistance. Universities have often assumed that student-athletes requiring counseling intervention will lead to unfavorable reactions from students, alumni, and fans (Watson, 2003). Individuals that have supported the athletic program may decide to overlook problems incurred by student-athletes when the team is enjoying athletic success. Any disruptions to team chemistry may alter the team's winning strategies (Watson, 2003). On the other hand, if a team has been athletically unsuccessful,

university personnel may attempt to dissociate themselves from the negative situation, frightened that any damaging publicity would reflect poorly on the institution (Etzel, Pinkney, & Hinkle, 1994).

Time Constraints

Unfortunately, many student-athletes have discovered that fatigue from training, traveling, and competition has resulted in insufficient time for studying and attending to their needs (Miller & Kerr, 2002). According to Etzel, Ferrante and Pinkney (1991), student-athlete's class schedules and practice times are responsible for the consumption of most of their time during the day. When their sport is in season, student-athletes are required to consistently devote more than 25 hours per week toward practice, training, and competition (Simons, Van Rheenen, & Covington, 1999).

Frequently, the class schedules of student-athletes have not coincided with the hours offered by counseling centers (Watson, 2003). Due to the regimented time constraints placed on student-athletes, they are often not capable of sacrificing athletic or academic time to seek assistance for their needs, and consequently, rely on coaches and teammates for the help and support they need (Watson, 2003).

To date, insufficient research has been conducted regarding the expectations about counseling held by student-athletes. This study will attempt to address some of the questions that have surrounded collegiate student-athletes and their expectations about counseling and help seeking behavior. The topics of expectations about counseling, gender, and attitudes toward help seeking behavior, have been included because research

has indicated their relevance. This study has been designed to augment the existing literature concerning the counseling needs of college student-athletes and provide a greater understanding of how counseling services can be developed to best meet the needs of this under-served population.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The review of the literature in Chapter 2 demonstrated the need to better understand the factors that account for variance in attitudes toward help-seeking behaviors. This study sought to expand on the efforts of previous researchers who examined collegiate student-athletes' attitudes toward help seeking behavior by focusing on the entire student-athlete population at a central Florida community college. The methodological processes, including the instrumentation, sampling procedures, data collections procedures, and statistical analyses used to interpret the data, will be addressed in this chapter.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study was conducted to address the following research questions and hypotheses:

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between attitudes toward help seeking behavior and expectations about counseling, and what is the amount of variance that can be accounted for by expectations about counseling?

Research Hypothesis 1: A significant relationship will exist between attitudes toward seeking counseling help and expectation about counseling, and expectations about counseling will account for a significant amount of variance in attitudes toward help seeking behavior.

Research Question 2: What effect do gender and athletic participation (student-athlete versus non-athlete student) have on expectations about counseling and attitudes toward help seeking behavior?

Research Hypothesis 2: There will be no statistically significant difference in attitudes toward help seeking behavior based on athletic participation (student-athlete versus non-athlete student) or gender of respondent. However, there will be significant differences in expectations about counseling based on gender of respondent.

Participants

The participants included 195 community college students at a central Florida community college. The participants were comprised of two groups, non-athlete students that were randomly selected from a list of community college students provided by the institution's admissions office and the entire student-athlete population. The student-athlete population consisted of five intercollegiate athletic teams (baseball, men's basketball, women's basketball, women's golf, and softball) that totaled 74 participants. The sample of non-athlete students consisted of 121 participants.

The majority of the participants were female (52%) and the predominant age was 19 years old (31%). With regards to ethnicity, 57% of the participants were Caucasian, twice as many as the next largest group, African Americans (28%). The majority of participants were sophomores (57%). Responses to the question concerning type of scholarship varied, with athletic (32%) and no scholarship at all (30%) being the most frequent responses. A total of 43% of participants reported not having paid weekly

employment, and 72% of participants reported that they have never had any previous counseling experience.

Instrumentation

Measures of expectations about counseling and attitudes toward help seeking behavior were used in this study in conjunction with a demographic questionnaire. Student's expectations were measured using the Expectations About Counseling-Brief form (EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982) and attitudes toward help seeking behavior were measured using the Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale (ATSPPHS; Fischer & Turner, 1970). The EAC-B and ATSPPHS are included as the study instrumentation in the Appendixes. All data were collected using participant self-report.

Expectations About Counseling--Brief Form

The Expectations About Counseling--Brief Form consists of 66 items grouped into 17 scales that examine various expectations about the counseling process, using a seven point Likert scale. The 17 scales are categorized into 4 expectancy factors derived from principle components analysis with varimax rotation (Tinsley, Workman, & Kass, 1980). The four factors are: (a) personal commitment (i.e., motivation, openness, and responsibility); (b) facilitative conditions (i.e., acceptance, confrontation, genuineness, and trustworthiness); (c) counselor expertise (i.e., knowledgeable, empathetic, and directiveness; and (d) nurturance (i.e., support and care form counselor). The four factors were selected because a split group factor analysis indicated that the four factor solution,

accounting for 75% of the total variance in expectations, was most replicable across numerous samples (Tinsley, Workman, & Kass, 1980). The four factors served as the units of analysis in the current study. Possible responses ranged from *not true* (1) to *definitely true* (7). Each factor contained between 9 and 23 items.

The alpha coefficients for the 17 scales of the EAC-B have been reported to range from .69 to .82 with a median alpha of .77 (Tinsley, 1982). For this study, the four factors were used as measures of counseling expectations. Factor reliabilities for the four factors of the EAC-B have been reported as personal commitment ($\alpha = .97$), counselor expertise ($\alpha = .84$), and nurturance ($\alpha = .72$) (Tinsley, Workman, & Kass, 1980). The brief scale has been found to correlate well with the long form (.78-.95) and is more highly related to external validity criteria such as satisfaction and positive counseling results (Miller & Moore, 1993; Washington & Tinsley, 1982). Using Fry's Readability Graph (Fry, 1977), the reading level of the EAC-B was calculated to be seventh grade.

The instructions for the EAC-B asked respondents to imagine that they were about see a college counselor or psychologist for the first time, and to report their expectations regarding their imagined counseling experience. Those respondents who had previous experience with counseling services were asked to imagine a new experience and not to rate their previous experiences.

Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale (ATSPPHS)

The Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale (ATSPPHS; Fischer & Turner, 1970) consists of 29 items that examine an individual's

attitudes toward seeking professional help. The items were scored using a 4-point Likert type scale, with responses ranging from "agree" (0) to "disagree" (3). The overall score represents how positive an individual's attitudes toward seeking professional psychological help are. A total of 11 items are positively stated and 18 are negatively stated; negative items were reverse scored.

Scores can range from 0 to 87, and a high score indicates a positive attitude toward seeking help. Initial factor analyses conducted by Fischer and Turner (1970) revealed that the 29 attitude scale variables can be loaded onto 4 factors that summarize the main attitudinal and personality variables related to help seeking. The first factor identified recognition of personal needs for psychotherapeutic support. The second factor identified an individual's opinions about the threat of being stigmatized as a result of seeking psychological help. Factor three refers to the level of openness exhibited by an individual, and how likely he or she is to share personal information or reveal problems. The fourth factor refers to confidence in the mental health profession and the belief that seeking help will result in positive outcomes (Fischer & Turner, 1970). Based upon the recommendations of previous researchers, the overall score served as the unit of analysis in this study (Fischer & Farina, 1995).

The instructions for the ATSPPHS scale asked respondents to share their honest opinions regarding agreement and disagreement with several statements that pertained to mental health issues. For this study, the phrase "counseling center" was used in place of mental hospital, "counseling" was used in place of psychotherapy, and the phrase "college counselor" replaced psychiatrist and psychologist. Comparisons of versions of

the ATSPPHS with similar variations in language have yielded analogous psychometric properties as the original scale (Fischer & Farina, 1995).

Fischer and Farina (1995) reported internal consistency alphas for the overall score ($\alpha = .83$) and for the four factors as: recognition of need for psychotherapeutic help ($\alpha = .67$), stigma tolerance ($\alpha = .70$), interpersonal openness ($\alpha = .62$), and confidence in mental health practitioner ($\alpha = .74$). Researchers (Fischer & Farina, 1995; and Fischer & Turner, 1970) have noted that the sub-scales have few items and modest internal reliability coefficients at best, further supporting the use of the overall score for this study. Test-retest reliability over a four week time span has been reported as .82 (Fischer & Turner, 1970). Using Fry's Readability Graph (Fry, 1977), the reading level of the ATSPPHS was calculated to be tenth grade.

Reliability Analyses

After creating their original instrument, Fischer and Turner (1970) reported a full scale reliability of .83 for the Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale (ATSPPHS). Reliability coefficients obtained for the current study were .64 for the athlete group and .52 for the non-athlete group. For the entire sample, a reliability coefficient of .59 was computed. These low reliability coefficients introduced error variance into the equation.

Instrument Reliability

To examine the reliability of the instruments used in this study for this sample, Cronbach's alpha coefficients (Pedhazur, 1997) were calculated to evaluate the internal consistency of each instrument scale. The results of these analyses, including alpha coefficients calculated on the original norming sample for each instrument, are presented in Table 1.

Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale

In the present study, the full scale score of the ATSPPHS was used. An alpha reliability coefficient of .59 was reported for the ATSPPHS using the full study sample (n=195). Reliability coefficients of .64 and .52 were found for the athlete and non-athlete groups respectively. These results are considerably lower than the alpha coefficient obtained ($\alpha = .83$) for the norming sample originally obtained by Fischer and Turner (1970).

Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form

The alpha coefficients computed for the four factors using all study participants were: personal commitment .89, facilitative conditions .87, counselor expertise .79, and nurturance .69. Reliability coefficients for these factors were similar, though consistently slightly lower, to those reported by Tinsley, Workman, and Kass (1980) in their original factor analysis of the EAC instrument.

Table 1
Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients for the Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale (ATSPPHS) and the Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form (EAC-B) Factors of Personal Commitment, Facilitative Conditions, Counselor Expertise, and Nurturance

	Athletes Study Alpha (α)	Non-Athletes Study Alpha (α)	Full Sample Study Alpha (α)	Original Norm Alpha (α)
ATSPPHS	.66	.54	.59	.83
PC	.90	.86	.89	.97
FC	.91	.82	.87	.97
CE	.82	.73	.79	.84
NU	.78	.59	.69	.72

Note. PC = Personal Commitment; FC = Facilitative Conditions; CE = Counselor Expertise; NU = Nurturance.

Demographic Questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire included items that asked participants to indicate age, gender, ethnicity, year in school, their participation in collegiate sports (athlete versus non-athlete), scholarship recipient, and hours of paid weekly employment. The information obtained from these questions was used to analyze data and appropriately separate the respondents. A question asking respondents to note previous counseling experience was also included. Response options ranging from "never" to "currently seeking counseling services" were provided for the question on previous counseling experience. Two open-ended questions examined counseling expectations and help seeking behavior in further detail. The first question asked participants to list three issues for which they would seek professional counseling services. The second question asked participants to list three reasons they would not seek the help of a counselor.

Procedure

Prior to the distribution of any test materials, a disclosure statement was provided to all potential participants informing them as to what would be expected of them in this study, their rights as participants, and how the data would be collected, analyzed, and stored. The student-athlete participants represented the entire student-athlete population of the central Florida community college and were gathered from the five intact intercollegiate athletic teams that comprised the athletic program. Time was allotted for questions from the student-athletes. The non-athlete participants in this study were collected via a random selection of names provided by the registrar's office and their questionnaires were mailed to their home addresses. The principal researcher included a consent waiver form and appropriate directions with the test materials to all volunteer participants.

The survey packet included copies of the informed consent form, a brief description of the research study, the ATSPPHS, the EAC-B, and a demographic questionnaire. All respondents were asked to detach and retain their consent forms prior to returning their packets. For the student-athlete population, a collection bin was placed at the front of the classroom for respondents to return their completed instrument packet.

Student-athletes were asked to place their surveys directly into the collection bins rather than having the test administrator handle the materials. This helped insure the confidentiality of all respondents. For the packets mailed to the non-athlete students, a self addressed stamped envelope was included in their packets to insure proper delivery and confidentiality. The instruction sets included with the ATSPPHS and EAC-B were

included with each instrument in the survey packet. Participants were informed that their participation in the study was voluntary and that they could stop at any time. Those who chose not to participate were free to do so.

Data Analysis

Preliminary analyses were conducted on the data set to determine whether the four groups of interest (male athletes, male non-athletes, female athletes, and female non-athletes) differed significantly on other demographic or status variables such as age, ethnicity, year in school, scholarship recipient, current employment, and previous counseling experience. Descriptive statistics were calculated for each of the variables used in this study as well as for the demographic information collected. Descriptive analyses were conducted for the demographic variables of gender, age, ethnicity, year in school, athlete status, scholarship type, hours of paid weekly employment, and previous counseling experience for the 74 student-athletes and the 121 non-athlete students. Means and standard deviations were calculated separately for the ATSPPHS and EAC-B subscales across the dimensions of athletic participation and biological sex. The research questions were then addressed using a variety of statistical procedures.

To evaluate the first research question (What is the relationship between attitudes toward help seeking behavior and expectations about counseling, and what amount of variance in attitudes toward help seeking behavior can be accounted for by expectations about counseling?), Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated to determine the relationship between the variables of expectation about counseling this variable

included client attitudes, counselor attitudes, counselor characteristics, and counseling process, and one's attitude toward help seeking behavior.

A linear regression analysis was used to determine the amount of variance in attitudes toward help seeking behavior that was accounted for by the predictor variables, expectations about counseling, and how much was accounted for by error. The factors used to measure expectations about counseling included personal commitment, facilitative conditions, counselor expertise, and nurturance. The regression analysis was also used in determining the individual contribution of each predictor variable to the overall variance in the dependent variable (attitudes toward help seeking behavior).

The second research question (What effects do gender and athletic participation have on expectations about counseling and attitudes toward help seeking behavior?) was answered with a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The scores on the ATSPPHS and the four factors of the EAC-B for all participants in the study were treated as dependent variables in the MANOVA. The status variables of athletic participation and gender served as independent variables. This analysis allowed the principal investigator to consider the main effects for each of the independent variables as well as interaction effects (gender by athletic participation). The data analysis was conducted to consider the effect of athletic participation and gender on attitudes toward help seeking behavior and expectations about counseling as well as possible interaction effects between gender and athletic participation status. For this study, an a priori alpha level of .05 was used.

Student-Athlete Interviews

Qualitative data was gathered in the form of a one-on-one interview with one member from each athletic team. During the interview process, each participant was asked to answer the main question of "Why don't student-athletes seek professional psychological help?" Based on qualitative research suggestions from Creswell (1998), the researcher has encapsulated his findings in phenomenological form.

Each of the respondents agreed of their own volition to participate in this portion of the study provided they would enjoy full anonymity. All of the respondents are current student-athletes at the community college where this study occurred. Three of the respondents are freshmen and the other two respondents are sophomores. Due to the gender distribution of the athletic teams, three participants are female and two are males. Only one participant had prior counseling experience. Each of the interviews was 45 minutes in duration and was conducted in a comfortable location away from the athletic department. This measure was taken in an attempt to relax each participant. The responses provided by the participants appeared to be candid and captured the essence of the fears and preconceptions of why student-athletes are hesitant to seek psychological counseling.

While the number of participants interviewed in this sample of student-athletes does not permit the findings to be significant, it does allow counselors to identify relevant approaches as to how best serve this special population of college students. The fear of stigmatism is still abundantly personified in the perceptions student-athletes hold for professional counseling and this must be the first hurdle overcome by counselors.

Another glaring concern for mental health practitioners are the unrealistic expectations of counselors and the counseling sessions held by prospective clients. Perhaps a preliminary review by the counselor of what behaviors are expected of the client and what the counselor hopes to accomplish during the session could be useful to alleviate client's misconceptions. Nevertheless, the comments shared by the respondents identify the need for further research into this matter.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the effect of expectations about counseling, gender, and athletic status on college student's attitudes toward help seeking behavior. A secondary purpose was to examine the issues for which students (athlete and non-athlete) would seek counseling and the reasons they would not. This chapter includes a description of the characteristics of the study participants as well as the results of reliability analyses conducted on the Expectations About Counseling- Brief Form (EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982) subscales and the Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale (ATSPPHS; Fischer & Turner, 1970). Finally, the results of the statistical analyses conducted to test the research hypotheses proposed as part of this study are provided.

Preliminary Data Analyses

Before testing the research hypotheses, preliminary analyses were conducted on the demographic data collected from the participants (n =195). Responses to the demographic questionnaire were analyzed and compared to determine if the two groups of interest (athletes and non-athletes) differed on any other demographic factors. Frequency analyses, as appropriate to response format, were calculated to determine if

there were any major differences. Table 2 presents the frequencies of the demographic variables.

Table 2
Frequencies and Percentages of Responses to Demographic Questions

	Student-Athletes		Non-Athletes	
Demographic Variable	n	%	n	%
Gender				
Male	36	48.6	58	47.9
Female	38	51.4	63	52.1
Ethnicity				
African American	23	31.1	33	27.3
Asian	0	0	1	.8
Caucasian	48	64.5	63	52.1
Hispanic	0	0	11	9.1
Other	3	4.4	13	10.7
Year in School				
Freshman	41	55.4	56	46.2
Sophomore	33	44.6	65	53.8
Scholarship Type				
Athletic	63	85.2	0	0
Academic	7	9.5	44	36.4
Need Based	1	1.3	22	18.2
None	3	4	55	45.4
Counseling Experience				
Previous	21	28.4	33	27.3
No Previous	53	71.6	88	72.7
Demographic Variable	M	SD	M	SD
Age	18.58	1.32	20.11	1.81
Hours of Employment	2.36	5.49	14.54	12.12

Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

Descriptive statistics also were obtained for the study variables. The athlete and non-athlete group means and standard deviations on the four subscales of the Expectations About Counseling-Brief form (EAC-B): Personal Commitment, Facilitative Conditions, Counselor Expertise, and Nurturance are presented in Table 3. Descriptive statistics from previously published research are also provided for comparison.

Table 3
Means and Standard Deviations for the Factors of Personal Commitment, Facilitative Conditions, Counselor Expertise, and Nurturance from EAC-B

	Current Study				Miller & Moore (1993)			
	Athletes (n = 74)		Non-Athletes (n = 121)		Athletes (n = 50)		Non-Athletes (n = 50)	
Factor	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Personal Commitment	5.12	1.13	5.39	.89	5.05	1.13	4.74	1.21
Facilitative Conditions	5.51	1.06	5.83	.72	5.54	1.30	5.20	1.19
Counselor Expertise	5.02	1.16	4.71	1.02	5.02	1.40	4.19	1.31
Nurturance	5.19	1.12	5.02	.85	5.38	1.37	5.17	1.20

Note. M=Mean; SD=Standard Deviation

Table 4 presents the means and standard deviations for the raw score on the Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale (ATSPPHS), which serves as the Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior factor, for the current study and for the previously published research of Fischer and Turner (1970).

Table 4
Mean and Standard Deviation for the Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale (ATSPPHS) Score

	Current Study				Fischer & Turner (1970)	
	Athletes (n = 74)		Non-Athletes (n = 121)		College Students (n = 458)	
Factor	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
ATHSB	44.67	7.59	47.39	7.32	59.62	11.60

Testing of Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

It was hypothesized that a statistically significant relationship will exist between attitudes toward seeking counseling help and expectations about counseling and that expectations about counseling will account for a significant amount of variance in attitudes toward help-seeking behavior. To test this hypothesis, Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated to consider the relationship between the variables of Personal Commitment, Facilitative Conditions, Counselor Expertise, Nurturance and Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior. The correlations are shown in Table 5.

Table 5
Intercorrelations Between Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior, Personal Commitment, Facilitative Conditions, Counselor Expertise, and Nurturance from EAC-B

Variable	ATHSB	PC	FC	CE	NU
ATHSB	1.00	**.23	.04	-.31	.05
PC	**.23	1.00	**.74	**.43	**.65
FC	.04	**.74	1.00	**.64	**.83
CE	-.31	**.43	**.64	1.00	**.61
NU	.05	**.65	**.83	**.61	1.00

Note. ATHSB = Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior; PC = Personal Commitment; FC = Facilitative Conditions; CE = Counselor Expertise; NU = Nurturance.
**p < .01.

The Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior factor was significantly correlated with the factors of Personal Commitment (r = .20, p<.01), and Counselor Expertise (r = -.22, p < .01). The matrix also indicates moderate intercorrelation between the four factors of the EAC-B (personal commitment, facilitative conditions, counselor expertise, and nurturance). Based on the calculated correlation coefficients, this portion of Hypothesis 1 was partially supported.

The second component of Hypothesis 1 stated: Expectations about counseling will account for a significant amount of variance in Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior. To test this portion of the hypothesis, a linear regression analysis was used to determine the amount of variance in Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior that was accounted for by the predictor variables, the four factors of the EAC-B, and how much was accounted for by error. The four factors entered as independent variables were Personal Commitment, Facilitative Conditions, Counselor Expertise, and Nurturance. The total

score of the ATSPPHS was entered as the dependent variable. The results of the linear regression, including unstandardized betas, are presented in Table 6.

Table 6
Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior (N = 195)

Variable	ß	SE ß	β	t
Personal Commitment	2.49	.66	.39	**4.22
Facilitative Conditions	-.58	.86	-.07	-.59
Counselor Expertise	-2.32	.51	-.34	**-4.62
Nurturance	.35	.76	.05	.46

Note. *p<.05, **p<.01.

The results of the linear regression analysis indicated significant standardized Beta coefficients for the predictors of Personal Commitment ($\beta = .39, p < .01$) and Counselor Expertise ($\beta = -.34, p < .01$). The analysis also indicated that the variables of Facilitative Conditions and Nurturance did not predict a significant portion of the variance in Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior. Based on the data, this portion of Hypothesis 1 was supported as well.

Hypothesis 2

It was hypothesized that there will be no statistically significant differences in Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior based on athletic participation (student-athlete versus non-athlete students) or gender of respondent. However, there will be significant differences in expectations about counseling based on gender of respondent. To test this

hypothesis, a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was run. The results of the MANOVA are included in Table 7.

Table 7
Multivariate Analysis of Variance and Univariate F Tests for Athlete Status and Gender

	Multivariate Analysis		Univariate Analyses				
			ATHSB	PC	FC	CE	NU
Source	Pillai	Multivariate F	F	F	F	F	F
Gender	.08	**4.79	*4.49	**10.49	**13.95	.15	**9.20
Athlete Status	.11	**6.80	2.89	**7.84	2.47	*5.89	.03
Gender Athlete Status	.05	1.97	.34	*4.39	.92	2.66	*4.15

Note. ATHSB = Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior; PC = Personal Commitment; FC= Facilitative Conditions; CE = Counselor Expertise; and NU = Nurturance.
*p<.05. **p<.01

The MANOVA was calculated to evaluate the differences among the mean profiles for each of the subgroups in this study. A main effect was found for Gender ($F_{5, 189} = 4.79$, $p < 0.01$) and Athlete Status ($F_{5, 189} = 6.80$, $p < 0.01$). The univariate F-test results are also presented in Table 7. Statistically significant differences were found between male and female college students on the variable of Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior ($F_{1, 193} = 4.51$, $p < .05$), Personal Commitment ($F_{1, 193} = 10.49$, $p < .01$), Facilitative Conditions ($F_{1, 193} = 13.95$, $p < .01$), and Nurturance ($F_{1, 193} = 9.20$, $p < .01$) with female participants reporting more positive attitudes toward help-seeking behavior and expecting to be more motivated, open, and accepting of responsibility in the counseling session. Further, female respondents reported expecting to experience more acceptance, genuineness, trustworthiness, and confrontation in the counseling session.

On the variable of athletic status, statistically significant differences were found between student-athletes and non-athletes on the variable of Personal Commitment ($F_{1, 193} = 7.84$, $p < .01$) and Counselor Expertise ($F_{1, 193} = 5.89$, $p < .01$) with non-athletes expecting to be more motivated, open, and accepting of responsibility in the counseling session and expecting the counselor to be more knowledgeable and directive. For the Gender by Athlete Status interaction, statistically significant differences were found for Personal Commitment ($F_{1, 193} = 4.39$, $p < .05$) and Nurturance ($F_{1, 193} = 4.15$, $p < .05$). Table 8 highlights the direction of the significant effects.

Table 8
Means and Standard Deviations of the Study Variables by Gender and Athlete Status

	Gender				Athlete Status			
	Male		Female		Athlete		Non-Athlete	
Variable	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
ATHSB	44.27	8.16	48.72	7.13	44.77	7.67	47.59	7.41
PC	4.98	1.09	5.41	1.02	5.12	1.26	5.39	.92
FC	5.25	1.06	5.79	.79	5.61	1.13	5.76	.75
CE	4.68	1.05	4.75	1.10	5.16	1.15	4.59	1.12
NU	4.76	1.04	5.29	.96	5.19	1.12	5.13	.91

Note. ATHSB = Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior; PC = Personal Commitment; FC = Facilitative Conditions; CE = Counselor Expertise; and NU = Nurturance

Based on the MANOVA results, the null hypothesis that there will be no differences in Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior based on gender or athletic participants was not supported, as gender did have a significant effect on the dependent variable of Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior. The data, however, did support the hypothesis claim that significant differences would exist in the expectations about counseling based on gender. Significant differences based on gender were found for

three of the four EAC-B factors (Personal Commitment, Facilitative Conditions, and Nurturance), with female participants having greater expectations in these three content areas.

Additional Analyses

To help further explain the attitudes toward help-seeking behavior held by college students, two open ended questions were included with the instrumentation used in this study. The first question asked respondents to identify the types of problems or situations for which they would consider seeking the assistance of a professional counselor. Respondents were asked to provide up to three responses for this question. To facilitate interpretation of the data obtained, responses were grouped into categories. These categories capture the most salient points highlighted in the data. The categorical breakdown of the responses to question one is provided in Table 9. There were a total of 279 responses to this first open ended question.

Question two asked respondents to list reasons why they might choose not to seek counseling for personal and social reasons. As with question one, participants were asked to provide up to three responses for this question. The results are presented in Table 10 and are arranged by category of response. There were 216 overall responses to question two, with 78 responses by athletes and 138 by non-athletes.

Table 9
Reasons Why Respondents Might Seek the Assistance of a Professional Counselor

	Responses of Student-Athletes		Responses of Non-Athletes		All Responses	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Stress and Anxiety	6	6.3	21	11.5	27	9.7
Depression	7	7.3	8	4.4	15	5.4
Suicidal/Homicidal Ideations	5	5.2	4	2.2	9	3.2
Family Issues (e.g., parents, siblings, divorce issues)	11	11.5	21	11.5	32	11.5
Interpersonal Relationships (e.g., marital, dating, friendship)	5	5.2	36	19.7	41	14.7
Grief and Loss	3	3.1	11	6.0	14	5.0
Dealing with Emotions	5	5.2	12	6.5	17	6.1
School Related Issues	8	8.3	6	3.3	14	5.0
Sport Related Issues	4	4.2	0	0	4	1.4
Advice Seeking (e.g., guidance, support)	4	4.2	7	3.8	11	4.0
Medical Related Issues (illness, medication seeking)	3	3.1	1	0.5	4	1.4
Mental Illness	3	3.1	9	4.9	12	4.3
Traumatic Experiences	2	2.1	8	4.4	10	3.6
Substance Abuse	0	0	3	1.6	3	1.1
Eating Disorders	1	1.0	2	1.1	3	1.1
Behavioral Problems	1	1.0	1	0.5	2	0.7
Spirituality, Religion, Meaning of Life	0	0	4	2.2	4	1.4
Problems not yet Identified	4	4.2	8	4.4	12	4.3
Social Issues	0	0	2	1.1	2	0.7
None	24	25.0	19	10.4	43	15.4
Total	96	100	183	100	279	100

For the student-athlete respondents, the most prevalent responses were that they felt they did not need counseling services (19.1%) and personal discomfort with the counselor (16.7%). For the non-athlete respondents, perceptions of others was the most common response (23.9%). Respondents indicated that the stigma associated with counseling and how others might view them was the main reason they would not seek counseling help. Overall, 18.9% of all respondents reported the belief that others would

look unfavorably upon counseling as the primary reason that they would not seek counseling services.

Table 10
Reasons Why Respondents Might Choose Not to Seek Counseling

Reason	Responses of Student-Athletes		Responses of Non-Athletes		All	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Time	9	11.5	8	5.8	17	7.8
Perception of Others	8	10.3	33	23.9	41	18.9
Financial	7	9.0	7	5.1	14	6.5
Alternative Supports	3	3.9	7	5.1	10	4.5
Handle Problems Myself	6	7.7	9	6.5	15	6.9
Not Sure It Will Work	5	6.4	13	9.4	18	8.1
Personal Discomfort	13	16.7	15	10.9	28	12.9
Unfamiliar With Process	6	7.7	3	2.2	11	5.0
Personal Reasons	6	7.7	18	13.0	24	11.0
No Need	15	19.1	25	18.1	40	18.4
Total	78	100.0	138	100.0	216	100.0

Results of Student-Athlete Interviews

When participants were asked why they would be hesitant to seek psychological help, the predominant response was that they were “scared” of how their teammates would react and respond to their actions. Respondents believed that if their teammates knew they were seeking professional psychological help, they would be treated differently by their teammates. When asked to expand on this remark, four of the respondents stated that they believed their teammates would question their mental capacities and would not want them competing if the game was “on the line.” The other respondent replied that her teammates would be more understanding of the situation but

that she still believed she would be treated differently. When the respondent was asked to define differently, her response was "mentally fragile."

Furthermore, all of the participants believed that if their coach knew they were seeking counseling assistance it would negatively impact their playing time. The reasons for respondents' beliefs differed. Both male participants commented that their respective coaches preached about mental toughness during practices. By seeking counseling help, they believed their coach would view them as mentally weak and not worthy of playing. The responses of the female participants differed from the males. Two of the three females believed that their coach would be more receptive to their need to seek counseling but also that the coach would use this knowledge against them when deciding which players should compete. The other female respondent commented that she believed her coach would be supportive of her need for psychological help as long as she did not miss practice time to meet with the counselor. If so, then the respondent believed that her coach would use that as an excuse not to start her.

The participants were also asked whether counselors should be part of an athletic department's holistic approach in addressing the psychological needs of student-athletes. Despite their reluctance to use professional psychological counseling, each of the respondents remarked that sport psychologists should be employed by every athletic department that cared about the mental health of their student-athletes. These findings are congruent with previous research data indicating the dichotomous relationship between student-athletes and their desire to seek professional counseling (Parham, 1993).

When the student-athletes were questioned regarding their expectations of counseling and what behavior was expected from the counselor, each had a slightly different opinion. Both male participants commented that they expected the counselor to behave in a manner similar to their coach. When asked to elaborate on this comment, they responded that their expectations were that a counselor would be authoritative, opinionated, and provide an immediate solution to their problems. Again, these remarks are consistent with previous research findings. The females expected their counseling session to be more engaging and allow them the ability to have more input into the quality of their counseling sessions and desired outcomes. All female respondents acknowledged that it would require more time to resolve a personal issue through counseling and did not expect a "quick fix" to their problems. Their remarks support previous research findings regarding the disparity in expectations of male and female student-athletes.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this final chapter, the study results are summarized, conclusions are drawn, and limitations are identified. Implications for both counseling research and practice are offered. The results of the data analyses are interpreted, and suggestions for future research are provided.

This study was conducted to examine the effects of Expectations About Counseling, gender, and athlete status on Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior of community college students. Study participants were asked to complete a survey packet that included three instruments: the Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale (ATSPPHS), the Expectations About Counseling Brief Form (EAC-B), and a demographic questionnaire that included two open-ended questions about seeking professional counseling services. Participants were randomly selected from a list of names provided by the Office of Admissions and through the cooperation of a community college Athletic Department. Responses were kept anonymous and the results have been analyzed and presented in this study.

Description of Sample

The sample consisted of 195 community college students at a mid sized public community college located in central Florida. The sample contained 74 student-athletes and 121 non-athlete students. For the athlete subgroup, the gender distribution was

nearly equal, with female respondents accounting for 51.3% of the population. The non-athlete sample was nearly identical in representation as the athlete subgroup with 52% of the respondents being female. This number is slightly below the current community college statistics that describe a population that is 62% female. In regard to help seeking behavior, 72.3% of participants reported that they have never had any previous counseling experience.

Description of Study Variables

For the current study, mean scores for both the athlete and non-athlete groups were substantially lower than the mean score reported by Fischer and Turner (1970) in their original study. For comparison purposes, the mean scores of the current study were compared to the original mean by converting the current mean scores to percentiles on the original distribution of scores. The mean score for athletes ($\underline{M}$ = 44.46) in this study corresponds with a score in the 10th percentile of the original sample. The mean score for non-athletes ($\underline{M}$ = 46.79) in this study corresponds with a score in the 14th percentile. The more favorable attitudes of respondents in the original study may have occurred because that sample was drawn completely from undergraduate psychology courses. These respondents may have based their attitudes on their knowledge of psychology and psychological services gained in class.

Research Analysis of Research Hypotheses and Open Ended Questions

Hypothesis 1

It was stated in Research Hypothesis 1 that a significant relationship would exist between attitudes toward help-seeking behavior and expectations about counseling. A relationship between the two variables was suggested based on findings in the literature that client expectations influenced an individual's decision to enter into a counseling relationship (Snyder, Hill, & Derkesen, 1972). Kahn, Wood, and Wiessen (1999) examined student perceptions of college counseling center services and found that college students' willingness to enter counseling was moderated by their awareness of specific services offered and their expectations of what they would gain in counseling.

For this study, a correlation matrix was constructed to test the relationship between expectations about counseling (EAC-B factors) and attitudes toward help-seeking behavior (ATSPPHS score). A small but statistically significant positive correlation was found between Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior and Personal Commitment ($r = .20, p < .01$). Likewise, a small but statistically significant negative correlation was found between Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior and Counselor Expertise ($r = -.22, p < .01$). These results partially support the predicted relationship of Hypothesis One.

The statistically significant positive correlation found between Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior and Personal Commitment was consistent with previous findings (Satterfield, Buelow, Lyddon, & Johnson, 1995). Personal Commitment refers to the

client's self expectations about motivation, openness toward counseling, and responsibility in the counseling process. Respondents who expected to play a greater role in the counseling process were inclined to have more positive attitudes toward help-seeking behavior.

The statistically significant negative correlation found between Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior and Counselor Expertise suggests an interesting finding. The Counselor Expertise factor refers to the client's expectations that her or his counselor will be knowledgeable and directive during their session. The correlation between these two variables suggests that individuals who have a more favorable attitude toward help-seeking behavior expect their counselors to be less direct and assume a less expert role in forming the therapeutic relationship. Those respondents that looked favorably upon seeking counseling help desired a counseling relationship that was more collaborative in nature and valued the clients' input about their situations.

It was also posited in Hypothesis 1 that the factors of Personal Commitment, Facilitative Conditions, Counselor Expertise, and Nurturance would account for a significant amount of variance in Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior held by college students. A linear regression analysis was used to determine the amount of variance in Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior accounted for by the predictor variables and the amount of variance accounted for by error. The overall model accounted for 15% of the variance in Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior. While this overall percentage was statistically significant and provides support for the

acceptance of this portion of Hypothesis 1 ($R^2 = .15$, $F(4, 189) = 11.46$, $p < .01$), it does represent a small effect.

Significant betas were found for the factors of Personal Commitment (.39) and Counselor Expertise (-.34). The significance of the Personal Commitment factor demonstrates that clients' self-expectations about motivation, openness toward counseling, and responsibility in the counseling process positively predict Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior. Clients who anticipate taking responsibility for personal change in the counseling relationship generally have had more positive Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior. While it was beyond the scope of this study to consider how attitudes affect actual help-seeking behavior, previous researchers (Rickwood & Braithwaite, 1994) have examined this relationship and found significant correlations between attitudes toward professional psychological counseling and one's actual decision to seek help.

Another substantial finding was the significant negative beta for Counselor Expertise (-.34) in the linear regression equation where Counselor Expertise referred to clients' expectations that their counselors would be knowledgeable, expert, and directive. This finding was notable because it implied that clients who had lower expectations for counselor expertise generally had more positive attitudes toward help-seeking behavior.

College students have traditionally approached counseling services with some apprehension. Research on college students and counseling services have incorporated developmental stages into their interpretations. College students can primarily be classified as being in the late adolescence stage (ages 18-23). Similar to the middle

adolescence stage, late adolescence can be characterized by the need for power, freedom, nonconformity, and peer acceptance (Cavaiola & Kane-Cavaiola, 1989). In asserting their freedom and independence, college students may be less willing to accept advice from an "expert" counselor because that would place them in a subordinate role in the relationship. They may rebel against a relationship where the counselor is viewed as the authoritative figure, or as Webb and Widseth (1988) discovered, college students may switch between seeking exploration and withdrawing from the therapeutic relationship.

Previous researchers (Satterfield et al., 1995; Tinsley, Brown, de St. Audin, & Lucek, 1984) have also discovered that client expectations influence not only the process and outcome of counseling but also whether clients choose to enter counseling at all. Although these researchers examined help-seeking behaviors and the present study observed only attitudes toward help-seeking behavior, the results of the linear regression analysis further support the claims of a relationship between Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking and Expectations About Counseling.

Research Hypothesis 2

It was stated in Research Hypothesis 2 that there would be no statistically significant difference in attitudes toward help-seeking behavior based on athletic participation or respondent gender. A MANOVA conducted for the variables of athlete status, gender, and the athlete status and gender interaction yielded statistically significant results for both athlete status and gender, with non-athletes and females holding more positive attitudes toward help-seeking behavior. Main effects were also

found for the Expectations About Counseling variables with women having higher expectations for Personal Commitment, Facilitative Conditions, and Nurturance, while non-athletes expected more Personal Commitment and Counselor Expertise. Statistically significant results for the athlete status and gender interaction were also found for the variables of Personal Commitment and Nurturance. Small effect sizes were found for all of the variables. Small effect sizes may be partially attributed to the fact that the reliabilities of the study variables were lower for this study than previous studies.

The finding that women have more positive Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior is well supported in the literature. Researchers have discovered that women hold more favorable attitudes toward help-seeking behavior and utilize counseling services more than do men (Fischer & Turner, 1970; Horowitz, 1977; Rule & Gandy, 1994). Komiya, Good, and Sherrod (2000) also examined the gender differences in attitudes toward help-seeking behavior and found that women possess more open attitudes to emotions and perceive fewer stigmas associated with counseling.

One possible explanation why women may hold more favorable Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking Behavior might be the fact that an admission of need for help does not contradict traditionally held stereotypical perceptions of gender appropriate behavior for women (Good & Wood, 1995). The traditional stereotypical view of women includes a greater comfort with sharing emotional concerns and a stronger inclination to engage in interactions that involve personal sharing (Subich, 1983). For men, the traditional gender role includes strength, inner resolve, and fewer displays of emotions, characteristics that are not consistent with typical counseling behaviors (O'Neill, 1981). Men also have been

traditionally socialized to be autonomous and self-reliant (Nadler, Maler, & Friedman, 1984). For some men, seeking counseling assistance is an admission of failure, weakness, and defeat (Good, Dell, & Mintz, 1989). Similarly, Warren (1983) found that asking for help is often viewed as unmanly. These feelings of incompetence, dependence, and inferiority to others, identified as "social costs" have been found to correlate with somewhat negative attitudes toward help-seeking behavior and a reluctance to seek help (Lee, 2002).

Qualitative Question 1

The first open-ended question asked respondents to list reasons for which they would consider seeing a counselor. A variety of responses were collected to this question and grouped into categories (see Table 9). For the student-athlete respondents, the most prevalent response was that they had no issues that required counseling support. This may reflect the priorities that student-athletes have in their lives. Their athletic and academic pursuits are time consuming, and success in both areas is vital. Particularly for student-athletes, athletic success takes on an added importance because it directly affects others, and also, may affect their academic careers as well (e.g., low grades and possible loss of scholarship).

The non-athlete students responded that relationship issues would be the predominant reason they would seek the assistance of a professional counselor. The two most frequent responses given by non-athletes were issues with interpersonal relationships (19.7%) and family issues (11.5%). Relationship issues for non-athletes

may be more important because they do not have the structured environment that is in place for student-athletes. Non-athlete students do not have the opportunity to develop the bond that exists between teammates, nor do they have the support resources (e.g., coaches, athletic staff, and tutors) that are enjoyed by most student-athletes. The non-athlete college student must form these relationships without the aid of structured support. Many times, attending college is the student's first experience away from home. The new environment, coupled with the loss of old friends and acquaintances, makes the importance of developing and maintaining new relationships paramount. This claim is further supported by the fact that nearly three times as many non-athletes as athletes responded that interpersonal relationship issues were the primary concern for which they would seek assistance from a counselor

Qualitative Question 2

The second open-ended question asked respondents to list reasons why they would not seek the help of a counselor for personal and social concerns. The majority of responses were either no need for counseling (18%) or fear of what others might think about them seeing a counselor (23.9%). For the student-athlete group, no need (19.1%) and personal discomfort (16.7%) were the most prevalent responses. For the non-athlete students, perception of others (24%) and no need (18.1%) were the most frequent responses.

An interesting finding emerged from the data collected based on this question. Compared to athletes, three times as many non-athletes listed perception of others (social

stigma) as the main reason they would not seek counseling help. Perceptions of others accounted for only 10.3% of the responses obtained from student-athletes. Etzel, Ferrante, and Pinkney (1991) discovered that student-athletes, due to their status on college campuses, may not be able to anonymously seek counseling services and, therefore, may choose alternative means of support. Since community colleges are institutions where student-athletes do not maintain a high public profile, this was not found to be a major issue for this population of student-athletes. Results may be substantially different at a larger Division I institution where athletes typically deal with increased travel, more regional and national media coverage, enhanced notoriety, and more pressure to win (Coakley, 1998).

This finding also may have been influenced by two conditions of this research study. First, all student-athletes were surveyed in groups with other student-athletes. The comfort of their peers may have enabled the respondents to respond in a more honest manner. Second, the anonymity associated with the data collection eliminated the chance of results being attributed to any particular respondent. Therefore, student-athletes knew that their responses would not be directly attributed to them as a student-athlete. This finding adds a new direction in the research of counseling with college student-athletes that has an impact on the manner counseling practitioners work with their population.

Implications for Counseling

Counseling Student-Athletes

College student-athletes have long been the most recognized, yet unofficial, special population on college campuses nationwide (Valentine & Taub, 1999). Misconceptions and stereotypical viewpoints have hindered the development of effective counseling interventions with the college student-athlete population. Developing effective counseling interventions requires a knowledge of what this client population sees as being effective counseling. Findings from this study will help counselors understand more about college student-athletes and how they perceive counseling services so that the services offered by an institution can best meet their needs and expectations.

A practical approach to advising and counseling college student-athletes includes classifying the student-athletes' needs into four areas: academic advising, life skills development, clinical counseling, and athletic performance enhancement (Broughton & Neyer, 2001). Developmental models like Chickering's and Reisser's (1993) psychosocial theory of student development presents a solid foundation on which to build practical solutions for student-athletes (Valentine & Taub, 1999). The theory proposed that college students must successfully master developmental tasks. Student-athletes face these tasks as well as unique, situation specific challenges as a result of their participation in collegiate athletics. These conditions make the addition of a developmental approach

to counseling essential for an ideal program designed to work with this unique population (Broughton & Neyer, 2001).

To build the model program, university and college counseling centers must first recruit and train personnel who can assess and treat student-athletes' academic, athletic, and personal needs. These professionals need to be familiar with the unique challenges facing student-athletes. They must realize that student-athletes may be trying to negotiate a system (e.g., college) that was not designed to promote their success (Valentine & Taub, 1999). The increased understanding of the college athletic system allows counselors to more accurately assess student-athlete issues (Fletcher, Benshoff, & Richburg, 2003). Counseling personnel also should be aware of the biases and stereotypes student-athletes encounter from fellow students, faculty, and the general public. This knowledge strengthens the therapeutic relationship between counselor and client when the student-athlete realizes that the counselor understands their sport and the added responsibilities associated with athletic participation.

Athletic departments are faced with the challenge of discovering ways to effectively and efficiently meet the growing mental health needs of their student-athletes (Parham, 1993). Counselors can assist in answering this challenge when appropriately utilized. To be effective, counseling centers and counseling personnel need to work collaboratively with athletic department personnel to address all aspects of the student-athlete experience. The support of athletic administrators and individual coaches is essential as they are commonly the first to assess a problem or suggest the need for

counseling. If all parties operated from the same frame of reference, it would create a seamless support system for the student-athlete.

Traditionally, student-athletes have been reared in an environment and culture that stresses the importance of resiliency and self-reliance (Etzel, Ferrante, & Pinkney, 1991). Student-athletes possessing high self-esteem adapt more easily to new situations and are less likely to personalize problems (Parham, 1993). They feel confident in their talents and abilities to handle their own issues and may not seek the help of a counselor unless absolutely necessary. These beliefs potentially impact student-athletes' attitudes toward counseling and help-seeking behavior as evidenced by the lower average scores on the Attitudes Toward Psychological Help Scale for athletes than non-athletes.

In the context of athletic competition, student-athletes are constantly placed in a position where they must listen to an authority figure. The athlete coach relationship emulates a student teacher relationship in that one party assumes the expert role and helps the other gain a new knowledge of a particular skill. In sports, coaches fill this expert role. Counselors can utilize the relationship between student-athletes and their coaches by correlating the counseling relationship to mimic the relationship shared by an athlete and their coach. These roles are natural roles for student-athletes to respond to given their previous experiences in athletics. These roles allow student-athletes to make decisions for the successful changes in their lives based on the expert advice they have received from their counselor.

Counseling Non-Athletes

Clients enter counseling with preconceived preferences about the role of a counselor (Morrison, 1991). Clients whose preferences for counselor roles are confirmed most often continue in counseling (Parham, 1983). To offer the most effective counseling services, college counselors need to be aware of the preferences, or expectations, clients have about counseling and counselors. The results of this study indicate that non-athlete college students who had higher expectations for Counselor Expertise held less favorable attitudes toward counseling than did student-athletes. These results suggest that college students want a counselor who does not assume an expert role. College students who are more independent prefer counselors who assume a more relationship giving role rather than a more authoritative advice giving role (Scholl, 1998). They appreciate the relationship between client and counselor and value the opportunity to share their thoughts and feelings with an individual who will not judge or lecture to them.

Researchers have found that the level of psychopathology among college students and counseling center clients increased during the 1980s (Stone & Archer, 1990) and the 1990s (Archer & Cooper, 1998). This trend will likely continue in the current decade. As more students begin to utilize the services available to them, it becomes increasingly apparent that college and university counseling center professionals need to be aware of the needs and expectations of potential clients. Understanding what clients expect from their counselors will allow counselors to shift and adapt their styles to maximize effectiveness. Given these results, counselors who work with college students need to

focus more on relationship and rapport building than on directive advice giving. This matching of style and expectation will increase effectiveness and further strengthen the reputation and viability of counseling services for college students.

Recommendations for Future Research

The results of this study provide the foundation for future research studies regarding the attitudes toward help-seeking behavior of college student-athletes. The trends found for individual groups of male and female athletes and non-athletes can be further explored in future studies. Whereas this study utilized a single definition of counseling and counselor, subsequent studies could examine various counseling styles. An analogue study that presented participants with descriptions of different counseling styles would help identify counseling approaches that are most attractive to college student-athletes, particularly with respect to the expectations about counseling held by this group.

To further explore student-athletes attitudes toward help-seeking behavior, it would be useful to consider how their attitudes differ based on the background of the helping professional. In this study, the helping professional was defined as a counselor. Future studies should examine the attitudes toward help-seeking behavior when the helping professional is defined as a sports counselor, sport psychologist, or a sport psychology consultant. Maniar et al., (2001) found that student-athletes, while they ultimately preferred seeking help from a coach, did prefer to seek help from a sport titled professional rather than counselors when faced with sport-related problems. A possible

variation to this study would be to look at student-athletes' preferences when faced with non-sport related issues. That would add to the research on counseling college student-athletes.

Finally, researchers might consider the influence of expectations on behavior among this population. Though results of this study suggest a relationship exists between the expectation factors and attitudes, and previous researchers (Rickwood & Braithwaite, 1994) discovered a relationship between attitudes and help-seeking behaviors, the direct relationship between expectations and help-seeking behaviors remains an empirical question to be answered.

Limitations of the Current Study

As with all research, limitations existed in the current study. For this study, limitations existed that were related to study design, instrumentation, and sampling. These limitations are addressed so that the results can be placed in context and future studies can attempt to overcome these current limitations.

A Priori Group Differences

Some variables could not be controlled in this study and, therefore, represented a potential confounding element in the study. Between-group differences existed on the status variables of counseling experience and respondent age. The difference between athletes and non-athletes regarding counseling experience was reflective of the findings of sport psychologists and athletic personnel that student-athletes do not typically seek

professional counseling help (Parham, 1993). The student-athlete group was more traditionally aged than the non-athlete group. This could be attributed to NCAA requirements and the attraction community colleges hold for non-traditional students.

These between group differences reflect potential confusion in interpreting the results of this study. An attempt to control for these elements was applied to this data analysis. As a result, a MANOVA was run with no covariates added into the equation. Therefore, caution may be needed when stating that the differences between student-athletes and non-athletes are caused by athlete status alone.

Sampling Methods

The process of recruiting student-athletes in this study may have had an influence on the actual results obtained. Athletes were surveyed with the participation of the athletic department, and coaches, during mandatory team meetings. Although the condition of anonymity was clearly stated as part of the initial disclosure regarding this study, some student-athletes may have felt pressure to complete the survey packet because either a coach was present and requested them to do so, or they saw all their teammates participating and did not want to stand out.

Generalizability

The sample was drawn from only one medium sized community college located in central Florida. This limits the generalizability of the results from being applied to other community colleges and eliminates its application toward universities. Many

students are first generation college students and may approach their college experience differently than other students. Also, more non-traditional students are enrolled in community colleges than universities, and their responses may not be indicative of the traditional college aged student. The majority of students also rely on financial aid or off-campus employment to cover the costs of their education. Therefore, students may be spending extended hours in activities outside of their studies to supplement the cost of tuition or to support a family. These characteristics may not reflect the demographic makeup of student populations at other colleges and universities. Therefore, results from this study must be taken within the context of the setting from which respondents were drawn.

Conclusions

This study added to the literature on the counseling attitudes, behaviors, and expectations of college student-athletes. The results suggest that expectations about counseling do, in fact, influence attitudes toward help-seeking behavior. In this study, 15% of the variance in attitudes toward help-seeking behavior was accounted for by the expectations about counseling factors. The results also suggest differences in the expectations about counseling between college student-athletes and non-athletes. This finding has implications for the approach college counselors take with various clients they serve.

Though this study was not without limitations, the results found support the qualitative evidence supporting the claim that college student-athletes do not seek

professional counseling services as frequently as their non-athlete counterparts when confronted with stressful circumstances. While exploratory in nature, this study serves as a foundation for future research on the attitudes and expectations about counseling and help-seeking behavior of college student-athletes.

Several implications for counseling college student-athletes are drawn from this study. When working with a student-athlete client, it may be useful for the counselor to adopt a more directive, expert role that replicates the coaching role to which athletes are accustomed in their athletic experiences. Counselors should be aware that the needs of student-athletes encompass four areas: academic advising, life-skills development, clinical counseling, and athletic performance enhancement. Counselors working with non-athletes should adopt an alternative approach. The results of this study suggest that college student are more apt to exhibit greater levels of personal commitment to the counseling process when they perceive that counseling will be beneficial, and their counselor will engage them in a collaborative exploration of their issues. Non-athlete college students had lower expectations for counselor expertise, suggesting that they wanted a counselor that would not take a haughty role in the relationship. These findings, for both college student-athletes and non-athlete students, are useful starting points for the development of new counseling approaches on community college campuses.

APPENDIX A

ATTITUDES TOWARD SEEKING PROFESSIONAL PSYCHOLOGICAL HELP SCALE

Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale

DIRECTIONS

The following are a number of statements pertaining to college counseling and mental health issues. Read each statement carefully and indicate your agreement, probable agreement, probably disagreement, or disagreement. Please express your frank opinion in rating the statements. There are no “wrong” answers, and the only right ones are what you honestly reel or believe. It is important that you please answer every item.

Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale

0 = Agree 1 = Agree Somewhat 2 = Disagree Somewhat 3 = Disagree

	Item				
1.	Although there are clinics for people with mental troubles, I would not have much faith in them.	0	1	2	3
2.	If a good friend asked my advice about a mental problem, I might recommend that he/she see a counselor.	0	1	2	3
3.	I would feel uneasy going to a counselor because bf what some people might think.	0	1	2	3
4.	A person with a strong character can get over mental conflicts him/herself, and would have little need for a counselor.	0	1	2	3
5.	There are times when I have felt completely lost and would have welcomed professional advice for a personal or emotional problem.	0	1	2	3
6.	Considering the time and expense involved in counseling, it would have doubtful value for a person like me.	0	1	2	3
7.	I would willingly confide intimate matters to an appropriate person if I thought it might help me or a member of my family.	0	1	2	3
8.	I would rather live with certain mental conflicts than go through the ordeal of receiving counseling.	0	1	2	3
9.	Emotional difficulties, like many things, tend to work out by themselves.	0	1	2	3
10.	There are certain problems that should not be discussed outside of one’s immediate family.	0	1	2	3
11.	A person with a serious emotional disturbance would probably feel most secure in a college counseling center.	0	1	2	3
12.	If I believed I was having a nervous breakdown, my first inclination would be to get professional attention.	0	1	2	3
13.	Keeping one’s mind on a job is a good solution for avoiding personal worries and concerns.	0	1	2	3
14.	Having been a counseling client is a blot on a person’s life.	0	1	2	3
15.	I would rather be advised by a close friend than by a counselor, even for an emotional problem.	0	1	2	3
16.	A person with an emotional problem is not likely to solve it alone; he/she is likely to solve it with professional help.	0	1	2	3
17.	I resent a person—professionally trained or not—who wants to know about my personal difficulties.	0	1	2	3

0 = Agree	1 = Agree Somewhat	2 = Disagree Somewhat	3 = Disagree

18.	I would want to get counseling help if I was worried or upset for a long period of time.	0	1	2	3
19.	The idea of talking about problems with a counselor strikes me as a pool way to get rid of emotional conflicts.	0	1	2	3
20.	Having been mentally ill carries with it a burden of shame.	0	1	2	3
21.	There are experiences in my life that I would not discuss with anyone.	0	1	2	3
22.	It is probably best not to know *everything* about oneself.	0	1	2	3
23.	If I were experiencing a serious emotional crisis at this point in my life, I would be confident that I could find relief in counseling.	0	1	2	3
24.	There is something admirable in the attitude of a person who is willing to cope with his/her conflicts and fears *without* resorting to professional help.	0	1	2	3
25.	At some future time I might want to have counseling.	0	1	2	3
26.	A person should work out his/her own problems; getting counseling would be a last resort.	0	1	2	3
27.	Had I received treatment in a college counseling clinic, I would not feel that it ought to be "covered up."	0	1	2	3
28.	If I thought I needed counseling help, I would get it no matter who knew about it.	0	1	2	3
29.	It is difficult to talk about personal affairs with highly educated people such as doctors, teachers, and clergymen.	0	1	2	3

APPENDIX B

EXPECTATIONS ABOUT COUNSELING (FORM B)

Expectations About Counseling (Form B)

DIRECTIONS

Pretend that you are about to see a college-counseling professional for your first session. We would like to know just what you think counseling will be like. On the following pages are statements about counseling. In each instance you are to indicate what you expect counseling to be like. The rating scale we would like you to use is printed at the top of each page. Please circle the number for each statement that most accurately reflects your expectations.

Your responses will be kept in strictest confidence. Your answers will be combined with answers of others like yourself and reported only in the form of group averages. To complete the questionnaire, please answer each question as quickly and as accurately as possible. Finish each page before going to the next. Please inform the moderator if you have any further questions.

Expectations About Counseling (Form B)

1 = Not True	2 = Slightly True	3 = Somewhat True	4 = Fairly True	5 = Quite True	6 = Very True	7 = Definitely True

The following questions concern your expectations about yourself.

I EXPECT TO…

1.	Take psychological tests.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Like the counselor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	See a counselor in training.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Gain some experience in new ways of solving problems within the counseling process.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Openly express my emotions regarding myself and my problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Understand the purpose of what happens in the interview.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Do assignments outside the counseling session.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Take responsibility for making my own decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	Talk about my present concerns.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Get practice in relating openly and honestly to another person within the counseling relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	Enjoy my sessions with the counselor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	Practice some of the things I need to learn in the counseling relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	Get a better understanding of myself and others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Stay in counseling for at least a few weeks, even if at first I am not sure it will help.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	See the counselor for more than three sessions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	Never need counseling again.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	Enjoy being with the counselor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	Stay in counseling even though it may be painful or unpleasant at times.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	Contribute as much as I can in terms of expressing my feelings and discussing them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

20.	See the counselor for only one session.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	Go to counseling only if I have a very serious problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	Find that the counseling relationship will help the counselor and me identify problems on which I need to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	Become better able to help myself in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	Find that my problem will be solved once and for all in counseling.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	Feel safe enough with the counselor to really say how I feel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	See an experienced counselor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	Find that all I need to do is answer the counselor's questions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	Improve my relationships with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	Ask the counselor to explain what he or she means whenever I do not understand something said.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	Work on my concerns outside the counseling sessions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	Find that the session is not the best place to bring up personal problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1 = Not True	2 = Slightly True	3 = Somewhat True	4 = Fairly True	5 = Quite True	6 = Very True	7 = Definitely True

The following questions concern your expectations about the counselor.

I EXPECT THE COUNSELOR TO…

32.	Explain what's wrong.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	Help me identify and label my feelings so I can better understand them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	Tell me what to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	Know how I feel even when I cannot say what I mean.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	Know how to help me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37.	Help me identify particular situations where I have problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38.	Give encouragement and reassurance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	Help me know how I am feeling by putting my feelings into words for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40.	Be a "real" person not just a person doing a job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41.	Help me discover what particular aspects of my behavior are relevant to my problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42.	Inspire confidence and trust.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43.	Frequently offer me advice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44.	Be honest with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45.	Be someone who can be counted on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46.	Be friendly and warm towards me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47.	Help me solve my problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48.	Discuss his or her own attitudes and relate them to my problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49.	Give me support.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50.	Decide what treatment plan is best.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51.	Know how I feel at times, without my having to speak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52.	Do most of the talking.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53.	Respect me as a person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54.	Discuss his or her own experiences and relate them to my problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

55.	Praise me when I show improvement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56.	Make me face up to the differences between what I say and ho I behave.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57.	Talk freely about him or herself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58.	Have no trouble getting along with people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59.	Like me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60.	Be someone I can really trust.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61.	Like me in spite of the bad things he or she knows about me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62.	Make me face up to the differences between how I see myself and how I am seen by others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63.	Be someone who is calm and easygoing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64.	Point out to me the differences between what I am and what I want to be.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65.	Just give me information.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
66.	Get along well in the world.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX C

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographic Questionnaire

Directions: Please take a few moments to answer the following questions. The information collected here is for data analysis purposes only. Your responses will in no way be used to identify you as an individual. Confidently will be maintained at all times, and only those individuals associated with this study will have access to these materials completed as part of this study.

Age: ____________ **Gender:** _________ **Male:** ___________ **Female:** __________

Ethnicity:

____________ African-American
____________ Asian
____________ Caucasian
____________ Hispanic
____________ Native American
____________ Other Please specify: ______________________________

Year in School:

_____________ Freshman
_____________ Sophomore
_____________ Junior
_____________ Senior
_____________ Other (5th year, graduate school, etc.)

Are you a college student-athlete? ____________ Yes ____________ No

What type of scholarship do you receive to fund your college education?
(check all that apply)

______________ Athletic scholarship
______________ Academic scholarship
______________ Need-based scholarship
______________ None

How many hours on average do you work at a paid job each week?

____

Previous counseling, psychological, or mental health experience:

______________ Currently involved in counseling
______________ Some previous counseling
______________ No previous counseling

For what types of problem or situations would you consider seeking the assistance of a professional counselor?

____

____

____

What are some reasons why you might choose not to seek counseling for personal and social concerns?

____

____

____

APPENDIX D

IRB APPROVAL LETTER

Office of Research & Commercialization

February 16, 2005

Jose Fernandez
Daytona Beach Community College
1200 W. International Speedway Blvd.
Daytona Beach FL 32120-2811

Mr. Fernandez:

With reference to your protocol entitled, "The Effects of Athletic Participation, Expectations about Counseling, and Gender on Attitudes toward Seeking Help Among Community College Students" I am enclosing for your records the approved, expedited document of the UCFIRB Form you had submitted to our office.

Please be advised that this approval is given for one year. Should there be any addendums or administrative changes to the already approved protocol, they must also be submitted to the Board. Changes should not be initiated until written IRB approval is received. Adverse events should be reported to the IRB as they occur. Further, should there be a need to extend this protocol, a renewal form must be submitted for approval at least one month prior to the anniversary date of the most recent approval and is the responsibility of the investigator (UCF).

Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call me at 407-823-2901.

Please accept our best wishes for the success of your endeavors.

Cordially,

Barbara Ward

Barbara Ward, CIM
IRB Coordinator

12443 Research Parkway • Suite 302 • Orlando, FL 32826-3252 • 407-823-3778 • Fax 407-823-3299

An Equal Opportunity and Affirmative Action Institution

APPENDIX E

CONSENT INFORMATION SHEET

CONSENT INFORMATION SHEET

Please read this consent document carefully before you decide to participate in this study.

Project title: "The Effects of Athletic Participation, Expectations About Counseling and Gender on Attitudes Toward Help Seeking Behaviors Among Community College Students.

Purpose of the research study: The purpose of this study is to examine the attitudes toward help seeking behavior in relation to expectations about counseling that are held by college students. Attitudes toward help seeking behavior refer to an individual's preferences and likelihood to seek counseling help, and expectations refer to what you the individual would anticipate the counseling process to be like, how the counselor might act, and also how you as a client might act.

What you will be asked to do in the study: All students who choose to participate will be asked to sign the enclosed informed consent form. This form is your agreement to participate in this study and to have your survey results included in the overall study's data analysis. You will then be given a packet containing three instruments, the Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale, the Expectations about Counseling, and a demographic questionnaire. Please check to make sure you have all three instruments. I will explain the directions once we are ready to begin.

Time required: Thirty Minutes.

Risks: None anticipated

Benefits / Compensation: A $1 token of appreciation will be included in advance as a thank you for completing the study.

Confidentiality: Your identity will be kept confidential. The researcher will provide a separate postcard for the respondent to return to the researcher acknowledging that he/she has completed the survey. This will allow the researcher to remove that name from the list. All questionnaires will be returned separately from the postcard without any names attached to the responses, thus insuring respondent confidentiality. No names will be associated with the final results and any list of names will be destroyed upon completion of the study.

Voluntary participation: Your participation in this study is voluntary. There is no penalty for not participating.

Right to withdraw from the study: You have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without consequence.

Whom to contact if you have questions about the study: Jose I Fernandez, Graduate Student, Department of Educational Leadership, (386) 506-3095, Dr. William Bozeman, Faculty Supervisor, College of Education, The telephone number is: (407) 823-1471.

Whom to contact about your rights in the study: Barbara Ward, UCFIRB Director, UCFIRB Office, University of Central Florida Office of Research, Orlando Tech Center, 12443 Research Parkway, Suite 207, Orlando, FL 32826. The phone number is (407) 823-2901.

LIST OF REFERENCES

American Institute for Research. (1988). *Analysis of the academic transcripts of intercollegiate athletes at NCAA Division I institutions (Report 5).* Palo Alto, CA: Center for the Study of Athletics.

Archer, J. (1991). *Counseling college students.* New York: Continuum.

Archer, J., & Cooper, S. (1998). *Counseling and mental health services on campus.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Astin, A. W. (1978). *Four critical years: Effects of college on beliefs, attitudes, and knowledge.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Baillie, P. (1993). Understanding retirement from sports: Therapeutic ideas for helping athletes in transition. *The Counseling Psychologist, 21,* 399-410.

Bergandi, T., & Wittig, A. (1984). Availability of and attitudes toward counseling services for the collegiate athlete. *Journal of College Students Personnel. 25,* 557-558.

Bernstein, B. L., & Figioli, S. W. (1983). Gender and credibility introduction effects on perceived counselor characteristics. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 30,* 506-513.

Beutler, L. E. (1991). Have all won and must all have prizes? Revisiting Luborsky et al's verdict. *Journal of Counseling and Clinical Psychology, 59,* 226-232.

Beutler, L. E., Crago, M., & Arizmendi, T. G. (1986). Therapist variables in psychotherapy process and outcome. In S. L. Garfield & A. E. Bergin (Eds.), *Handbook of psychotherapy and behavior change* (3rd ed., pp. 257-310). New York: Wiley.

Blann, F. W. (1985). Intercollegiate athletic competition and students' educational and career plans. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 26,* 115-119.

Bordin, E. S. (1955). The implications of client expectations for the counseling process. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 2,* 17-21.

Bornstein, P., Krukonis, A. B., Manning, K. A., Mastrosimone, C. C. & Rossner, S. C. (1993). Interpersonal dependency and health service utilization in a college student sample. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 12,* 262-297.

Brammer, L. M. (1993). *Therapeutic counseling and psychotherapy (6th ed.).* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Brewer, B. W., Van Raalte, J. L., Petipas, A. J., Bachman, A. D., Weinhold, R. A. (1998). Newspaper portrayals of sport psychology in the United States, 1985-1993. *The Sport Psychologist, 12,* 89-94.

Brooks, D. D., Etzel, E. F., & Ostrow, A. C. (1987). Job responsibilities and backgrounds of NCAA Division I athletic advisors and counselors. *The Sport Psychologist, 1,* 201-207.

Broughton, E., & Neyer, M. (2001). Advising and counseling student-athletes. In Mary Howard-Hamilton and Sherry Walls (eds.) *Student Services for Athletes: New Directions for Student Services, 93,* 58-63.

Burckes-Miller, M. E., & Black, D. R., (1988). Male and female college athletes: Prevalence of anorexia nervosa and bulimia nervosa. *Athletic Training, 23,* 137-140.

Carodine, K., Almond, K. F., & Gratto, K. K. (2001). College student-athlete success both in and out of the classroom. In M. F. Hamilton & S. K. Watt (Eds.), *New directions for student services: Student services for athletes* (pp.19-34). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Carr, C. M., Kennedy, S. R., & Dimick, K. M. (1990). Alcohol use and abuse among high school athletes: A comparison of alcohol use and intoxication in male and female high school athletes and non-athletes. *Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education, 36,* 39-45.

Carr, C., & Murphy, S. (1995). Alcohol and drug use in sport. *Sport Psychology Interventions,* 283-306.

Cavenar, J. D., & Werman, D. S. (1981). Origins of the fear of success. *American Journal of Psychiatry, 138,* 95-98.

Cavaiola, A. A., & Kane-Cavaiola, C. (1989). Basics of adolescent development for the chemical dependency professional. *Journal of Chemical Dependency Treatment, 2,* 11-29.

Chartrand, J., & Lent, R. (1987). Sports counseling: Enhancing the development of the student-athlete. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 66,* 164-167.

Cepeda-Benito, A., & Short, P. (1998). Self-concealment, avoidance of psychological services, and perceived likelihood of seeking professional help. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 45,* 58-64.

Chickering, A. W., & Reisser, L. (1993). *Education and identity. 2nd Ed.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Chickering, A. W. (1969). *Education and identity.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Claiborn, C. D. (1979). Counselor verbal intervention, nonverbal behavior, and social power. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 26,* 378-383.

Coakley, J. J. (1998). *Sport in society: Issues and controversies (6th ed.).* Boston: Irwin/McGraw Hill.

Cogan, K. D., & Petrie, T. A. (1996). Consultation with college student-athletes. *College Student Journal, 30,* 9-16.

Coughanour, J. C. (1977). A comparison of two approaches to modifying patients' pre-therapy role expectations. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 36,* 3028.

Coughlin, E. V. (1994). Students at risk: Alcohol and drug prevention in context. In E. V. Coughlin (Ed.), *Successful drug and alcohol prevention programs* (pp. 3-14). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Creswell, J. W. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions.* Thousand Oaks CA: Sage Publications.

Danish, S. J. (1984). Psychological aspects in the care and treatment of athletic injuries. In P. E. Vinger & E. F. Hoerner (Eds.) *Sports injuries: The unthwarted epidemic.* (2nd ed.). Boston: John Wright.

Danish, S. J., Petipas, A. J., & Hale, B. (1993). Life development intervention for athletes: Life skills through sports. *Counseling Psychologist, 21,* 352-353.

Davis, L. E., & Proctor, E. K. (1989). *Race, gender, and class: Guidelines for practice with individuals, families, and groups.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Dean, F. P., & Chamberlain, K. (1994). Treatment fearfulness and distress as predictors of professional psychological help seeking. *British Journal of Guidance and Counseling, 22,* 207-217.

Dean, F. P., & Todd, D. M. (1996). Attitudes and intentions to seek professional psychological help for personal problems or suicidal thinking. *Journal of College Student Psychotherapy, 10,* 45-59.

Diala, C., Muntaner, C. Walrath, C., Nickerson, K., LaViest, T. A., & Leaf, P. J. (2000). Racial differences in attitudes toward professional mental health care and in the use of services. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 70,* 455-464.

Dick, R. W. (1993). Eating disorders in the NCAA athletics programs: Replication of a 1990 study. *NCAA Sports Sciences Education Newsletter, 3-4.*

Dies, R. R., & Cohen, L. (1976). Content considerations in group therapist self-disclosure. *International Journal of Group Psychotherapy, 26,* 71-88.

Edwards, H. (1984). The black dumb jock: An American sports tragedy. *College Board Review, 131,* 8-13.

Engstrom, C. M., & Sedlacek, W. E. (1991). A study of prejudice toward college student-athletes. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 70,* 189-193.

Engstrom, C. M., & Sedlacek, W. E., & McEwen, M. K. (1995). Faculty attitudes toward male revenue and non-revenue student-athletes. *Journal of College Student Development, 36,* 217-227.

Erikson, E. H. (1966). *Childhood and society*. New York: W. W. Norton

Etzel, E. F., Ferrante, A. P., & Pinkney, J. W. (Eds.). (1991). *Counseling college student athletes: Issues and interventions.* Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology.

Etzel, E. F., Pinkney, J., & Hinkle, J. S. (1994). College student-athletes and needs assessment. In C.C. Thomas (Ed.), *Multicultural needs assessment for college and university populations.* Springfield, IL: C.C. Thomas.

Ferrante, A. P., & Etzel, E. (1991). Counseling college student-athletes: The problem, the need. In E. Etzel, A. P. Ferrante, & J. W. Pinkney (Eds.), *Counseling college student-athletes: Issues and Interventions.* Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology, Inc.

Ferrante, A. P., Etzel, E., & Lantz, C. (1996). Counseling college student-athletes: The problem, the need. In Etzel, Ferrante, & Pinkney (Eds.), *Counseling college student-athletes: Issues and interventions* (2nd ed., pp 3-26), Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology.

Fischer, E. H. & Farina, A. (1995). Attitudes toward seeking professional psychological help: A shortened form and considerations for research. *Journal of College Student Development, 36,* 368-373.

Fischer, E. H., & Turner, J. L. (1970). Orientation to seeking professional psychological help: A shortened form and considerations for research. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 35,* 79-90.

Fletcher, T. B., Benshoff, J. M., & Richburg, M. J. (2003). A systems approach to understanding and counseling college student-athletes. *Journal of College Counseling, 6,* 35-45.

Frank, J. D. (1961). *Persuasion and healing.* Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Friedlander, M. L. (1982). Expectations and perceptions of counseling: Changes over time and in relation to verbal behavior. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 10,* 232-235.

Friedlander, M. L., & Kaul, T. J. (1983). Preparing clients for counseling: Effects of role induction on counseling process and outcome. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 24,* 207-214.

Friedlander, M. L., & Peca-Baker, T. A. (1987). Effects of role expectations on clients' perceptions of disclosing and non-disclosing counselors. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 66,* 78-81.

Fry, E. B. (1977). *Elementary Reading Instruction.* New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Gabbard, C., & Halischak, K. (1993). Counseling opportunities: Working with student-athletes at a university. *The Counseling Psychologist, 21,* 386-398.

Good, G. E., Dell, D. M., & Mintz, L. M. (1989). Male role and gender role conflict: Relations to help seeking in men. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 36,* 295-300.

Good, G. E., & Wood, P. K. (1995). Male gender role conflict, depression, and help seeking: Do college men face double jeopardy? *Journal of Counseling & Development, 74,* 70-75.

Hardin, S. I., & Yanico, B. J. (1983). Counselor gender, type of problem, and expectations about counseling. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 30,* 294-297.

Harris, M. M. (1993). Developmental benefits of athletes. In W. D. Kirk and S. V. Kirk (Eds.) *Student-athletes: Shattering the myths and sharing the realities.* Alexandria, VA: American Counseling Association.

Harris, H. L., Altekruse, M. K., & Engels, D. W. (2003). Helping freshman student-athletes adjust to college life using psycho-educational groups. *Journal for Specialists in Group Work, 28,* 64-81.

Heyman, S. R. (1986). Psychological problem patterns found with athletes. *The Clinical Psychologist, 39,* 68-71.

Hinkle, J.S. (1994). Practitioners and cross-cultural assessment: A practical guide to information and training. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, 27,* 103-115.

Hinson, J. A., & Swanson, J. L. (1993). Willingness to seek help as a function of self-disclosure and problem severity. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 71,* 465-470.

Hodges, S. (2001). University counseling centers at the twenty-first century: Looking forward, looking back. *Journal of College Counseling, 4,* 161-173.

Horowitz, A. (1977). The pathways into psychiatric treatment: Some differences between men and women. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 18,* 169-178.

Jackson, J. S., Neighbors, H., & Gurin, G. (1986). Findings from a national survey of Black mental health: Implications for practice and training. In M. R. Miranda & H. L. Kitano (Eds.), *Mental health research and practice in minority communities: Development of culturally sensitive training programs* (pp. 91-116). Washington, DC: US Government Printing Office.

Johnson, D. H. (1978). Students' sex preferences and sex role expectations for counselors. *Journal of Counseling and Clinical Psychology, 50,* 259-272.

Kahn, J. S., Wood, A., & Wiesen, E. F. (1999). Student perceptions of college counseling center services: Programming and marketing for a seamless learning environment. *Journal of College Student Psychotherapy, 14,* 69-80.

Kelly, A. E., & Achter, J. A. (1995). Self-concealment and attitudes toward counseling in university students. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 42,* 40-46.

Kemp, A. D. (1994). African-American students' expectations about counseling: A comparative investigation. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development, 22,* 257-264.

Kennedy, S. R., & Dimick, K. M. (1987). Career maturity and professional sports expectations of college football and basketball players. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 28,* 273-297.

Kesler, R. C., Brown, R. L., & Broman, C. L. (1981). Sex differences in psychiatric help seeking: Evidence from four large scale surveys. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 22,* 49-64.

Kleiber, D. A., & Brock, S. C. (1992), The effect of career ending injuries on the subsequent well being of elite collegiate athletes. *Sociology of Sport Journal, 9,* 70-75.

Knight Foundation. (1991). *Report of the Knight Foundation Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics.* Indianapolis, IN: National Collegiate Athletic Association.

Komiya, N., Good, G. E., & Sherrod, N. B. (2000). Emotional openness as a predictor of college student-athletes' attitudes toward seeking psychological help. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 47,* 138-143.

Lanning, W. (1982). The privileged few: Special counseling needs of athletes. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 4,* 19-23.

Lantz, C. D., & Schroeder, P. J. (1999). Endorsement of masculine and feminine gender roles: Differences between participation in and identification with the athletic role. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 22,* 545-557.

Lee, C. (1983). An investigation of the athletic career expectations of high school student athletes. *Personnel and Guidance Journal, 61,* 544-547.

Lee, F. (2002). The social costs of seeking help. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 38,* 17-35.

Leichliter, J. S., Meilman, P. W., Presley, C. A. & Cashin, J. R. (1998). Alcohol use and related consequences among students with varying levels of involvement in college athletics. *Journal of American College Health, 46,* 257-262.

Leong, S. L., Leong, F. T. L., & Hoffman, M. A. (1987). Counseling expectations of rational, intuitive, and dependent decision makers. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 34,* 261-265.

Lin, Y. (2002). Taiwanese students' conceptions of counseling. *Journal of Contemporary Psychotherapy, 31,* 199-211.

Linder, D., Pillow, D., &Reno, R. (1989). Shrinking Jocks: Derogation of athletes who consult a sport psychologist. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 11 (3),* 270-280.

Link, B. G., & Phelan, J. C. (1999). Public conceptions of mental illness: Labels, causes, dangerousness, and social distance. *American Journal of Public Health, 89,* 1328-1333.

Loo, C., Tong, B., & True, R. (1989). A bitter bean: Mental health status and attitudes in Chinatown. *Journal of Community Psychology, 17,* 283-296.

Maniar, S. D., Curry, L.A., Sommers-Flanagan, J., & Walsh, J. A. (2001). Student-athlete preferences in seeking help when confronted with sport performance problems, *The Sport Psychologist, 15,* 25-223.

Martin, S. B., Wrisberg, C. A., Beitel, P.A., & Lounsbury, J. (1997). NCAA Division I athletes' attitudes toward seeking sport psychology consultation: The development of an objective instrument. *The Sport Psychologist, 11,* 201-218.

Masland, R. P. (1983). The adolescent: Athletics and development. *Journal of Adolescent Health Care, 3,* 237-240.

Miller, P. S., & Kerr, G. (2002). The athletic, academic, and social experiences of intercollegiate student-athletes. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 25,* 346-367.

Miller, M. J. & Moore, K. K. (1993). Athletes' and non-athletes' expectations about counseling. *Journal of College Student Development, 34*, 267-270.

Miller, C. M., & Wooten, H. R. (1995). Sports counseling: A new counseling specialty area. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 74,* 172-173.

Millman, R. B. & Ross, E. J., (2003). Steroid and nutritional supplement use in professional athletes. *The American Journal on Addictions, 12,* 48-54.

Muntaner, C. & Parsons, P. E. (1996). Income, stratification, class, and health insurance. *International Journal of Health Services, 26,* 655-671.

Murray, M. A. (1997). The counseling needs of college student-athletes. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section A: Humanities & Social Sciences, Vol. 58, (6-A), 2088.*

Mutchler, J. E. & Burr, J. A. (1991). Racial differences in health and health care services, utilization in later life: The effect of socioeconomic status. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 32,*342-356.

Myhr, R. (1977). Sex role and counselor evaluation. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 38,* 2873B-2874B.

Nadler, A. (1983). Personal characteristics and help seeking. In B. DePaulo, A. Nadler, & J. Fisher (Eds.), *New Directions in Helping: Help Seeking* (pp.303-340). New York: Academic Press.

Nadler, A., Maler, S., & Friedman, A. (1984). Effects of helper's sex, subjects' androgyny, and self-evaluation on males' and females' willingness to seek and receive help. *Sex Roles, 10,* 327-339.

National Collegiate Athletic Association (2004). *NCAA homepage.* Retrieved June 13, 2004, from http://www.ncaa.org.

National Collegiate Athletic Association Drug Education Committee (1985). *Drugs, the coach and the athlete.*

National Collegiate Athletic Association (1998). *1998-1999 Manual of the National Collegiate Athletic Association.* Mission, KS.

National Junior College Athletic Association (2004). *NJCAA homepage.* Retrieved June 18, 2004, from http://www.njcaa.org.

Nelson, E. S. (1983). How the myth of the dumb jock becomes fact: A developmental view for counselors. *Counseling and Values, 27,* 176-185.

Nelson, M. L., & Neufeldt, S. A. (1996). Building on an empirical foundation: Strategies to enhance good practice. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 74,* 609-615.

Nelson, T. F., & Weschler, H. (2001). Alcohol and college athletes. *Medical Science of Sports and Exercise, 33,* 43-47.

Nickerson, K., Helms, J., & Terrell, F. (1994). Cultural mistrust, opinions about mental illness, and Black students' attitudes toward seeking professional psychological help from White counselors. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 41,* 378-385.

Ogilvie, B. C., & Howe, M. (1986). The trauma of termination from athletics. In J. M. Williams (Ed.), *Applied sport psychology: Personnel growth to peak performance.* Palo Alto, CA: Mayfield.

O'Neil, J. M. (1981). Patterns of gender role conflict and strain: The fear of femininity in men's lives. *Personal and Guidance Journal, 60,* 203-210.

Parham, W. (1993). The intercollegiate athlete: A 1990's profile. *The Counseling Psychologist, 21,* 411-429.

Pearson, R., & Petipas, A. (1990). Transitions of athletes: Developmental and preventive perspectives. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 69,* 7-10.

Perry, W. G., Jr. (1968). *Forms of intellectual and ethical development in the college years: A scheme*. New York: Holt. Rinehart & Winston.

Pedhazur, E. J. (1997). *Multiple Regression in Behavioral Research*. Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace.

Petitpas, A. J., Buntrock, C. L., Van Raalte, J. L., & Brewer, B. W. (1995). Counseling athletes: A new specialty in counselor education. *Counselor Education and Supervision, 34,* 214-219.

Petitpas, A., & Champagne, D. E. (1988). Developmental programming for intercollegiate athletes. *Journal of College Student Development, 29.* 454-459.

Pinkerton, R., Hinz, L., & Barrow, J. (1989). The college student athlete: psychological considerations and interventions*. Journal of American College Health, 37*, 218-226.

Pinkney, J. W. (1991). *Student-athletes and time management for studying.* In E. Etzel, A. P. Ferrante, & J. W. Pinkney (Eds.), Counseling College Student-Athletes: Issues and Interventions. Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology, Inc.

Pleck, J. H. (1981). *The myth of masculinity.* Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

President's Commission on Mental Health. (1978). *Report to the President* (Vol, 1). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Reis, B. F., & Brown, L. G. (1999). Reducing psychotherapy dropouts: Maximizing perspective convergence in the psychotherapy dyad. *Psychotherapy, 36,* 123-136.

Remer, R., Tongate, F. A., & Watson, J. (1978). Athletes: Counseling the overpriviledged minority. *Personnel and Guidance, 56,* 626-629.

Rickwood, D. J., & Braithwaite, V. A. (1994). Social-psychological affecting help-seeking for emotional problems. *Social Science and Medicine, 39,* 563-572.

Riemer, B. A., Beal, B., & Schroeder, P. (2000). The influences of peer and university culture on female student-athletes' perceptions of career termination, professionalization, and social isolation. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 23,* 264-278.

Robertson, J. M., & Fitzgerald, L. P. (1992). Overcoming the masculine mystique: Preferences for alternative forms of assistance among men who avoid counseling. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 39,* 240-246.

Rosen, L. W., McKeag, D. B., Hough, D. O., & Curley, V. (1986). Pathogenic weight control behavior in female athletes. *Physician and Sportsmedicine, 14,* 79-86.

Rule, W. R., & Gandy, G. L. (1994). A thirteen year comparison in patterns of attitudes toward counseling. *Adolescence, 29,* 575-589.

Ryan, F. J. (1989). Participation in intercollegiate athletics: Affective outcomes. *Journal of College Student Development, 30,* 122-128.

Sanders-Thompson, V. L., Bazile, A., & Akbar, M. (2004). African-Americans' perceptions of psychotherapy and psychotherapists. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 35,* 19-26.

Satterfield, W. A., Buelow, S. A., Lyddon, W. J., & Johnson, J. T. (1995). Client stages of change and expectations about counseling. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 42,* 476-478.

Scholl, M. B. (1998). College students' preferences for counselor role differences as a function of selected young adult identity development factors. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 53,* 117-125.

Schroeder, C. (1996). Focus on student learning: An imperative for student affairs. *Journal of College Student Development, 37,* 115-122.

Selby, R., Weinstein, H. M., & Bird, T. S. (1990). The health of university athletes: Attitudes, behaviors, and stressors. *Journal of American College of Health, 39,* 11-18.

Sellers, R. M. (1992). Racial differences in the predictors for academic achievement of student-athletes in division I revenue producing sports. *Sociology of Sport Journal, 9,* 48-59.

Shriberg, A. & Brodzinski, F. R. (1984). *Rethinking services for college athletes.* New Directions for Student Services, 28. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Simons, H. D., Van Rheenen, D., & Covington, M. V. (1999). Academic motivation and the student-athlete. *Journal of College Student Development, 40 (2),* 151-162.

Snyder, J. F., Hill, C. E., & Derksen, T. P. (1972). Why some students do not use university-counseling facilities. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 19,* 263-268.

Spady, W. G. (1970). Lament for the letterman: Effects of peer status and extracurricular activities on goals and achievement. *American Journal of Sociology, 75,* 680-702.

Stefl, M. E., & Prosperi, D. C. (1985). Barriers to mental health service utilization. *Community Mental Health Journal, 21,* 167-177.

Stone, G. L., & Archer, J. Jr. (1990). College and university counseling centers in the 1990s: Challenges and limits. *The Counseling Psychologist, 18,* 539-607.

Strong, S. R. (1968). Counseling: An interpersonal influence process. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 15,* 215-224.

Subich, L. M. (1983). Expectancies for counselors as a function of counselor gender specification and subject sex. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 30*, 421-424.

Sue, S., Fujino, D. C., Hy, L., Takeuchi, D. T. & Zane, N. (1991). Community mental health services for ethnic minority groups: A test of the cultural responsiveness hypothesis. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 59,* 533-540.

Swoap, R. A., & Murphy, S. M. (1995). Eating disorders and weight management in athletes. *Sport Psychology Interventions,* 307-329.

Talley, P. F., Strupp, H. H., & Morley, L. C. (1990). Matchmaking in psychotherapy: Patient-therapist dimensions and their impact on outcome. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 58,* 182-188.

Tata, S. P., Leong, F. T. L. (1994). Individualism-collectivism, social networking orientation, and acculturation as predictors of attitudes toward seeking professional psychological help among Chinese Americans. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 41,* 280-287.

Terrell, F. & Terrell, S. (1984). Race of counselor, client, sex, cultural mistrust level and premature termination from counseling among Black clients. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 31*, 371-375.

Tinsley, H. E. A. (1982). *Expectations about counseling*. Unpublished manuscript. Southern Illinois University, Department of Psychology, Carbondale, IL.

Tinsley, H. E. A., & Harris, D. (1976). Client expectations for counseling. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 23,* 173-177.

Tinsley, H. E. A., & Westcot, A. M. (1990). Analysis of the cognitions stimulated by the items on the Expectations About Counseling Brief Form: An analysis of construct validity. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 37,* 223-226.

Tinsley, H. E.A., Bowman, S. L., & Ray, S. B. (1988). Manipulation of expectancies about counseling and psychotherapy: Review and analysis of expectancy manipulation strategies and results. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 35,* 99-108.

Tinsley, H. E. A., Brown, M. T., de St. Audin, T. M., & Lucek, J. (1984). The relationship between expectancies for a helping relationship and tendency to seek help from a campus help-provider. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 31,* 149-160.

Tinsley, H. E. A., Workman, K., & Kass, R. (1980). Factor analysis of the domain of client expectancies about counseling. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 27,* 561-570.

Thornton, J. S. (1990). Feast or Famine: Eating disorders in athletes. *The Physician and Sportsmedicine, 18,* 116-122.

Valentine, J. J., & Taub, D. J. (1999). Responding to the developmental needs of student-athletes. *Journal of College Counseling, 2,* 164-179.

VandeCreek, L., & Angstadt, L. (1985). Client preferences and anticipations about counselor self-disclosure. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 32,* 206-214.

Warren, L. W. (1983). Male intolerance of depression: A review with implications for psychotherapy. *Clinical Psychology Review, 3,* 147-156.

Washington, K. & Tinsley, H. E. A. (1982). Measurement of client's expectations about counseling. In H. E. A. Tinsley (Chair), *Studies of the nature and impact of expectancies about counseling.* Symposium conducted at the meeting of the American Psychological Association, Washington D. C.

Watkins, C. E., & Terrell, F. (1988). Mistrust level and its effects on counseling expectations in Black client-White counselor relationships: An analogue study. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 35,* 194-197.

Watson, J C. (2003). The effects of athletic participation, expectations about counseling, and gender on attitudes toward help seeking behavior among college students. (Doctoral dissertation, University of North Carolina Greensboro, 2003). *Dissertation Abstracts International* (UMI No. 3093890)

Watson, J. C, (2003). Overcoming the challenges of counseling college student-athletes. *Counseling and Student Services, 11,* 12-16. Retrieved October 13, 2004, from the ERIC database.

Webb, R. E., & Widseth, J. C. (1988). Facilitating students' going into and stepping back from their inner words: Psychotherapy and the college student. *Journal of College Student Psychotherapy, 3,* 5-15.

Wechsler, H., Dowdall, G. W., Maenner, G., Gledhill-Hoyt, J., & Lee, H. (1998). Changes in binge drinking and related problems among American college students between 1993 and 1997: Results of the Harvard School of Public Health College Alcohol Study. *Journal of American College Health, 47,* 57-68.

Wilson, G. S., Pritchard, M. E., & Schaffer, J. (2004). Athletic status and drinking behavior in college students: the influence of gender and coping styles. *Journal of American College Health, 52,* 269-273.

Yanico, B. J., & Hardin, S. I. (1985). Relation of type of problem and expectations of counselor knowledge and understanding to students' gender preferences for counseling. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 32,* 197-205.

Yeager. K. K., Agostini, R., Nattiv, A., & Drinkwater, B. (1993). The female athlete triad: Disordered eating, amenorrhea, and osteoporosis. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise, 25,* 775-777.