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THE EFFECT OF PARENTING STYLES ON ACADEMIC SELF-EFFICACY, RESILIENCE, AND HELP SEEKING

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THE EFFECT OF PARENTING STYLES ON ACADEMIC SELF-EFFICACY,
RESILIENCE, AND HELP SEEKING

A Thesis

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Master of Science

Mental Health Counseling

by

Ana Rosa González

March 2017

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF PARENTING STYLES ON ACADEMIC SELF-EFFICACY,
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by

Ana Rosa González

March 2017

Parenting is a balance of behaviors that can influence a child's outcome. Twenty-eight undergraduate college students completed ratings of parenting styles, resilience, and help-seeking behaviors, as well as academic self-efficacy. None of these variables were significant predictors of academic self-efficacy, although significant positive correlations were found between an authoritative parenting style and the variables of help-seeking and resilience. Help-seeking and academic self-efficacy were negatively correlated, suggesting that students with lower academic self-efficacy reported a higher willingness to seek help. Implications of these findings for both mental health counselors and university student support staff are discussed.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

When parenting has a foundation, built with the characteristics of warmth, it is associated with positive behavioral (e.g., independence and creativity) and social (e.g., leadership skills and respect for authority) outcomes in a child's development. What is it about this type of parenting that promotes high self-esteem, resiliency, and prosocial behavior in children? Moreover, how do children who face hardship, trauma, or failure establish adaptive outcomes? The purpose of the current study is to investigate the relationship between the quality and type of parenting style and its impact on academic self-efficacy, resiliency, and help seeking behaviors in current and former students.

Nelson, Padilla-Walker, Christensen, Evans, and Carroll (2011) examined extreme controls and responsiveness to a combination of parenting styles to help understand the different approaches taken by mothers and fathers. The researchers identified different clusters of parents based on how much they exhibited dimensions of warmth, responsiveness, and control. Results indicated that the "majority of 18-29 year olds attending college do not consider themselves to be adults, nor do their parents" (Nelson et al, 2011, p. 730).

Nelson (2011) discovered that mother and fathers who identified with a controlling-indulgent parenting style "had children with the most negative outcomes with the lowest levels of parent-child closeness and self-worth, and the highest levels of depression, anxiety, and impulsivity" (p.738). Research suggested "that uninvolved mothering was not as detrimental as controlling-indulgent" (Nelson et al, 2011, p. 738).

Although not giving any guidance, uninvolved (permissive) parenting allows children with the freedom to make any decision, without the scrutiny or reprimand of parental figures. Permissive parents have minimal expectations and involvement with their child, while controlling (authoritarian) parenting often hold opposite expectations.

Liu (2003) described Beck's three stage causal model to theorize how dysfunctional parenting facilitates the relationship between self-worth and dysfunctional attitudes. He suggested that dysfunctional parenting includes strictness, high expectations, and perfectionist tendencies; these are parents who are never satisfied with their child's performance. This negative parenting environment establishes a self-oriented perfectionist standard that causes children to view themselves as failures and unworthy; as a result, children develop dysfunctional attitudes about themselves and others. The feeling of powerlessness in attaining expected goals as well as inflexible standards conditioned self-worth. Low parental care was associated with low self-worth and higher incidences of depression. The inability for children to view themselves as successful or worthy resulted from negative schemas, disrupted parent-child relationships, and negative life events. In addition, "depressed children recall their parents as having been over intrusive, authoritarian, rejecting, and negatively evaluative" (Liu, 2003, p. 92).

Furthermore, children who consistently perceive negative feedback develop negative self-perceptions or low sense of self-worth (Liu, 2003). This negative pattern continues as children develop other interpersonal relationships and obtain information about themselves from others. Nonverbal expressions can also inhibit the child to develop

a low level of self-esteem, though there was a paucity of available research on this topic. Gul and Noor (2011) determined that fathers with a permissive parenting style had more detrimental consequences on their children's behavior because of the lack of guidance and control. According to Aldhafri (2011), "the absence of the parenting demands for mature behaviors and the adolescents' tendency of not approaching their parents for advice..." (p. 516), negatively affects the child's academic performance and health. Mothers with a permissive parenting style also produced a negative effect on their children, but were not significant in the presence of other factors (Aldhafri, 2011). McArdle (2009) reports that children that perceived their mothers as controlling had greater self-esteem fluctuations. Adolescents' self-esteem increased as paternal involvement and acceptance increased; this is likely due to the critical role that parental control plays in the development of cognitions and adjustment to psychological and behavioral control. Parental acceptance is associated with child well-being. Disapproving parents or warmth conditioned on child performance results in perfectionism and a chronic state of hopelessness and low self-worth. This sense of perfectionism often fosters doubts and this perceived inability to be good enough can result in depression and suicidal ideation.

Cultural diversity is another factor that influences parenting style. Van Campen and Romero (2012) reviewed the development of self-efficacy and family involvement in individuals of Mexican origin. An important factor to consider in prevention and intervention with ethnic minorities is family involvement. This ethical consideration should be discussed among individuals. What might seem protective, authoritarian, or

helicopter parenting, may be another form of authoritative parenting in the individual's cultural context. Throughout many cultures, familismo fosters a sense of closeness, better interpersonal communication, and strong efficacy beliefs that equipped to prepare and handle harmful situations (Van Campen & Romero, 2012). Such family interactions predict greater cohesion among family members, positive development, and emotional coping and regularity.

After millennial generation entered college, the concept of helicopter parenting emerged (Van Ingen et al., 2015). These millennials have baby boomer parents who focused on child rearing during their adult lives. Helicopter parenting allows parents to stay close and pay extra attention to their children. Consequently, children may have less autonomy. Van Ingen et al. (2015) also discovered that when decreases in a child's autonomy occur, a reduction in maturation and social competence is also evident. This ideology creates a psychological maladjustment with diminished capacity to accomplish goals (Van Ingen et al., 2015).

Rigid or strict parenting may also take the form of emotional maltreatment. Parents convey the message that children are worthless, unloved, or unwanted through hostile or misguided parental behavior (Iwaniec, Larkin, & McSherry, 2007). This action damages the child's self-esteem and hinders healthy development. Identified consequences of this parenting behavior have indicated that emotional maltreatment directly damages a child's self-esteem and self-worth (Iwaniec et al., 2007). Prolonged maltreatment can also play a key role in dissatisfaction and pessimism about the future. For example, Givertz and Segrin (2014) found that open family communication also

strengthens the relationship between parental control and lower levels of self- efficacy in young adults. This could be a result of over involvement and dissatisfaction with the family. As defined by the authors, an open relationship can lead to manipulation and constraints of expressions and needs or high levels of narcissism and entitlement.

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), approximately 20.2 million students were expected to attend American colleges and universities in fall 2015, a 4.9 million increase since fall of 2000. The demand for mental health services and support in colleges and universities has increased during the past several years. The National Alliance on Mental Illness (NAMI; as cited on the Chardon State College website) reports that “one in four young adults between the ages of 18 and 24 have a diagnosable mental illness,” while “more than 25 percent of college students have been diagnosed or treated by a professional for a mental health condition within the past year.”

Mental health issues are a leading impediment to academic success and yet stigmatization of mental illness is prevalent on college campuses. Therefore, the purpose of the current study is to investigate the relationship between the quality and type of parenting style and its impact on academic self-efficacy, resiliency, and help seeking behaviors in current and former students.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a brief review of the recent literature on parenting style, academic self-efficacy, resiliency, and help-seeking. Particular attention will be paid to research involving college students and young adults.

Parenting Style

Alt (2015) described classical research by Baumrind in 1967 as a “typology of three basic styles of parenting styles: authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative” (p.64). Wouters, Doumen, Germeijs, Colpin, and Verschueren (2013) described the responsiveness researched by Baumrind, as “the degree to which parents emotionally support their children and provide them with warmth and love” (p. 244).

Individuals with a “secure attachment style are more likely to view those around them as helpful and trustworthy”, with increased self-efficacy for prosocial behaviors (Holt, 2014, p. 641). According to the authors, secure attachment is established during the first few months of a child’s development and continues to impact the parent child relationship throughout the years. Children who participate in a nurturing relationship with parents or caregivers are more likely to develop favorable internal self-image and of others.

In a discussion of the differences in parenting styles, Alt (2015) describes authoritarian parents as individuals who “stress obedience, exhibit highly directive behaviors, and tend to favor more punitive measures of discipline management” (p. 64). Alt also discovered that “authoritarian parenting does not foster psychological autonomy

in children and holds back the development of adolescents' individuation; therefore this type of parenting is associated with extrinsic academic motivation, anxiety, and withdrawn behavior" (2015, p. 64). In addition to noting increased levels of anxiety, Huey, Sayler, and Rinn (2013) were able to predict that college students whose parents used an authoritarian parenting style, had "lower college grade point averages (GPA) among college students" (p. 421).

McArdle (2009) found a "significant relationship between paternal authoritarianism (low acceptance, high control) and doubts about actions [in children]... suggest[ing] that parental acceptance, regardless of parental control may play a critical role in the development of maladaptive cognitions associated with perfectionism" (p. 607). The author proposed that "perfectionism has been associated with persistent worry and fear of failure, eating disorders, depression, obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD), and vulnerability to suicidal behavior" (McArdle, 2009. p.597). Although causes for "the development of perfectionism remain unclear, early theorists highlight a number of parenting behaviors thought to foster perfectionistic tendencies" (McArdale, 2009, p. 598). These theorists believed that children create self-doubt of their abilities, believing that any effort made is never good enough for disapproving parents. The child's recurring inability to meet or surpass their parent's standards creates a sense of hopelessness and low self-worth.

In Holt's study, parent-child relationships predicted help-seeking behavior, "but also the development of social competence, which is the child's ability to communicate effectively and enlist others' social support and cooperation (Holt, 2014, p. 642).

College students with higher social competence were associated with secure parental attachments. “As socialization agents, parents play a central role in the transmission of norms and values, psychologically, students’ academic outcomes, such as motivation or emotional adjustment can be affected by different parenting styles” (Alt, 2014, p. 64).

Alt (2015) describes permissive parenting as “characterized by making few demands and exhibiting non-controlling behaviors” (p. 64). He states that children who are raised by parents who identify with a permissive parenting style “may not be subjected to punishment, have few to no chores, and receive minimal guidelines about academic studies from their parents” (p. 64). Alt (2015) described permissive parenting as to be closely “related to extrinsic motivation, lack of self-reliance, reduced persistence on learning tasks, lack of self-discipline, and school misconduct (p. 64). Similarly, Huey et al. (2013) found that “permissive and authoritarian parenting styles had a negative impact on academic performance” (p. 428).

An “authoritative style of rearing is marked by high levels of nurturance, involvement, sensitivity, reasoning, and encouragement of autonomy... [these parents] enforce rules while considering the child an integral part of decision making” (Alt, 2015, p. 64). Studies related to child developments have regularly linked authoritative parenting “to its superiority in fostering intrinsic motivation and higher academic performance” (Alt, 2015, p. 64). In addition, “authoritative parenting approaches are consistently related to higher academic performance and sustained optimal developmental outcomes among college students” (Huey et al., 2013, p. 421)

In the context of parenting styles, Alt (2015) has “linked low socioeconomic-status (SES) and educational attainment of parents to authoritarian parenting, whereas parents with higher SES levels were found to be more authoritative than the lower SES parents” (p. 65). Inam, Nomaanm, and Abiodullah (2016) reported that “despite having different parenting styles, all parents want to raise their children as happy and confident adults” (p.60). However, these authors report that authoritative parenting enabled children to perform better by actively taking part in their school activities thus increasing the chances of success at school and enhancing children’s achievements (Inam et al., 2016). Parenting style and families have a lasting effect on the success and positive performance of early college entrants.

Academic Self-Efficacy

Lata-Sherma and Nasa (2014) explain that “confidence is the key to success...whether personally or at professional level, believing in one's own strength and self-confidence matters a lot in achieving the set aims and supports the individual even under any undesirable situations and conditions to accomplish the task” (p. 58). A concept introduced by Albert Bandura, academic self-efficacy (ASE) refers to an “individual's belief that they can successfully achieve at a designated level on an academic task or attain a specific academic goal” (Lata-Sherma & Nesa, 2014, p. 59).

Lata-Sherma and Nesa (2014) discovered that previous research done by Linnenbrink and Pintrich in 2003, has demonstrated “that academic self-efficacy was significantly associated with students' learning, cognitive engagement, analytical thinking, academic commitment, strategy use, persistence, susceptibility to negative

emotions, and achievement” (2014, p. 60). Chemers, Hu, and Garcia (2001) found that “academic self-efficacy was significantly and directly related to academic expectations and academic performance... [and] academic expectations were related to performance” (p. 61). Students who entered college with confidence in their ability to perform well academically performed significantly better than less confident students. Similarly, students with greater expectations for academic success demonstrated higher performance. Finally, students who had higher GPAs in high school had greater levels of academic ability and academic self-efficacy in college (Chemers et al., 2001).

Feldman, Davidson, Ben-Naim, Maza, and Margalit (2016) reported that “the transition to college may be a critical period for establishing hopes regarding academic expectations and interpersonal connections” (p. 63). The researchers discovered that “early validation of students’ capabilities, their worth, and performance appears to be central to securing a successful transition” (Feldman et al., 2016, p. 63) from high school to college. According to the authors, “studies also show that levels of ASE predicted higher academic performance and achievements, decreased procrastination, and enhanced levels of effort investment and perseverance” (Feldman et al., 2016, p. 65).

“Efficacy beliefs also influence the particular courses of action an individual chooses, the amount of effort, determination in the face of challenges and failures, resilience, and the ability to cope with the demands associated with the chosen course” (Chemers et al., 2001, p. 55). Razek and Coyner (2014) stressed that the importance of “psychological factors like self-efficacy are essential to understanding student academic achievements and should be utilized as a guide in establishing college programs...

sources of self-efficacy, once identified, could guide the planning of effective interventions that would improve academic achievement through increasing self-efficacy” (p. 87).

Academic self-efficacy “is conceptually related to two future-focused constructs—hope and optimism—both of which are forms of positive expectancy” (Feldman et al., 2016, p. 65). In addition, Feldman et al. (2016) discovered that “high hope is related to higher levels of academic achievement and to the lower levels of social distress and loneliness that impact psychological well-being” (p.65). “Children and adolescents with high hope were more satisfied with life when compared to those with low hope; in addition, they had higher self-esteem and reported greater support from others and higher levels of family cohesion” (Feldman et al., 2016, p. 65). High self-efficacy beliefs are concurrently “related to an enhancement in an individual’s ability to use effective problem-solving and decision-making strategies, to plan and manage one's personal resources more efficiently, to entertain more positive expectations, and to set higher goals” (Chemers et al., 2001, p. 56).

Razek and Coyner (2014) found that international college students experience greater threats to their academic self-efficacy due to acculturation and adjustment experience in their host countries. “The stress created by high expectations and causal comparative factors may urge international students to unethical academic choices involving cheating or plagiarism to compensate for low self-efficacy beliefs in individual’s academic achievement” (Razek & Coyner, 2014, p. 88). Recognizing that student with similar backgrounds (i.e. international, foreign, immigrant) “may hold

unrealistic expectations regarding the amount of effort required for degree attainment, faculty can provide opportunities to help students understand the requirements and the accompanying effort needed to be successful” (Razek & Coyner, 2014, p. 93).

According to the Razek and Coyner (2014), universities “that encourage collaborative and cooperative learning strategies can help students acquire needed learning skills and maximize learning experiences” (p.93).

Help Seeking

Topkaya (2014) found that “many people consider seeking psychological help as their last resort... the majority of those who might benefit from psychological treatment do not, in the end, seek psychological therapy for a solution” (p. 480). Stigma is a potential barrier of an individual’s choice to utilize services. Public stigma refers to “society’s negative beliefs, attitudes, and behavioral consequences about mental disorders, which produce stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination against those with mental health disorders... [while] *self-stigma* applies negative beliefs and attitudes associated with mental disorders to himself or herself” (Topkaya, 2014, p. 481).

Previous research suggests that one’s attitude is a strong predictor towards seeking help; more specifically, a positive attitude towards mental health was significantly related to psychological help-seeking (Hess & Tracey, 2013). Topkaya (2014) found that the most common “link between one’s attitudes toward psychological help-seeking and the societal, or individual, stigma associated with psychological help seeking is the most widely cited barrier behind one’s choice to utilize psychological services” (p.481). Furthermore, males were the “individuals who held more self-stigma

associated with psychological help seeking and were more likely to hold negative attitudes toward psychological help-seeking” (Topkaya, 2014, p. 484). Hanna et. al. (2015) also found that males were less likely than females to seek assistance and to hold greater negative attitudes towards psychological help.

According to Brownson, Becker, Shadick, Jaggars, and Nitkin-Kaner (2014) reported that in 2001, “The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services reported that non-White Americans have less access to mental health services, are less likely to receive such services, and receive an inferior quality of care” (p. 118). In addition, Brownson et al. (2014) reported that Hispanic American/Latino populations and others indicate that support from friends makes a greater contribution to reduction in psychological distress among college students” (p. 118), as it may feel safer. “...Hispanic American/Latino [and Asian American] individuals may be more likely to depend on support from family members, friends, religion, and community rather than seeking help from a mental health practitioner” (Brownson et al., 2014, p. 118). “Although some studies have focused on suicide prevalence in people of color, the research is often related to adults or adolescents as opposed to college students” (Brownson et al., 2014, p.116).

The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], reported in 2011 that “suicide was the third most prevalent cause of death for youth between the ages of 18 and 24 years, following accidental injury and homicide, and is believed to be the second leading cause of death for college students” (Brownson et al., 2014, p.116). In fact, when students are at risk of the worst academic outcomes, including failing a class, help-seeking actually becomes less likely (Winograd & Rust, 2014).

In their study on suicidal behavior and help-seeking among diverse populations, Brownson et al. (2014) concluded that while Asian American reported high suicidal ideation with low levels of help seeking motivation, Caucasian Americans reported the lowest levels of suicidal with the highest levels of help seeking. Winograd and Rust (2014) also found that self-stigma for help-seeking was predicted by the performance burden dimension of stereotype threat, according to which students believe that poor performance contributes to professors and other students looking down on members of the group to which they belong.

National surveys have demonstrated that finances are the second largest stressor for college students, proceeding academics (Hanna et al., 2015). Self-efficacy, not only in academics, but also in other constructs such as finance, allows an individual to mediate stress and stress-related adaptive behaviors as a form of coping (Hanna et al., 2015).

Fortunately, students who are less academically prepared when they enter college benefit in terms of both GPA and college persistence when they receive formal academic support, and particularly when such help is received early in their college careers (Winograd & Rust, 2014). These authors found that programs that required students to meet monthly counteracted some of the barriers to academic help-seeking. Students from backgrounds that were well-represented on campuses and who were at risk for or already in academic trouble did not seek support in a timely manner (Winograd & Rust, 2014).

Brownson et al. (2014), reports that “to increase professional help seeking among students of color, universities may need to train their confidants in the importance of advising students to seek professional help, promote the importance of help seeking

among students of color, and address biases that may cause members of the community to differentially advise Caucasian students and students of color” (p. 126). “A university culture that supports positive attitudes, peer support, and ease of access to services, increases a student’s intention to seek help” (Hess, & Tracey, 2012, p.328). Lack of awareness of available services and how to access those services are important potential barriers to student success. Hess and Tracey (2012), understood that “working to develop more positive attitudes towards counseling may also increase students’ intentions to use support services” (p.328).

Resilience

In 1963, Erik Erikson reported that the stage of social emotional development in children is the development of trust and social ability. Prince-Embury (2015) explain that “Erikson defined basic trust as the ability to receive and accept what is given, and believed that basic trust was initially based in infants’ oral mode of functioning before it evolved through aggregated experiences with the caregivers to establish children’s balance of trust versus mistrust” (p.58).

Prince-Embury (2015) reports that “resilience researchers and theorists have defined resilience from a systemic perspective, as the complex interaction of child characteristics and external supports that buffer the effects of adverse situations that place children at risk of negative outcomes” (p.56). According to the author, the concept of resiliency involves risk and protective factors, as well as positive adaptations to adversity. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2016) have identified four areas in which a person can experience victimization and vulnerability: individual, family, peer

and societal, and community risk factors. These include, but are not limited to, physical and mental health issues, authoritarian parenting or low parental involvement, parental substance use, social rejection, and poor academic performance.

Educational resiliency is described as the ability of a student to succeed academically, despite difficult and challenging life circumstances and risk factors that prevent an individual from succeeding (Wang & Gordon, 1994). Resiliency in educational settings allows students to navigate racially charged campus environments, become engaged on campus through leadership opportunities, and develop meaningful relationships with peers and mentors more effectively (Harper & Kuykendall, 2012).

Huey, Slayer, and Rinn (2013), explained that “among traditional-aged college students, perception of the family environment can predict social adjustment to college, career development and decision making and academic achievement” (p. 420). Furthermore, Prince-Embury (2015) found “that resilient youth sought support from non-parental adults (e.g., teachers, ministers, and neighbors) more often than non-resilient youth...these supportive relationships were influential in fostering resilience” (p. 58). Rivera discovered that “children and youth with a higher sense of relatedness will be more resilient and less vulnerable to negative outcome when faced with life’s adversities” (2014, p. 288). “Peers play a significant role in the academic achievement and college-going behavior of immigrant high school youth... providing emotional support and encouragement for positive social behavior...” (Rivera, 2014, p.289). Support from peers can also impact “academic achievement, and applying to college, they also provide instrumental guidance, and information about navigating the educational system

...interactive or meditating relationship of some kind between the role of peers and resilience” (Rivera, 2014, p. 289).

Rivera (2014), discovered that “first-generation college-bound and immigrant populations, including family members who are instructed appropriately about the college culture at high school and provided with additional resources will mirror—and in some cases surpass--middle-class students in reaching the milestones needed to become college-eligible” (p. 288). Furthermore, the researcher found a relationship between students’ resilience and applications to a four-year college, providing direct evidence that... immigrant students who want to access higher education have to take individual initiative and direct efforts to learn about the complex application process...” (Rivera, 2014, p. 296). According to the Rivera (2014), “resilience is critical to obtaining essential eligibility and college application information” (p.296).

Summary

The purpose of the current study was to investigate the relationships between the type of parenting style experienced by college students and their academic self-efficacy, resiliency, and willingness to seek help. Evaluating the hypothesized relationship between parenting quality and academic self-efficacy and resiliency may promote useful information in developing a multicultural model to foster a healthy balance of help seeking behavior and autonomy in children. As suggested by Nelson et al. (2011)

...parents are most effective during emerging adulthood when they talk to their children and do what they can to maintain a relationship, while simultaneously

granting greater levels of autonomy and forming new boundaries that are based substantially less on parental control (p. 739).

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Design

A multiple regression analysis was conducted for the purpose of the current research, utilizing students' self-reported perceptions of parenting style, resiliency, and help seeking to predict academic self-efficacy.

Participants

Participants who were enrolled for least one quarter at a small northwestern university were recruited through Department of Psychology's Sona System. Participants reported their age, gender, grade level, self-reported GPA, and ethnicity. Five males and 23 females ($N=28$) were included in the final sample. Eligibility to participate in the current study required that all participants must be no younger than the ages of 18. In addition, all participants must be or have been enrolled at in college for a minimum of one full quarter. Students who did not meet the criteria were excluded from the study given their inability to provide accurate responses to academic self-efficacy in a higher education setting. A summary of participant demographics is provided in Table 1.

Materials

All student participants were asked to complete five questionnaires. The instruments used to collect data were a demographic form (see Appendix A), The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ; Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & McKeachie, 1991), the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ; Buri, 1991), the Brief Resilience Scale (BRS; Smith et al., 2008)), and the General Help-Seeking Questionnaire

Table 1

Participant Demographic Information

Variable	Level	<i>N</i>	%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Age		--	--	23.25	9.09
Gender	Female	23	82.14		
	Male	5	17.86		
Ethnicity	White	18	64.29		
	Other or Biracial	10	35.71		
English First	Yes	24	85.71		
	No	4	14.29		
Year in School	Freshman	6	21.43		
	Sophomore	2	7.14		
	Junior	13	46.43		
	Senior	7	25.00		
Relationship	Single	17	60.71		
	Married	2	7.14		
	Partnered	8	28.57		
	Separated/Divorced	1	3.57		
Children	Yes	5	17.86		
	No	23	82.14		
CWU Help-Seeking	Yes	21	75.00		
	No	7	25.00		
Campus Services	Academic Advising	10	35.71		
	Academic Tutoring	3	10.71		
	Multiple Sources	3	10.71		
	Counseling	2	7.14		
	Career Services	1	3.57		
	Financial Aid	1	3.57		
	None	8	28.57		

(GHSQ; Wilson, Deane, Cirarochi, & Rickwood, 2005). Instructions for each instrument were given to participants prior to responding to the items.

Demographic Questionnaire

A demographic data questionnaire developed by the researcher was used to gather information about the participant's age, gender, year in school, GPA, and ethnic and cultural background. No names, student identification numbers, or other identifying data was recorded; thus, all responses were anonymous.

Academic Self-Efficacy

The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ; Pintrich et al., 1991) is a 44-item scale that assesses the motivation of college students' and the individual's utilization of learning strategies. The MSLQ examines components of goal orientations, learning and performance and resource management strategies. Previously reported internal consistency coefficients for the MSLQ ranged from .62 to .93.

Parenting Style

The Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ, Buri, 1991) is a 30-item scale that is primarily used to evaluate the dimension of parenting control. The PAQ consists of three subscales: Permissive, Authoritative, and Authoritarian. Each subscale contains 10 items. Participants were asked to indicate their degree of agreement on a Likert-type Scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) in response to questions such as "My mother did not view herself as responsible for directing or guiding my behavior as I was growing up" or "As I was growing up, my mother did not allow me to question any decision she made" (Buri, 1991). The higher the score, the greater the perceptions of this

dimension of parenting control. Only perceptions of the mother's parenting styles was measured for this study in order to reduce the amount of time required for participants to complete all study questionnaires. Children raised in same sex or gender households were not specifically studied as part of this research. Previous research on this instrument reports good test-retest (between .77 and .92) and internal consistency reliability (between .74 and .87) while maintaining good discriminant and criterion validity for the three subscales in the PAQ (Buri, 1991).

Resilience

The Brief Resilience Scale (Smith et al., 2008) is a 6-item scale. The BRS measure of resilience targets personal characteristics that may promote positive adaptation. Smith et al. (2008), designed the BRS to be the only measure that specifically assesses resilience and "an individual's ability to bounce back or recover from stress" (Nguyen, Stanley, Stanley, & Wang, 2015, p. 1). Participants were asked to indicate their degree of agreement on a Likert-type Scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) in response to statements such as "I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times" and "I usually come through difficult times with little trouble." Higher scores indicate higher levels of resilience. Previous research indicates that internal consistency reliability for BRS ranges from .80 to .91 (Smith et al., 2008). It should be noted that the BRS instructions state that the total BRS score should be divided by the number of items to obtain a mean score (Smith et al., 2008).

Help Seeking

The General Help-Seeking Questionnaire (GHSQ; Wilson et al., 2005) is a 20-item questionnaire designed to assess an individual's intentions to seek help from a variety of sources for different problems. It is designed for use with adolescents and adults, and to evaluate help-seeking attitudes. Participants were asked to indicate their degree of agreement with individual statements on a Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*extremely unlikely*) to 7 (*extremely likely*). Statements from this scale include items such as "If you were having personal or emotional problems, how likely is it that you would seek help from the following people?" Previous research on the GHSQ has demonstrated good internal reliability in each scale, with coefficients ranging from .80 to .90 (Wilson et al., 2005).

Procedure

Following approval from the Human Subjects Review Council (HSRC), participant recruitment occurred through the Department of Psychology's Sona System. The researcher placed a link for the proposed study on the Sona student recruitment page, which is available for students enrolled in psychology courses at a small northwestern university. Sona provided information on the nature of the study and an estimated time to complete the research scales.

Participants were provided a link to the survey presented on Qualtrics. At the beginning of the survey, participants were informed that purpose of the research was to collect data on academic achievement and development. Each participant was given the

informed consent and assured that all information provided would be completely anonymous. Following consent, participants were instructed to answer the questions to the best of their ability with the most appropriate or accurate answer. Participants then answered questions on the demographic questionnaire, Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire, Parental Authority Questionnaire, Brief Resiliency Scale, and the General Help-Seeking Questionnaire. Participant first received a demographic questionnaire which was reviewed upon completion by the Qualtrics software to assure that each participant met the eligibility criteria. The participants were then asked to answer the remaining questionnaires in the order listed above to collect data on academic achievement and development. Student participants were given a total one to two hours to complete the questionnaires and were debriefed thereafter.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Data Screening

A total of 44 participants enrolled in the current study. There were a total of 16 incomplete cases in the study. Of the incomplete case, two participants did not consent (and therefore exited the survey), two participants dropped immediately after consenting to be in the study, and 12 participants were dropped from the analysis because they had not been in college for at least one full quarter. Some questionnaire items were reverse scored. There were very few missing item scores and no participant had more than two missing items. Any missing data on participant's survey items were replaced with a mean for that item. Next, variable scores were created as instructed for each questionnaire. For the correlation and multiple regression analyses, only those participants ($N = 28$) who lived with a mother at some point in time were included, as all participants shared this commonality for analysis. All variable (i.e., scale) scores were checked for univariate normality. All variable scores had skewness and kurtosis values between -1.00 and +1.00, indicating normality.

Results of Multiple Regression

Correlation and regression analyses were run with no evidence of multicollinearity. Variance inflation factor (VIF) scores were less than 10. No Mahalanobis scores exceeded the χ^2 crition of 20.51, indicating there were no

multivariate outliers. Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations are reported in

Table 2.

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Academic Self-Efficacy and the Predictor Variables of Participant Ethnicity, Parenting Style, and Resiliency

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
MLSQ	220.75	30.01	.10	-.26	.22	.36	-.30
Predictor Variable							
1. Permissive	24.87	6.53	1.00				
2. Authoritarian	28.57	6.26	-.40*	1.00			
3. Authoritative	34.46	10.00	.37	-.24	1.00		
4. BRS (Resilience)	3.27	.81	.17	-.42*	.27	1.00	
5. MH Help-Seeking	36.31	9.20	.12	.24	.31	-.32	1.00

**p* < .05

As seen in Table 3, the overall regression model was nonsignificant [$F(5,22) = 1.31, p > .05$]. Consequently, there were no significant predictors of academic self-efficacy. The obtained adjusted R^2 was only .05 which indicates that less than 5% of the variance in academic self-efficacy was accounted for by the predictor variables.

Table 3

Regression Analysis Summary of Predictors of Academic Self-Efficacy (MSLQ) Score

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
PAQ Permissive	-.08	.99	-.02	-.09	.93
PAQ Authoritarian	-.27	1.09	-.06	-.25	.81
PAQ Authoritative	.81	.69	.27	1.19	.25
BRS Resilience	6.03	8.33	.16	.72	.48
MH Help-Seeking	-1.04	.74	-.32	-1.41	.17

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Although the results of the study did not identify any significant predictors of academic self-efficacy, parenting continues to be one of the core elements of child development. Masud, Thurasamy, and Ahmad (2015) report that “good parenting style which is both supportive and flexible is good for the development of children” (p. 2428). Parenting styles that “support the autonomy of children help promote better academic performance” (Masud et al., 2015, p. 2429). Similarly, parenting style can affect psychological well-being. With the rise of mental health disorders, it is critical for young adults to understand when to be advocates of their own mental health struggles, accept the need to seek help, and gain the resiliency to overcome stigma and barriers.

In the current results, a positive correlation was found between authoritative parenting and both help-seeking and resilience. More specifically, when students reported having authoritative parenting, they perceived themselves as more resilient. Similarly, students were more likely to ask for help from others when they also reported having a parent or caregiver with an authoritative parenting style. These correlations may be due, in part, to the nurturing and trusting relationships that are established between parent and child. As the authors of one article have suggested, “. . . authoritative parenting styles are supportive of higher academic achievement. . . it may be due to the fact that adolescents find their parents supportive, caring and enable them to resolve their issues with their guidance” (Masud et al., 2015, p. 2427).

Results of the current study also suggest that authoritative parenting was the strongest, though not significant, predictor of academic self-efficacy. And as predicted by previous research findings, of the three parenting styles, authoritarian parenting had the greatest negative association with academic self-efficacy.

Lastly, of all predictor variables (i.e., parenting style, help-seeking, resilience), help-seeking was the stronger individual predictor for academic-self-efficacy. Given that help-seeking and academic self-efficacy were negatively correlated, results indicated that students with high academic self-efficacy were less likely to report a willingness to seek help. One potential implication of this finding is that students with high academic self-efficacy believe and are confident that they can independently achieve success in college; conversely, students with low academic self-efficacy tend to report higher levels of help-seeking behavior.

The current findings indicate that academic advising was the most common campus support service sought out by students. As such, academic advisors may be the first stepping stone for students to be better connected with resources; with their assistance, students may learn how to build confidence in order to promote greater academic self-efficacy and resilience. Therefore, it is of critical importance, not only for students, but also for academic advisors, to be aware of the services available to them on campus; similarly, faculty can encourage and motivate all students to use services more frequently. For example, professors and advisors can share information about how to access academic support services on campus, including office hours, in written and oral communication early in the quarter. Faculty can highlight the availability of such

services at times of the semester when exams and papers are announced as well as when deadlines are approaching. Furthermore, faculty can connect with other services as part of a training program to have a create a continuity of services to best meet the needs to students and refer students to the most appropriate resource, rather than the academic advisor taking the role of other supports available on campus.

Strengths

Strengths of this research include the use of reliability and valid measurement scales. In addition, the obtained data met the assumptions for the statistical tests used in the analyses. Although the multiple regression model was nonsignificant, individual correlations observed between were consistent with the previous literature on authoritative parenting, helping-seeking, and resilience. The current survey was also easily accessible with clear formatting and instructions.

Limitations

One of the limitations for the current research was a limited sample size, presumably adding to the study's low statistical power. The study was only available online, to students enrolled in a psychology course at a small northwestern university. Therefore, to generalize the results for larger groups, future researchers should recruit more students with greater diversity in life circumstances. In addition, one quarter of college was required prior to taking the survey from each participant, limiting the number of participants in this study. In addition, veteran's services were not included in the list of support services for this study. Lastly, the researcher did not inquire about whether participants were first generation immigrants or first generation college students.

Future Research

For future research, it may be useful to allow all participants to complete the whether or not they have been in college for more than one quarter. This would allow a comparison of academic self-efficacy, resiliency, and help-seeking factors among those who have and have not been in college at least one quarter. In addition to parenting style, help-seeking, and academic self-efficacy, I would recommend looking at the relationship between these factors and locus of control. This would allow future researchers to further investigate the correlation among the different parenting styles to students' perceptions of internal and external control.

The literature review in this thesis established that “parenting style is affected by culture, ethnicity and socioeconomic status” (Masud et al., 2015, p. 2427). Research also supported the positive relationship between authoritative parenting and healthy psychological development. Parents are encouraged to adopt the authoritative parenting style. However, currently working in community mental health, I find that the clients and families served are typically low income and living below poverty level; in addition, children often have adult parents who did not complete high school. Level of education of parents can affect parenting behavior, as some parents do not understand mental health disorders, how to receive or look for services, or take time off to attend appointments. Implications for future research and counseling might consist of culturally sensitive training seminars and workshops for parents on authoritative parenting, which may include monolingual, same-sex/gender, or low SES parents. Furthermore, the degree parent and child acculturation may be an important predictor variable to include in future

research, as it may provide important information about cultural values for parenting style.

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Appendix A

Demographics

- a. Gender: _____
- b. Age: _____
- c. Ethnicity: _____
- d. English First language: _____
- e. Year in School: _____
- f. Attended/Enrolled quarters or semesters: _____
- g. GPA: _____
- h. Marital Status (please choose one): Single____ Married ____ Separated
____ Divorced ____
- i. Do you have children (please choose one): Yes or No
- j. Did you seek help from any campus service (ex. academic advisor,
professor, counseling clinic/center, campus organization, etc.): Yes or No
(please choose one)
 - i. If yes, what kind of service: _____

Appendix B

Academic Self-Efficacy

Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire*

Please rate the following items based on your behavior in this class. Your rating should be on a 7 point scale where **1= not at all true of me** to **7=very true of me**.

1. I prefer class work that is challenging so I can learn new things.
2. Compared with other students in this class I expect to do well
3. I am so nervous during a test that I cannot remember facts I have learned
4. It is important for me to learn what is being taught in this class
5. I like what I am learning in this class
6. I'm certain I can understand the ideas taught in this course
7. I think I will be able to use what I learn in this class in other classes
8. I expect to do very well in this class
9. Compared with others in this class, I think I'm a good student
10. I often choose paper topics I will learn something from even if they require more work
11. I am sure I can do an excellent job on the problems and tasks assigned for this class
12. I have an uneasy, upset feeling when I take a test
13. I think I will receive a good grade in this class
14. Even when I do poorly on a test I try to learn from my mistakes
15. I think that what I am learning in this class is useful for me to know
16. My study skills are excellent compared with others in this class
17. I think that what we are learning in this class is interesting
18. Compared with other students in this class I think I know a great deal about the subject
19. I know that I will be able to learn the material for this class
20. I worry a great deal about tests
21. Understanding this subject is important to me
22. When I take a test I think about how poorly I am doing
23. When I study for a test, I try to put together the information from class and from the book
24. When I do homework, I try to remember what the teacher said in class so I can answer the questions correctly
25. I ask myself questions to make sure I know the material I have been

studying

26. It is hard for me to decide what the main ideas are in what I read
27. When work is hard I either give up or study only the easy parts
28. When I study I put important ideas into my own words
29. I always try to understand what the teacher is saying even if it doesn't make sense.
30. When I study for a test I try to remember as many facts as I can
31. When studying, I copy my notes over to help me remember material
32. I work on practice exercises and answer end of chapter questions even when I don't have to
33. Even when study materials are dull and uninteresting, I keep working until I finish
34. When I study for a test I practice saying the important facts over and over to myself
35. Before I begin studying I think about the things I will need to do to learn
36. I use what I have learned from old homework assignments and the textbook to do new assignments
37. I often find that I have been reading for class but don't know what it is all about.
38. I find that when the teacher is talking I think of other things and don't really listen to what is being said
39. When I am studying a topic, I try to make everything fit together
40. When I'm reading I stop once in a while and go over what I have read
41. When I read materials for this class, I say the words over and over to myself to help me remember
42. I outline the chapters in my book to help me study
43. I work hard to get a good grade even when I don't like a class
44. When reading I try to connect the things I am reading about with what I already know.

*Pintrich, R. R., & DeGroot, E. V. (1990). Motivational and self-regulated learning components of classroom academic performance, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82, 33-40.

Appendix C

Parenting Style

Parental Authority Questionnaire

Instructions: For each of the following statements, circle the number of the 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree) that best describes how that statement applies to you and your mother. Try to read and think about each statement as it applies to you and your mother during your years of growing up at home. There are no right or wrong answers, so don't spend a lot of time on any one item. We are looking for your overall impression regarding each statement. Be sure not to omit any items.

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neither agree nor disagree
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly Agree

1. While I was growing up my mother felt that in a well-run home the children should have their way in the family as often as the parents do.	1	2	3	4
	5			
2. Even if her children didn't agree with her, my mother felt that it was for our own good if we were forced to conform to what she thought was right.	1	2	3	4
	5			
3. Whenever my mother told me to do something as I was growing up, she expected me to do it immediately without asking any questions.	1	2	3	4
	5			
4. As I was growing up, once family policy had been established, my mother discussed the reasoning behind the policy with the children in the family.	1	2	3	4
	5			
5. My mother has always encouraged verbal give-and-take whenever I have felt that family rules and restrictions were unreasonable.	1	2	3	4
	5			
6. My mother has always felt that what her children need is to be free to make up their own minds and to do what they want to do, even if this does not agree with what their parents might want.	1	2	3	4
	5			
7. As I was growing up my mother did not allow me to question any decision she had made.	1	2	3	4

	5			
8. As I was growing up my mother directed the activities and decisions of the children in the family through reasoning and discipline.	1 5	2	3	4
9. My mother has always felt that more force should be used by parents in order to get their children to behave the way they are supposed to.	1 5	2	3	4
10. As I was growing up my mother did not feel that I needed to obey rules and regulations of behavior simply because someone in authority had established them.	1 5	2	3	4
11. As I was growing up I knew what my mother expected of me in my family, but I also felt free to discuss those expectations with my mother when I felt that they were unreasonable.	1 5	2	3	4
12. My mother felt that wise parents should teach their children early just who is boss in the family.	1 5	2	3	4
13. As I was growing up, my mother seldom gave me expectations and guidelines for my behavior.	1 5	2	3	4
14. Most of the time as I was growing up my mother did what the children in the family wanted when making family decisions.	1 5	2	3	4
15. As the children in my family were growing up, my mother consistently gave us direction and guidance in rational and objective ways.	1 5	2	3	4
16. As I was growing up my mother would get very upset if I tried to disagree with her.	1 5	2	3	4
17. My mother feels that most problems in society would be solved if parents would not restrict their children's activities, decisions, and desires as they are growing up.	1 5	2	3	4
18. As I was growing up my mother let me know what behavior she				

expected of me, and if I didn't meet those expectations, she punished me.	1 5	2	3	4
19. As I was growing up my mother allowed me to decide most things for myself without a lot of direction from her.	1 5	2	3	4
20. As I was growing up my mother took the children's opinions into consideration when making family decisions, but she would not decide for something simply because the children wanted it.	1 5	2	3	4
21. My mother did not view herself as responsible for directing and guiding my behavior as I was growing up.	1 5	2	3	4
22. My mother had clear standards of behavior for the children in our home as I was growing up, but she was willing to adjust those standards to the needs of each of the individual children in the family.	1 5	2	3	4
23. My mother gave me direction for my behavior and activities as I was growing up and she expected me to follow her direction, but she was always willing to listen to my concerns and to discuss that direction with me.	1 5	2	3	4
24. As I was growing up my mother allowed me to form my own point of view on family matters and she generally allowed me to decide for myself what I was going to do.	1 5	2	3	4
25. My mother has always felt that most problems in society would be solved if we could get parents to strictly and forcibly deal with their children when they don't do what they are supposed to as they are growing up.	1 5	2	3	4
26. As I was growing up my mother often told me exactly what she wanted me to do and how she expected me to do it.	1 5	2	3	4
27. As I was growing up my mother gave me clear direction for my behaviors and activities, but she was also understanding when I disagreed with her.	1 5	2	3	4
28. As I was growing up my mother did not direct the behaviors, activities, and desires of the children in the family.	1	2	3	4

	5			
29. As I was growing up I knew what my mother expected of me in the family and she insisted that I conform to those expectations simply out of respect for her authority.	1 5	2	3	4
30. As I was growing up, if my mother made a decision in the family that hurt me, she was willing to discuss that decision with me and to admit it if she had made a mistake.	1 5	2	3	4

Description: The PAQ is designed to measure parental authority, or disciplinary practices, from the point of view of the child (of any age).

The PAQ has three subscales:

Permissive (P: items 1, 6, 10, 13, 14, 17, 19, 21, 24 and 28), authoritarian (A: items 2, 3, 7, 9, 12, 16, 18, 25, 26 and 29), and authoritative/flexible (F: items 4, 5, 8, 11, 15, 20, 22, 23, 27, and 30). Mother and father forms of the assessment are identical except for references to gender.

Scoring: The PAQ is scored easily by summing the individual items to comprise the subscale scores. Scores on each subscale range from 10 to 50.

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Source: Buri, J.R. (1991). Parental Authority Questionnaire, *Journal of Personality and Social Assessment*, 57, 110-119

Appendix D

Resilience



Brief Resilience Scale (BRS)

Please respond to each item by marking <u>one box per row</u>		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
BRS 1	I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
BRS 2	I have a hard time making it through stressful events.	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
BRS 3	It does not take me long to recover from a stressful event.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
BRS 4	It is hard for me to snap back when something bad happens.	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
BRS 5	I usually come through difficult times with little trouble.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
BRS 6	I tend to take a long time to get over set-backs in my life.	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

Scoring: Add the responses varying from 1-5 for all six items giving a range from 6-30. Divide the total sum by the total number of questions answered.

My score: _____ item average / 6

Smith, B. W., Dalen, J., Wiggins, K., Tooley, E., Christopher, P., & Bernard, J. (2008). The brief resilience scale: assessing the ability to bounce back. *International journal of behavioral medicine, 15*(3), 194-200.

Appendix E

Help Seeking

**GENERAL HELP-SEEKING QUESTIONNAIRE –
Original Version (GHSQ)**

Question 1 = Personal or emotional problems

Question 2 = Suicidal ideation

Note: In all questions, items a-j measure **help-seeking intentions**.

Help sources should be modified to match the target population.

1. If you were having a personal or emotional problem, how likely is it that you would seek help from the following people?

Please indicate your response by putting a line through the number that best describes your intention to seek help from each help source that is listed.

1 = Extremely Unlikely 3 = Unlikely 5 = Likely 7 = Extremely Likely

a. Intimate partner (e.g., girlfriend, boyfriend, husband, wife, de' facto)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b. Friend (not related to you)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c. Parent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d. Other relative/family member	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e. Mental health professional (e.g. psychologist, social worker, counsellor)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f. Phone helpline (e.g. Lifeline)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
g. Doctor/GP	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
h. Minister or religious leader (e.g. Priest, Rabbi, Chaplain)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
i. I would not seek help from anyone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
j. I would seek help from another not listed above (please list in the space provided, (e.g., work colleague. If no, leave blank) _____	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. If you were experiencing suicidal thoughts, how likely is it that you would seek help from the following people?

Please indicate your response by putting a line through the number that best describes your intention to seek help from each help source that is listed.

1 = Extremely Unlikely 3 = Unlikely 5 = Likely 7 = Extremely Likely

a. Intimate partner (e.g., girlfriend, boyfriend, husband, wife, de' facto)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b. Friend (not related to you)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c. Parent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d. Other relative/family member	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e. Mental health professional (e.g. psychologist, social worker, counsellor)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f. Phone helpline (e.g. Lifeline)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
g. Doctor/GP	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
h. Minister or religious leader (e.g. Priest, Rabbi, Chaplain)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
i. I would not seek help from anyone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
j. I would seek help from another not listed above (please list in the space provided, e.g., work colleague. If no, leave blank) _____	1	2	3	4	5	6	7