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Health screenings in college health centers: Variations in practice

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ABSTRACT

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Objective: The purpose of this study was to examine the routine screening of female students in college health centers for six priority health-related behaviors and experiences (tobacco use, alcohol use, eating disorders [EDs], obesity, anxiety and depression, intimate partner violence/sexual violence [IPV/SV]), and to identify variations in practice.

Participants: A nationally representative sample of 1,221 healthcare providers (HCPs), including nurse practitioners, physicians, and physician assistants, from 471 U.S. college health centers.

Methods: HCPs completed surveys (on-line or paper) and reported on routine screening of female college students.

Results: HCPs reported consistently high rates (75% - 85%) of screening for tobacco use, alcohol use, and anxiety/depression. Rates of screening for IPV/SV, obesity and EDs were much lower. Nurse practitioners reported the highest IPV/SV screening rates.

Conclusions: College health centers present unique opportunities for screening, case-finding and intervening to reduce long-term sequelae. Providers are well-positioned to lead initiatives to improve screening practices.

KEYWORDS: college health, health screening, female college students

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BACKGROUND

Transition to College Living

The transition to college is a significant life event for many emerging adults. In 2019, 30% of 18-24-year-olds were enrolled in a 4-year college or university,¹ and three million lived in on-campus housing.² For those students, college campuses are communities and environments with their own unique set of norms.³ College living provides students with the opportunity to establish independence and to explore their identities, critical aspects of emerging adulthood.^{4,5} Many students are, for the first time, living independently without parental supervision, managing their own time and making their own decisions regarding self-care and other lifestyle choices, including engagement in health-promoting and health-risk behaviors.⁶

College Health Challenges

Numerous recent descriptive studies have documented the health and health risk behaviors of college students,⁷⁻¹⁷ including the biannual National College Health Survey.¹⁸ College students have been found to engage in higher rates of risk behaviors compared to non-college peers due, in part, to the social contexts and norms in college environments and lack of supervision.^{4-5,19} Notable risks among college students include tobacco, alcohol and other substance use, anxiety and depression, eating disorders (EDs), engagement in sexual risk behaviors and experiences with intimate partner violence and sexual violence (IPV/SV).

Female-identifying college students comprise 58% of U.S. undergraduate enrollments¹ and experience even greater rates of particular health issues/conditions (e.g., IPV/SV, EDs) compared to other students.^{2,20} An estimated 41% of women experience sexual violence, physical

133 violence, and/or stalking by an intimate partner during their lifetime.^{8,21,22} Female-identifying
134 college students experience some of the highest rates of IPV/SV of any group.^{8,23} In one study,
135 52% ($n = 457$) of female undergraduate students reported having experienced at least one
136 episode of violence in their lifetime; 12% reported experiencing IPV/SV during the preceding
137 semester.²⁴ In addition, female-identifying college students are twice as likely to experience EDs
138 behaviors than male-identifying peers.^{25,26} Cisgender female college students also report
139 significantly greater anxiety scores on the GAD-7 than cis-male college students ($p < .01$).²⁷

140

141 **Screening in College Health**

142 Primary prevention efforts seek to prevent health issues or problems from occurring by
143 implementing health promotion and disease prevention strategies (e.g., tobacco prevention
144 campaigns, healthy eating). In contrast, secondary prevention seeks to reduce harmful
145 consequences or prevent sequelae by identifying health issues early and intervening. Secondary
146 prevention involves screening (of asymptomatic individuals) and case-finding (with individuals
147 identified to be at higher risk for a given health condition), to reduce the long-term consequences
148 associated with the health issue.^{28,29} A number of organizations issue practice and screening
149 recommendations that are relevant to college student health, including the American Academy of
150 Pediatrics (AAP), the American College of Obstetrics and Gynecology (ACOG), the American
151 College Health Association (ACHA), the American College of Preventive Medicine,²⁹ and the
152 U.S. Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF). The USPSTF issues practice and screening
153 recommendations for a wide variety of conditions and populations.³⁰⁻³³

154

155 **Screening for behavioral health issues.** The USPSTF recommends that primary care settings,
156 which include college health clinics, screen for behavioral health issues that are common among
157 young adults. These include alcohol misuse,³⁰ tobacco use,³¹ depression,³² and obesity.^{33,34}
158 Alcohol use has been widely documented as a serious problem on college campuses for
159 decades.^{13,15} Several initiatives were undertaken to stem the problem, including screening for
160 alcohol use in college health centers. This practice has become fairly routine and has
161 demonstrated effectiveness in reducing high-risk drinking behavior when paired with brief
162 interventions.³⁵ Despite the overall decline in cigarette smoking on college campuses over the
163 past two decades,³⁶ nicotine use remains a high priority for screening due to the increased use of
164 aerosolized nicotine, or vaping, products.¹⁸ The adverse impact of vaping on cardiovascular
165 health is significant, supporting ongoing screening efforts.³⁷
166
167 Mental health on college campuses has received increasing attention in recent years,³⁸ as studies
168 have documented high rates of anxiety and depression among college students, particularly since
169 the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic.¹⁴ Anxiety is a significant mental health issue for college
170 students,³⁹ and correlates with the development of chronic disease and lower performance across
171 domains: academic achievement, persistence, satisfaction, self-efficacy.²⁷ The USPSTF (2016)
172 recommends universal screening for depression “as long as adequate systems are in place” (p.
173 382).³² Although there are few studies on depression screening in college health centers,⁴⁰
174 preliminary evidence indicates that depression screening is useful and achievable.^{41,42} English
175 and Campbell found that 64% of college health center respondents already screened for
176 depression at their clinics.¹⁰ Frick et al. found that a universal suicide screening program at two
177 student health clinics led to significant increases in identification of at-risk students, subsequent

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178 mental health referrals, and staff comfort related to suicide screening.⁴³ Students seeking help for
179 mental health concerns may feel more comfortable seeing a medical provider rather than a
180 mental health provider or behavioral health specialist.⁴⁴ Thus, student health centers provide an
181 ideal setting to implement universal behavioral health screening.⁴⁰

182
183 Research on screening for obesity and EDs in college health centers is also limited. Studies in
184 general populations indicate that obesity screening and documentation rates increase as obesity
185 severity and obesity-related comorbidities increase and that documentation is associated with
186 increased behavioral treatment.⁴⁵ The USPSTF recommends screening for obesity in both
187 children/adolescents and adults.⁴⁶ In addition, the AAP recommends that adolescents be screened
188 for EDs and extreme weight-control behaviors at annual visits.^{33,34}

189
190 ***Screening for intimate partner violence and sexual violence (IPV/SV).*** The USPSTF and other
191 national organizations (e.g., ACOG) recommend screening women for IPV/SV to promote early
192 identification and counseling.^{29,30,47} The USPSTF recommends that HCPs screen all women of
193 childbearing age for IPV,^{11,30} regardless of whether signs or symptoms of abuse are evident.
194 Screening may identify women who experience violence and lead to timely interventions and
195 referrals to reduce violence and improve outcomes.^{48,49}

196
197 Despite these recommendations and the fact that college women exhibit some of the highest rates
198 for IPV/SV, screening rates in college health centers are among the lowest.^{16,17,50} The few
199 studies of IPV/SV screening in college health centers that exist found that only 10 - 15% of

Health screenings in college health centers

200 female college students were being screened for IPV/SV.^{17,24,51} This was deemed a “missed
201 opportunity”⁵¹ (p. 221) for early detection and referral in this at-risk population.^{16,17,51}

202

203 **Purpose**

204 In general, there is limited research on screening in college health centers/settings.⁴⁰ The purpose
205 of this study was to examine college HCPs’ routine screening of female college students for
206 IPV/SV and five other high priority conditions (alcohol use, tobacco use, anxiety/depression,
207 EDs and obesity) and describe variations in practice.

208

209 **METHODS**

210

211 **Design**

212 The *National College Healthcare Provider Survey* was part of a national study of college HCPs
213 funded by the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ; R01027154). The survey
214 was conducted in 2022 with nurse practitioners (NPs), physicians (MD/DOs) and physician
215 assistants (PAs) from accredited four-year colleges/universities in the U.S. The study examined
216 college HCPs’ routine screening of female students for tobacco use, alcohol use, anxiety and
217 depression, EDs, obesity, and IPV/SV, and was framed using an organizational expansion of the
218 Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB),^{52,53} and the Consolidated Framework for Implementation
219 Research (CFIR).⁵⁴⁻⁵⁸

220

221 **Site and Sample**

222 There was no existing sampling frame of college HCPs; one was created using a multi-step
223 process. First, the list of accredited colleges and universities from the U.S. Department of

Health screenings in college health centers

224 Education database¹ was reviewed to identify accredited, 4-year general colleges/universities
225 with 2,500 or more undergraduate students ($N = 643$). College websites were then reviewed.
226 Those that had accessible college health center websites ($N = 530$) and identified HCPs by name
227 ($N = 471$) were included in the college/university sampling frame. Finally, the names of NPs,
228 MD/DOs and PAs identified on health center websites were included in the HCP sampling
229 frame.

230
231 College-level inclusion criteria were: 4-year accredited general college/university; located in the
232 U.S.; enrollment of 2,500 or more undergraduate students; on-campus college health center; and
233 accessible college health center website that identified HCPs by name. Military academies and
234 specialty colleges (e.g., art, music), exclusively online colleges and 2-year community colleges
235 were excluded. Provider-level inclusion criteria were: NP, MD/DO or PA employed in college
236 health center; 18 years of age or older; and able to read, write and understand English. A total of
237 3,119 college HCPs from 471 colleges/universities were included in the original sampling frame
238 and invited to participate. Of these, 125 were no longer employed there or unreachable; the final
239 sampling frame included 2,994 college HCPs from 471 colleges/universities.

241 **Procedures**

242 Participants were recruited via the U.S. mail using strategies from Dillman.⁵⁹ Steps included: a)
243 college health center directors were notified of the upcoming study; b) HCPs were sent pre-
244 survey announcements; c) 1 – 2 weeks later, HCPs were sent packets with a contact letter,
245 informed consent form, paper survey and postage-paid return envelope; d) reminder postcards
246 were sent 2 weeks later; e) duplicate survey packets were sent 4 weeks after reminder postcards;

247 and f) final reminder postcards were sent 2 weeks later. All of the HCPs in the sampling pool
248 received paper surveys and instructions for participating. Participants had the option to return
249 surveys via the mail or complete surveys online; all were offered \$20 Amazon.com gift card
250 incentives. Procedures for the protection of human subjects were reviewed and approved by the
251 Institutional Review Board of Binghamton University.

252

253 **Measures**

254 Paper surveys were visually identical to online surveys and included the same instructions,
255 prompts, questions and response options.

256 **Demographics.** HCP demographics that were assessed included: age, gender, race,
257 Hispanic/Latinx ethnicity, HCP role (MD/DO, NP, PA), and whether the HCP provided direct
258 care to students (yes, no). College/university characteristics included: college type (public/state,
259 private religious, private secular), undergraduate enrollment (< 2,500, 2,500 – 4,999, 5,000 –
260 9999, $\geq 10,000$), HBCU/MSI, region, state, and urbanicity (rural, suburban, urban).

261

262 **Health screening Behaviors.** College HCPs who indicated that they provided direct care to
263 students were asked, “Of the female college students who you saw at the college health center
264 during the spring 2022 semester, approximately what percentage (%) did you screen for or ask
265 about tobacco use, alcohol use, EDs, obesity, anxiety or depression, and IPV/SV?” Eleven
266 response options were provided, ranging from 0 to 100% in 10% increments (e.g., 0%, 10%,
267 20%, etc.).

268

269 **Analysis**

270 Online data were downloaded into SPSS (IBM version 28). Paper survey data were double-
271 entered and verified prior to merging with the online data. All variables were examined for non-
272 normal distributions, outliers and missing data. Bivariate correlations were analyzed using
273 Pearson's (*r*) and Spearman's (*rho*). Because the screening rates were skewed, the Kruskal-
274 Wallis (KW) test was used to compare the screening rates by college HCP role and by the
275 screening type. For the significant KW tests, post-hoc analyses were performing using the Dunn
276 test to determine which levels of the variable differed from the other levels. Significance (*p*) was
277 preset to 0.05 (two-tailed) for all analyses. Listwise deletion was used in the event of missing
278 data; cases were deleted if they had missing values or responded "don't know" for any of the
279 variables in a given analysis.

280

281

RESULTS

282 Participation & Demographics

283 A total of 1,221 college HCPs from 49 states and the District of Columbia returned surveys
284 (overall response rate = 40.78%). Two-thirds of surveys were completed online. Of the returned
285 surveys, 62 had extensive amounts of missing data or were duplicates and were deleted. Cases in
286 which the respondent identified as "other" type of HCP were also excluded. Data from 1,159
287 participants were analyzed (38.71% of original sampling frame). As is shown in Table 1, most
288 respondents were Caucasian and identified as female; more than half were nurse practitioners.
289 Nearly 3/4 were employed at state colleges/universities; 2/3 were from universities with more
290 than 10,000 undergraduate students.

291

292 Preliminary Analyses

293 Participants who returned paper surveys were more likely to be older ($X^2 = 58.48, p < .001$) and
294 physicians ($X^2 = 13.09, p = .001$). No differences were noted by region, college type or HCP
295 gender. No statistically significant differences in screening rates for tobacco and alcohol use,
296 mental health, obesity and IPV/SV were noted between online and paper survey participants.
297 HCPs who completed paper surveys did report greater rates of screening for EDs ($t = 2.73, p =$
298 $.006$) compared to online participants.

300 **Main Analyses**

301 As is shown in Table 2, college HCPs reported the highest mean rates of screening (75% - 84%)
302 for tobacco use, alcohol use, and anxiety and depression. In contrast, college HCPs reported
303 lower mean screening rates for obesity (59%), IPV/SV (46%), and EDs (38%). However,
304 screening rate data were skewed and mean scores were likely affected by these distributions.
305 Thus, median screening rates were examined. The median screening rates were 90 and 100% for
306 alcohol and tobacco use, 90% for anxiety/depression, 70% for obesity, 40% for IPV/SV, and
307 30% for EDs. There was tremendous variation; individual HCPs reported rates that ranged from
308 0% to 100% for all six types of routine screenings.

309
310 *Screening by HCP type.* Screening rates were uniformly high for tobacco and alcohol use as were
311 screening rates for mental health (anxiety and depression). Although NPs reported screening
312 rates for tobacco and alcohol use that were slightly higher than those for physicians and PAs,
313 these differences were not statistically significant. However, NPs did report significantly greater
314 screening rates for IPV/SV ($p = <.001$) (Table 2; Dunn Test conducted for post-hoc analysis).

315

316

DISCUSSION

317 The current survey assessed provider practices related to the routine screening of college women
318 for tobacco use, alcohol use, anxiety/depression, EDs, obesity and IPV/SV. Routine screening in
319 college health centers is a unique opportunity to case-find, refer to services, promote access to
320 care, and reduce sequelae among women at high risk for these conditions. The study found high
321 screening rates for tobacco, alcohol and anxiety/depression, which was not surprising given that
322 these health issues have received widespread attention during the past decade. Much lower rates
323 of routine screening were found for IPV/SV, obesity and EDs. College HCPs reported routinely
324 screening fewer than ½ of their female-identifying students for EDs and IPV/SV. Given that
325 these are serious problems experienced by college women, the low rates of screening seem to
326 represent serious gaps and missed opportunities for case-finding and connection to care.

327

328 Further, the mean screening rates reported herein were averages across all providers. Individual
329 HCPs' screening rates varied widely; some providers reported screening none of their female
330 students for each of the six conditions/behaviors assessed, while others reported screening all.
331 These inter-provider variations in practice may indicate that screening practices have not been
332 normalized and standardized across health centers and professions.

333

334 **Implications for Practice**

335 This study found room for improvement in screening for high-risk conditions in college health
336 centers, particularly EDs and IPV/SV. Unlike guidelines for mental health, alcohol and tobacco
337 use screening, recommendations regarding universal screening for EDs are somewhat mixed,⁶⁰ in
338 part because there is limited evidence of potential benefits versus harm in screening individuals

339 with no signs or symptoms of EDs. Population-level surveys have found positive EDs screens
340 among 13.5% of female college students;⁶¹ when students self-select to be screened, rates of
341 students who have clinical/subclinical EDs or are at risk for developing EDs increase to almost
342 60%.²⁵ These data highlight the elevated rates of EDs in female college students and speak to a
343 need for increased screening as well as referral to services.⁶¹ A number of brief screening tools
344 exist.²⁵

345

346 IPV/SV screening has also not become routine practice in many settings despite USPSTF (2018)
347 guidelines. Screening for IPV/SV should incorporate trauma-informed approaches which
348 facilitate uptake of resources and improve outcomes.^{49,62,63} Although the IPV/SV screening rates
349 reported in the current study were relatively low (mean = 46%), this is noticeably higher than
350 screening rates of 10-15% reported in regional studies during the past 5 to 10 years.^{17,51,64}

351 Perhaps national recommendations to screen are slowly diffusing into practice. However, the
352 current study found clear variations in IPV/SV screening practice across HCP roles, with NPs
353 reporting higher rates of screening than physicians and PAs. Differences in role preparation may,
354 at least in part, account for these differences. If so, then NPs may be well positioned to lead
355 initiatives to promote the uptake of IPV/SV screening into college health center practice.

356

357 Whether to implement “routine” screening versus screening that is prompted by a specific reason
358 for visit is another important consideration. There is currently debate whether it is best to
359 routinely ask all women about IPV/SV or to use a case-finding approach based on known risk
360 factors and clinical indications.⁴⁹ Wathen and Mantler advocate for case-finding, and emphasize
361 the importance of using a trauma- and violence-informed approach in order to identify a history

362 of IPV/SV and offer support and services without causing further harm.⁶³ Others report that
363 women who are actively screened and directly asked about past and recent experiences with
364 violence are more likely to disclose to HCPs than those who are not asked.^{9,65–68} This may be
365 particularly true in college health as some young people in abusive relationships may not realize
366 that what they are experiencing is unhealthy. Those who were abused as children may have
367 difficulty recognizing IPV/SV as reportable.^{7,65,69} Providers should utilize trauma-informed
368 approaches to facilitate patients' disclosure of IPV/SV, uptake of resources, and improved
369 outcomes.⁶³ In addition, a trauma-informed, conversational approach to asking about IPV/SV
370 may be preferable to a structured questionnaire.⁶³

371

372 **Implications for Research**

373 The primary focus of the current study was on screening female college students for IPV/SV and
374 other priority behavioral health-related conditions. However, these conditions are also
375 experienced by male, transgender and non-binary students.⁶⁵ Future studies should examine
376 whether all students are being screened.

377

378 There are descriptive studies documenting the health and health risk behaviors of college
379 students,^{7,9–15,51} including the National College Health Survey.¹⁸ While this research is vital to
380 document trends in students' health behaviors, the findings do not necessarily inform practice or
381 how to intervene. HCPs' experiences must be understood and factors at the provider-, health
382 center- and macro-system levels that facilitate or impede screening practice must be identified.

383 Future studies should undertake prospective, mixed methods approaches to understand provider

384 and administrator perspectives in order to facilitate the uptake and/or adaptation of screening
385 recommendations in college health centers.

386

387 **Limitations**

388 The *National College Healthcare Provider Survey* had many strengths, including a large,
389 nationally representative sample and inclusion of three types of HCPs. Nonetheless, the study
390 findings should be viewed in light of several limitations. First, this cross-sectional survey
391 provided a snapshot of practice at one point in time. Second, surveys relied upon providers' self-
392 reports; it is possible that providers might have over- or under-reported their screening practices.
393 Third, the sampling frame for individual college HCPs was developed using the information
394 available on college health centers' websites; it is possible that the information available may not
395 have been accurate and up-to-date. Finally, the study was limited to general colleges and
396 universities; it is unknown how screening practices may differ at specialty colleges, military
397 academies, and community colleges.

398

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